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PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

THE ASSESSMENT OF COUNCIL-EXECUTIVE ROLES AND STYLES IN THE ETHIOPIAN URBAN CENTRES

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Abstract: *Urban governments are composed of lawmakers and law implementers just like most national governments. The lawmakers are councilors elected by the residents through regular local elections whereas those who implement policies, laws and ordinances are mostly selected. These urban government organs exist in different forms based on local and national political and administrative structures. There are three most common urban government models practiced in many places namely; council- mayor model, commission model and council-manager model. In some places, a variant of one model can be mixed to the other to fit local circumstances. The purpose of this study is to assess and identify the typologies and roles of urban government models in Ethiopia. To this effect, various secondary data sources were consulted. A review of proclamations and legislations issued by various Regional States in Ethiopia show both the council- mayor and the council-manager model are adopted in different urban centres in different regional governments including the city of Addis Ababa. In the council-mayor model, a weak mayor type is exercised because urban councils rely on committees established to implement and oversee councilors' decisions. The council-manager model has been adopted with amended legislations in the later years of the urban reform. However, the practice of the council-manager model in the Amhara, Oromia and Addis Ababa City does not stand the test of council-manager model requirements identified in the literature. This is because the managers are not politically neutral and no open vacancies are announced to select managers.*

Keywords: *council, executive, council-mayor, council-manager, urban, Ethiopia*

Introduction

Urban government systems are characterized by a dual power structure in which two bodies play prominent roles: the mayor and a directly elected popular assembly (referred to as municipal council). Even though the models of urban government in the world differ in many important respects, in all systems the council is conceived as a crucial channel in the communication between citizens and their local governments. The distinction between the roles of elected representatives (councilors) and executives is very important in urban government. Councilors are elected by the public to serve for a period of election terms. They are elected onto a local council and only keep their positions if they are re-elected. As lawmakers, councilors give political direction and leadership in the municipalities. A much larger group of professional public servants and senior executives support this small group of elected officials in translating its laws and programs in to outcomes.

While mayors and city managers often develop and propose policies, their basic authority is to carry out the council's directives and to implement the policy adopted by councils. To this effect, municipalities employ large number of staff to look after roads, sewers, fire, recycling and garbage programs, parking enforcement, city recreation, public health services and law enforcement. The success of a municipality is therefore determined

by the quality of these branches namely mayor and councilors, and by the quality of the public servants.

Various typologies of urban government systems and structures have been addressed in much local government literature based on theoretical and empirical analysis. Some countries emphasize strong political leadership; others prefer power sharing and the involvement of laypersons in the executive and legislative functions of government, while still others adopt weak executive styles with strong urban councils (C Collinge, 1997).

The responsibilities of urban governments differ across countries and cities, with structure and organization influenced by the historical, social and political context. National governments allocate responsibilities to the various levels of government, designating territorial jurisdictions, establishing electoral arrangements and designing internal management structures. Therefore, a clear understanding of roles, styles and relationships between the major local government branches is important both theoretically and empirically to know how relationships between those organs takes place in specific political and administrative environments.

Most of the studies done so far focus on urbanization, urban services and infrastructure, unemployment and related subjects. However, one of the important subjects in public administration, the types and roles of councilors and the executives, is given little attention in the urban discourse.

The researcher is motivated by the fact that the nature and typologies of council-executive relationship in Ethiopia is not explored so far despite the effect of these relationships on the functioning of the cities. There is little research, which illuminates this relationship, and certainly little is done in Ethiopia. The purpose of this paper is to identify and assess council-executive types, roles and relationships in Ethiopian urban centres.

Methodology

This study was based on desk review of existing urban government models in Ethiopia in relation to the theoretical literature on urban government models. A theoretical review of the existing literature has been done and secondary data sources have been used to analyze the existing situation of urban management models in Ethiopia. Government policy, legal documents at both local and national levels have been reviewed to identify the typologies of urban governments. The sources of the secondary data include Federal constitution of Ethiopia and proclamations issued by various regional governments regarding urban government roles and structures. Based on the collected data and review of related literatures, interpretation, analysis and conclusion were drawn.

Literature Review

Administrative structure of local government is the framework within which local public policies and programs are determined and implemented. The administrative structure of an urban government not only determines the relationship between government organs but also its character and strength. Therefore, discussions of municipal government are usually about the activities of the mayor and councilors. After all, councils (elected officials) make the important policy decisions and ordinances. The mayor is at the apex of executive wing of the urban government which executes councilors' laws and policies.

This small group of elected officials is supported by a much larger group of professional public servants who advise the mayor and council and engage in the mundane tasks of building and maintaining roads, ensuring a safe and secure water supply and a range of other urban amenities (Thornhill, C. 2005).

Despite the universality of legislative and executive organs of local governments around the world, the way they are structured and the roles each play is widely variable. It is variable not only between countries but also within a country. This shows that the structure and roles of these organs of urban government are affected by various factors including political regimes, administrative preferences and the level of urban status in the national setting. The types of localities, size, density and services provided also affect the selection of forms of urban government.

The Councils and Executives in Urban Centers

In all the political systems, there are two important arms of government – the Legislature and the Executive. These are respectively the rule making and rule application organs of government (Thornhill, C. (2005)). In the subsequent sub-section, these organs are briefly presented which will be followed by the relationships of the two organs of urban government.

The Urban Council

The municipal council plays several roles in the light of the external and internal context. On the one hand, referring to the external settings, the municipal council conducts the business of representation and act as an advocate and defender of citizens' interests. It is also responsible for formulation of local policies and practices, which are perceived as meeting socio-economic needs and delivering welfare. Paradza, Mokwena and Richards (2010) assert that councillors are the intermediaries between the municipality and the residents. In order to perform their roles, they have to interact with both residents and municipal officials. Municipal councillors are required to perform an oversight role of the municipality functions, programmes and the management of the administration. In the process of governance, they examine and discuss bills on various subjects that are brought before them. They can repeal, alter or add to the provisions of existing laws and make them applicable to changing conditions depending on the extent of power vested in them. On the other hand, the executive arm of government implements laws and ordinances that is, their major functions include that of law enforcement, the execution of policy and advisory roles on to the council. The local council that represents the citizens is expected to oversee executive policy implementation and service delivery and hold the local bureaucracy accountable for its performance.

The Executive Organ

The concept of "the executive" is multi-faceted. At the most general level the executive function implies organizational authority: the direction of the municipal bureaucracy and service delivery institutions, the implementation of policies decided by the city council, and horizontal coordination (between departments). It also involves vertical coordination, i.e. acting as a linkage between the political and administrative level. Several more specific indicators have been introduced to cover central aspects of the executive function like control over budget formulation, oversight of budget

implementation, hiring of staff, appointment of members of boards and commissions, ex officio membership on boards and committees

The Mayor as Chief Executive Officer

Executives make decisions everyday as part of their responsibilities to solve different problems of the organization strategies, structures, performance and many other issues. The mayor is variously described as "the chief officer," "the chief executive officer" or "the head of council". As the focal point in the local government process, the chief executive officer works closely with the council in the development of policy and directs staff in implementing policies (Humes& Martin, 1969). The chief executive officer does not only take the leading part in formulating ideas, but also has an important expository role as the mobilizer of support for proposals. As the focus for the development of the proposals, he/she is expected by the council and the public to ensure their favorable consideration. The effective chief executive officer, either directly or indirectly, must not only build up enough support in council so that his/her proposals are adopted but he/she must also develop sufficient support within the electorate so that he/she and those council members who support his/her proposals are reelected to office (Ridley, 1959).

The Executive Committee

Due to the limited size of the council, it is difficult for the council as single structure to perform all the actions necessary within urban government. Therefore, certain supportive structures are created to assist the council in the execution of its tasks. One of these structures is the Executive Committee. The Executive Committee is an executive organ of a unit of local government that has the central overall task of directing, initiating and coordinating all or most of the activities of the urban centre. The executive committee is a plural executive organ composed of elected persons. It is responsible to the council and generally has few members. The executive or mayoral committee is commonly made up of councilors with specific portfolios which match the departments within the municipal administration, for example, health. The executive and the mayor oversee the work of the department heads, managers and staff (John P. PelisseroLoyola, 1997). City councils' use of committees is likely to vary with council size. Larger cities tend to have more council members and thus a greater need to accommodate a variety of individual and collective policy goals. Larger cities also are more likely to use committees for policy-making because they are expected to face greater demands from the public to address a broader range of issues than those faced by smaller cities (DeSantis 1987, Svara199).

The Department Heads

Among the most important positions on the staff are the heads of departments. Not only do department heads direct the work of the employees in their respective departments, they also play an important part in the preparation and in the actual making of the decisions affecting their departments (Humes& Martin, 1969: 155-156). The department heads work in close conjunction not only with the representative organs in carrying out the decisions of the councils and the executive committees but also prepare the papers which lay the groundwork for the decisions made by these bodies. In most cases, the department heads report directly to the chief executive officer. Departmental heads have responsibility for a specific discipline within a local authority. For example, the department head of finance takes responsibility for the administration of finances and its implementation thereof.

Likewise, a city might have a security department to deal with all matters affecting public security and a fire department to handle all firefighting, or it might have a public safety department dealing with all police and fire matters. Other departments may be organized to handle such activities as public works, water supply, education and health. Such departments are also known as line departments (Bromage, 1957). Departments are also organized to deal with matters affecting one or more aspects of the management of local government activities. There may be, for instance, a legal department, a records department, a personnel, or a building and supply department. These non-line departments which deal with matters that affect all local activities are called auxiliary or staff departments.

Council-Executive Typologies

The preceding section highlighted the major organs of local governments and their roles. In the subsequent section, the type of council-executive relationships will be discussed in a detailed way. A city government usually is organized in one of three ways. Depending on its charter, central or state government constitutions, a city may have a mayor-council government (with either weak or strong mayor), a commission government, or a council-manager government (Marger and Bertrana, 2005).

The Council Mayor Model

The oldest and most common form of city government is the mayor-council government. The council-mayor model is a municipal government in which the executive power belongs either to the council or to the mayor depending on the preference of local government. In this kind of government, the city council is the legislative body, while the mayor is the city's chief executive organ. In this model, a city may be divided into several districts, often called wards. The people of each ward elect one person to represent them in a city council. In some cities, several council members at large are elected by all the voters in the city, rather than just the voters of one ward (Mouritzen, Poul Erik, James H. Svava (2002). Council Mayor Model is characterized by a separation of powers in which the mayor serves as chief executive while the council fulfills the role of the legislative arm of government. Hence, formally, the mayor serves as the chairman/president of the council and chief executive officer of the city administration. The main function of the council is to make laws and approve the budget (Snider, 1950). Depending on local preferences there are two variants of council-mayor models namely weak- mayor-council model and strong-mayor-council model.

Weak mayor model

In a weak mayor-council form of government, the mayor is mainly a ceremonial figure. The council is not only the policymaking body, but also provides a committee form of administrative leadership and exercises the powers of appointment and removal of agency/department heads and budget preparation. In this form of government, the council possesses both legislative and executive authority. The council may appoint officials and approves mayoral nominations. The council also exercises primary control over the municipal budget (Jacobowitz And Gubits, Llp(2006). Typically, Weak-Mayors are not separately elected by the voters. Separate elections for any given office usually signal that the office holder will function differently from other elected officials; that is, his or her

duties somehow are unique in the government and a separate election for the office is justified. Since Weak-Mayors are not distinguishable for the most part from other elected officials, the need to elect them separately does not exist. For this reason, a typical Weak-Mayor charter requires elected officials to decide among themselves which of them will serve as mayor. In many cities where this model is applied, the primary role of the mayor is to take care of ceremonial activities. The mayor has only a little power. For example, the mayor cannot appoint people to the council or develop the city's budget. Nor can she/he veto the city council's decisions. Besides, the mayor has a limited power in the appointment of heads of departments in the municipality and has to get the approval of the council to do this. The biggest advantage of this model is that the city is not controlled by one single person. Thus, the city is less subject to some individual clumsy mistakes and corruption is less likely to harm the city.

Strong Mayor Model

Many city governments using the mayor-council form of government have adopted a strong-mayor type of city government. Under the strong mayor model, the mayor is the strong chief executive officer and has the primary responsibility for running the city's government. For example, the mayor appoints most of the city officials. He or she usually prepares the city budget. In some cities, the mayor can also veto ordinances passed by the city council (National Civic League, 1996). Hence, the Mayor-Council form invests most or all executive powers in the mayor and thus provides for clear leadership in city government. Due to the formal powers built into the system, the mayor has the ability to set the agenda and deliver on it. This power means that voters can expect that promised projects will not get buried in the legislative process, especially when the mayor controls the budget and has a veto. In other words, a strong mayor may lead to a better correlation between mayoral proposals and outcomes. Furthermore, since city departments are directly responsible to the mayor, coordination problems are generally reduced. In short, the major benefit of this system is that more functions can be accomplished more quickly. This shows that this model emerged to solve weak mayor model drawbacks.

The mayor and a much smaller body of councilors are the only elected officials and the separation of executive and legislative is much more apparent than in the Weak Mayor variant. In its most general form, the Strong Mayor system usually assigns the mayor a combination of:

- control over the appointment and removal of department heads
- broad mayoral veto power
- the preparation and execution of the budget

In addition to the general formal powers, the mayor also develops new policy initiatives, sets the political agenda, and in all other respects "drives" the city government. The council in this arrangement is rather weak. Its responsibilities include the approval of the budget, the passing of resolutions with legislation, auditing the performance of the mayor and bureaucratic structure, and the adoption of general policy positions (ICMA, 1999).

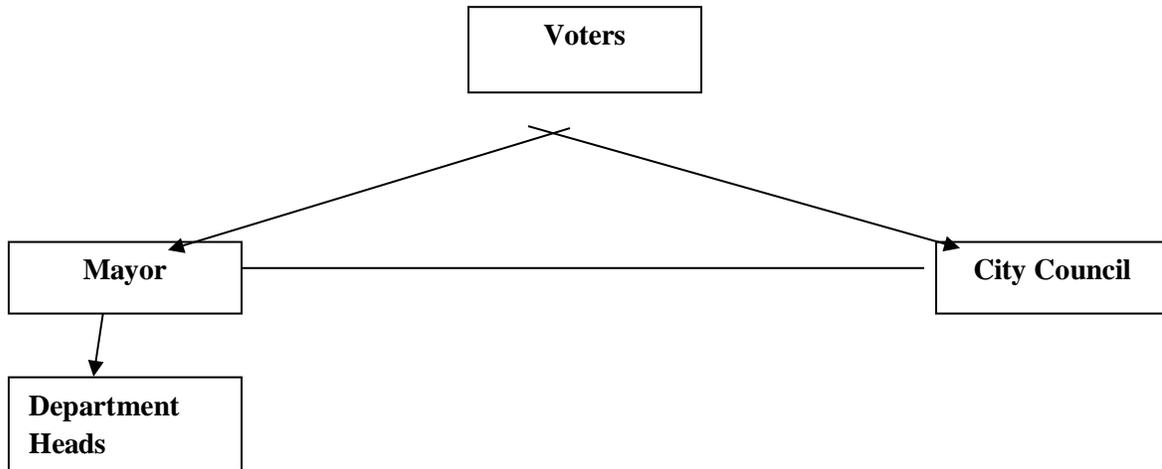


Figure 1 Strong mayor form model

The choice of strong mayor model has been influenced by the political changes in many areas where the model has been adopted. In terms of rhetoric, the 1990's were dominated by the rising popularity of New Public Management (NPM). Although the NPM ideology is a multifaceted and not necessarily consistent set of ideas, most of its advocates would probably agree on the need to strengthen the executive branch of government.

This has implications at two levels. First, the NPM-advocates stressed the need to strengthen the position of the political executive. The council and other similar representative bodies should not indulge in 'overregulation and micromanagement' (Kettl 1995). In local politics and government in several countries this has resulted in pleas for the introduction of the strong, directly elected mayor (Denters and Rose 2005). Second, NPM-adherents also have propagated the doctrine 'let managers manage' as a key element in the NPM reform program (Kettl 1997). This principle implies that politicians should allow more discretion to the civil service and its managers. According to many observers, the NPM-movement has affected European local governments (e.g. John 2001; Denters and Rose 2005). For instance, in Germany, local government has undergone significant changes since the early 1990's adopting strong-mayor system with elected mayors in South German cities (Wolmann 2005). In this setting, the mayor is directly elected and chairs the municipal assembly and heads the administration.

In France, mayors are both an elected authority – by municipal councils – and a representative of the state. Following the decentralization reinforcement (after 1981), the scope of local initiatives dramatically increased reversing the role of mayor from the state's agent to representative of city in the state (Newman & Thornley 1996). Hence, mayors are powerful positions and in fact mayoralty stands at the centre of local governance. Evidently such model likely to have left visible marks on the relations between the various actors in European town halls.

One of the advantages of the strong mayor system is the strong leadership with centralized responsibility. This in turn can mean more efficient and effective policy implementation as a strong mayor is able to hire and fire department heads and is largely responsible for the municipality's budget decisions.

The model ensures division of labor. The Council's job is to take a long-range view of governmental needs. The Council acts as the deliberative arm of the government, balancing the interests of residents against the resources at the government's disposal, and then thoughtfully promulgating its budget, ordinances and policies. The mayor is empowered to speak on behalf of the government, lobby for its causes, and set its tone and direction.

On the other hand some feel that the focused responsibility may be too much for a single person, and this can be seen as a disadvantage. Also, because a mayor may not be a professional administrator there are concerns of inefficiency or that the concentrated power could lead to appointments based on political reasons rather than experience or abilities. In addition there is a large volume of tasks for a mayor; the mayor may not be also a professional manager (specialist).

The Commission Model

The commission form of city government, also known as the Galveston Plan, was devised in Galveston in 1901 in USA (Chandler Davidson, 1984). In this form of urban management, major services and functions are headed by separate commissions. Voters elect a small governing commission, typically five or seven members, on an at-large basis. As a group, the commissioners constitute the legislative body of the city responsible for taxation, appropriations, ordinances, and other general functions. Individually, each commissioner is in charge of a specific aspect of municipal affairs, e.g., public works, finance, or public safety. A commissioner can oversee public works. Another commissioner sees that the city has an adequate supply of clean water and that the streets are kept in good repair. A third commissioner can oversee the city's finances, including tax collection. The fourth commissioner might supervise the public welfare department, which helps the city's disadvantaged citizens. Still another commissioner might run the health department, which supervises hospitals, clinics, and health inspectors in the city.

This model of city government has certain disadvantages. For example, voters may find it difficult to elect officials who know how to run a department of the city's government. In addition, commissioners sometimes disagree about who should manage activities and budgets that fall under the jurisdiction of different departments.

One of the commissioners is designated chairman or mayor, but his function is principally one of presiding at meetings and serving in ceremonial capacities. Thus the commission plan blends legislative and executive functions in the same body blurring checks and balances.

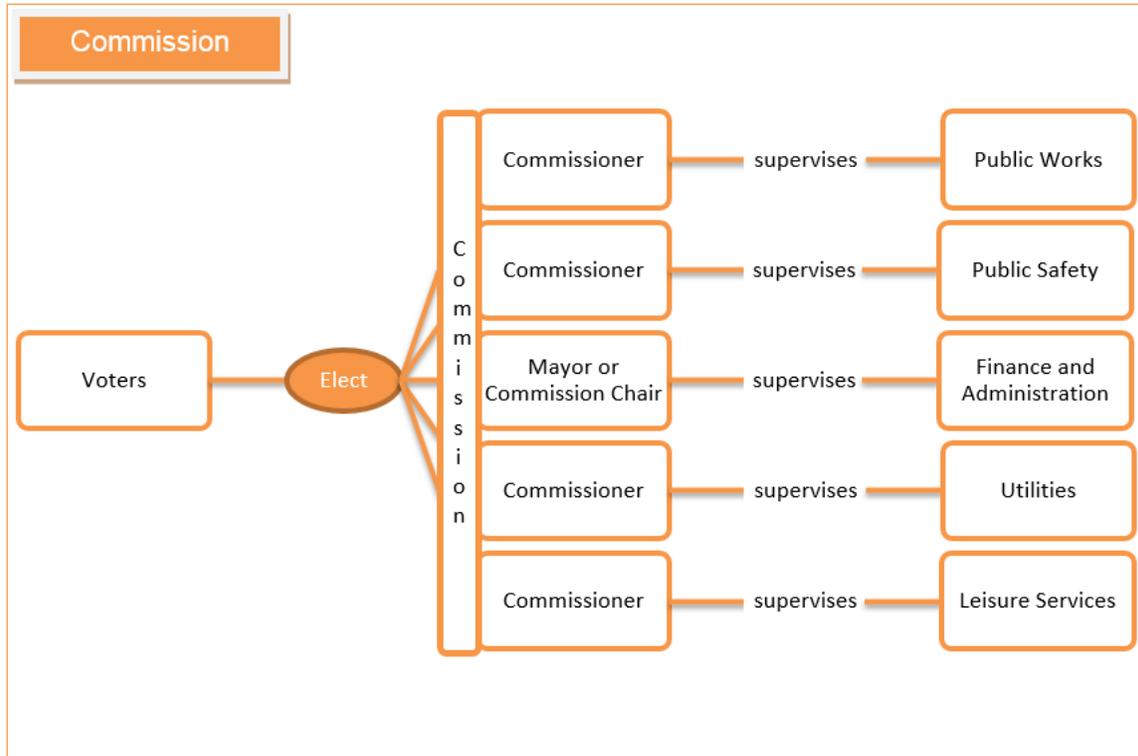


Figure 2 The structure of commission model (ICMA)

The Council Manager Model

Citing the short comings of the preceding models the reformers set out to separate politics from administration and create a form of government based on “neutral competence.” Among the reforms, the council-manager provided for an elected city council with a professionally trained manager to administer various municipal departments (De Visser, J. (2001). Such is the case in Australia, Ireland, and the U.S. The council-manager form is the system of local government that combines the strong political leadership of elected officials in the form of a council or other governing body, with the strong managerial experience of an appointed local government manager. The form establishes a representative system where all power is concentrated in the elected council and where the council hires a professionally trained manager to oversee the delivery of public services.

Freed from political constraints and daily pressures of having to pacify various political constituencies prevalent in the other models, the professional manager could ideally make decisions based on economy and efficiency. So the council- manager form of government is based on the theory that the business of local government is to provide basic administrative services and should not therefore, be political. The council is responsible for the formulation of municipal legislation and policies and approving the budget. It does not involve itself in the day-to-day affairs of the municipality. This task is left to the manager who in turn recruits and appoints qualified staff in the different departments of his/her administration (National Civic League, 1996).

To ensure objectivity and professionalism of the manager, cities have to advertise job openings and get applications from within and outside the community. The following picture depicts the form of council manager mode.

Council-Manager Form of Government

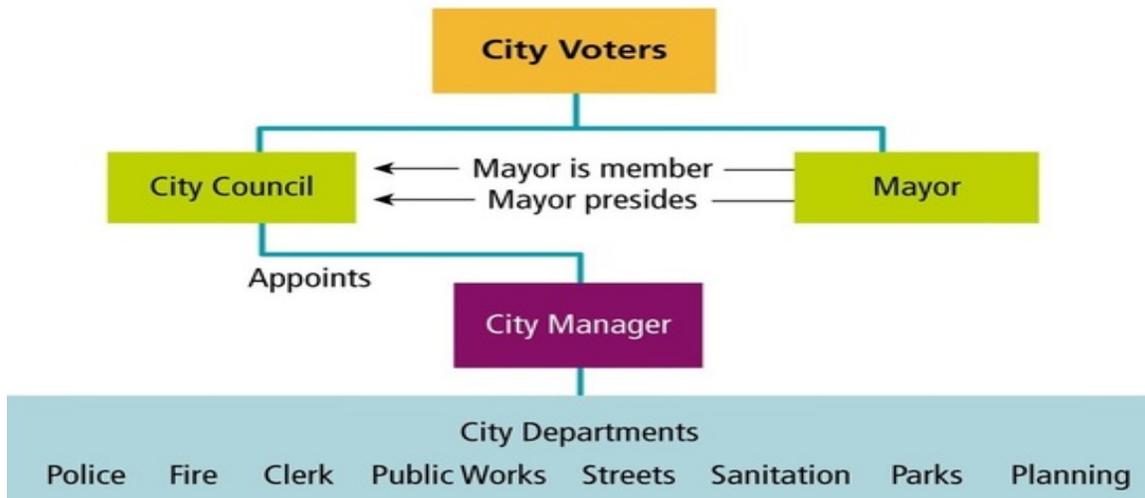


Figure 3 The structure of council-manager model (ICMA)

The figure depicts that the manager appoints department heads, including police, fire, public works, planning, parks and recreation and other as the need prevails. The department heads, supervised by the city manager, oversee the delivery of city services. The council plays no formal part in hiring, firing, or disciplining department heads (Kweit and Kweit, 1999). The manager is also responsible for the budget which plays a crucial role in shaping city services, although the council must approve the manager's budget proposals.

The mayor's role and appointment in the council-manager system can be quite varied (De Visser, J. (2001). Some municipalities appoint mayors from the pool of council members by a vote of the council. Others elect their mayors directly with votes from the general population. The actual duties of a mayor can also vary. Some mayors vote as normal members of the councils. Other mayors are only given vote with only the authority to preside at meetings and in order to break a tie in the voting process. One can infer from the model that it aims at separating the administrative roles from the legislative roles so that council can concentrate on policy making. Some proponents of this form claim that using a manager leads to more fiscal responsibility and cost cutting – one of the goals of this system is to manage a municipality more like a business (C Richard Tindal and Susan, 1995).

Urban councils and executive branches in Ethiopia

This section aims at analyzing the council-executive styles in Ethiopia urban centres. It is often best to begin with a review of the urban proclamations, city charters and code of ordinances in order to identify the nature of urban government structure because these documents state the role of elected officials, top executives and the staff who involve in day-to-day operation and management. Most of the major legislation governing municipalities in Ethiopia dates back to the Imperial regime. The Imperial Administration

issued legislations governing municipalities since early 1940s. The first of this kind was Decree No.1 of 1942 which allowed the creation of municipalities with appointed councils under the control of the Ministry of the Interior (Sisay Ashenafi, 1996). Further elaboration of municipal functions and central control mechanisms was provided in Proclamation No.74 of 1945.

Part 73 of the legislation states the nature of a council which was composed of representatives of various ministries and seven residents elected yearly amongst property owners and principal merchants. The council had the authority to deliberate and decide on matters dealing with the development of the town and the welfare of its inhabitants as well as fixing municipal taxes and rates (Sisay, 1996). On the other hand, part 71 of the same decree provided for the status of chief executives of municipalities. The chief executives were named Kantiba(mayor) or Lord Mayor for Addis Ababa and Gondar municipalities, which were designated as municipalities. Addis Ababa (the capital city) and Gonder (due to its great historical and religious importance) were classified as municipalities (cities) and were made to be directed by appointed mayors. It was also stated that the Emperor would appoint mayors upon the recommendation of the Ministry of Interior. All other non-chartered municipalities were to be headed by Town Officers. The town officers of towns and cities were made to receive instructions from Governor Generals of their respective provinces.

A particularly major reform at the time was taken with the issuance of General Notice No. 172 of 1954 that recognized the status of Addis Ababa as an autonomous chartered city. The charter gave Addis Ababa its own council with legislative powers on matters of policy. The “Kantiba” or Lord Mayor enjoyed the status of a governor general of a province and was to act as the chief executive officer and preside over the council. Furthermore, the city was given special powers, including the authority to issue bonds and to raise capital from domestic and external sources. Addis Ababa was an exception in this regard because no other municipality was provided with this legal authority. Indeed, all other municipalities of the empire were subject to strict control and supervision by the Ministry of Interior and the governor-generals of their respective provinces.

Municipal elections were not entirely democratic during the Imperial era. Among other things, the qualifications for candidacy were based on ownership of property. The automatic inclusion of representatives from seven ministries in the municipal council was also a requirement to ensure the influence of the central government. Moreover, the municipality’s directorate within the Ministry of Interior was made responsible for oversight the proper functioning of municipalities as well as issuing the necessary procedures that govern their operations. Following the overthrow of the monarchy in 1974, the military regime issued a series of legislations, which affected the functioning and institutional set-up of municipalities and towns in Ethiopia. The first landmark legislation was proclamation No.47 of 1975 that provided for the nationalization of urban land and extra urban houses. The proclamation designated a new Ministry of Works and Housing (later successively known as the Ministry of Housing and Urban Development and Ministry of Works and Urban Development) and transferred all the functions and authority over municipal administration from the traditional Ministry of Interior to this new institution.

The regime created various forms of Urban Dwellers’ Associations (UDAs) in urban centres, peasant associations (PAs) and service co-operatives in rural areas to

undertake development functions and deliver services to the people. Organizationally, municipalities were hierarchically organized into Central UDAs, Kefitegnas ('Higher' UDAs) and neighbourhood associations or Kebele associations depending upon the size of the population. To further consolidate the process of municipal reorganization, the Derg regime (military government) issued the Urban Dwellers Association Consolidation and Municipalities Proclamation No. 104 of 1976. This law provided for Addis Ababa to be headed by a mayor and all other urban centres by town officers. It also provided for the organization of all urban dwellers into co-operative societies of Kebele, Higher and Central UDAs by defining the roles of these institutions in urban administration. Accordingly, every town was to be administered by a council composed of elected members and two representatives from the Ministry of Urban Development and Housing. The single most important requirement for election was laid down as acceptance of the then Ethiopian National Democratic Revolutionary Programme which was the ideological guide of the regime.

Although municipal functions that were laid down in preceding legislation were listed as the powers and duties of central UDAs, those powers and duties common to UDAs and those specifically entrusted to Kebele and Higher UDAs were by and large political, and could be categorized as non-municipal functions by their very nature.

Municipal council elections were periodically held and the then Ministry of Housing and Urban Development was to appoint a chairman, a deputy and a secretary from among those elected. The three officers worked on a full-time basis but the council was supposed to carry out both legislative and executive functions. The major criteria for elections and appointment were essentially political and ideological, that is, ruling party membership and support for the government.

Urban Centres in the Current Setting

Based on the 2007 census, the total number of urban centres officially recognized by the CSA was 973 and the urban share of the total population is 17%. According to the Ethiopian urban planning law, an urban centre is a locality with a minimum population size of 2000 inhabitants, 50% of whom are engaged in non-agricultural activities. Despite long time history of urban settlement in Ethiopia, the structure and styles of the urban government emerged recently. This is witnessed only in the proclamations issued in late 1990s and early 2000s following overall nationwide reform initiatives. When the current government came to power in 1991, it proclaimed a decentralized form of government and developed a constitution that established a Federal Democratic Republic, consisting of: nine Regional States, the special administrative region of Dire Dawa and the federal capital Addis Ababa. Hence, since 2000 national decentralisation policies have formed part of a large scale reform of government resulting in the creation of institutional and legal frameworks for urban local government authorities. The objective has been to create and strengthen urban local government that will ensure public participation, democratization; and enhance decentralized service delivery through institutional reforms, capacity building, systems development and training.

The constitutions of both the Federal Government and the Regional States express the right for self-rule and administration at all levels of government. As Ethiopia pursues federal type of government where regional states enjoy autonomy, individual regions have made series of legal and institutional reforms to improve municipal service delivery,

infrastructure provision and governance. To this effect, the various regions enacted proclamations in different periods, the Amhara National Regional State enacted such legislations in 2000 (Proc. No.43/2000), followed by the Southern Nations, Nationalities and Peoples Region (Proc. No.51/2002), Oromia Region (Proclamation No. No.4/1993, Tigray Regional State (proclamation No.21/1997).

The Oromia Regional state enacted its first legislation even before the promulgation of the Federal Constitution. The municipal authorities and Rural Kebeles (neighborhoods) Establishment Proclamation No.4/1993 was issued based on Art 29(b) of the Transitional Period Charter, which guaranteed the right of nations, nationalities to administer their own affairs within their own territory and Art 38 of the National/regional Self-Governments establishment Proclamation No.7/1992.

According to the proclamation, a municipality has the following organs: A municipal council or municipal committee depending on the size of the municipality; An executive committee; Services and development affairs.

The Amhara region enacted two Regulations in the 90s. These are Regulation No.3/1995 and the proclamation of 1997. The former was issued to establish special zone of Bahirdar City and to define its duties and responsibilities whereas the latter was enacted to reorganize urban woredas (districts) and their duties and power. According to the proclamation of 1997, urban woredas have councils which perform both rural and urban functions. Functions that pertain to urban centres are stipulated in Articles 6.1-6.4. this proclamation was amended by proclamation No. 43/2000 which was later revised by proclamation No.91/2003. Proclamation No.91/2003 was issued to provide for the establishment and organization of urban centers of the Amhara National Region and definition of their powers and duties. On the other hand, the Tigray regional state enacted the Tigray Region's Municipalities' Administration Proclamation No.21/1997 with the view to addressing the municipal problems of its cities. Art.3 of the proclamation vests municipal status for selected urban Centers in the region. Among the principal organs provided in the proclamation are: The council; The executive committee; The administrative section; Subordinate committees. Art.9 states that the council shall consist of members directly elected by the people and Art.12(2) provides that the executive committee is accountable to the council.

The City of Addis Ababa

The Addis Ababa City Charter No.361/2003 defines the powers and functions of the city and identifies its principal organs. The principal organs include the council, the executive committee and the governor (mayor). The executive committee assumes an executive power that is more important than the governor. Among other things, the committee ensures the proper implementation of policies and laws issued by the federal Government and the city council, directs, coordinates and supervises the activities of organs and institutions accountable to the office of the city government. It also prepares and submits development plans and annual budget and implements the same upon approval. This indicates that the city has strong executive committee/council and not strong governor. However, the governor remains an important organ by virtue of the fact that he chairs the executive committee as well as the council.

Although the regional governments have more autonomy to reshape their urban centers, due to lack of urban management experience, they adopted more or less similar

patterns of urban government styles. The dominant style is council-mayor form of government and this is evident from the regional government experiences (example, Amhara Region City Administration Proclamation No.43/2000 and Tigray Proclamation No.107/2006). As indicated in the literature the Council-Mayor system is a governance arrangement whereby the City Council makes policies and major decisions and the executive power vested in the mayor and the Mayor's Committee depending on the choice of strong or weak mayor style.

In the Ethiopian urban centres which adopted the Council-Mayor system of governance, the city governments are mostly composed of the following organs (Bahru Detti, 2013): The City Council; The Mayor; The Mayor's Committee; The City Court.

The following section is dedicated to the discussion of the nature and roles of the first three urban government organs stated above.

The City Council

The city council, elected every five years, is accountable to the constituency, and, in the case of Addis Ababa and Dire Dawa that have chartered city status promulgated by federal proclamations, their accountability extends to the Federal Government too. The size of the population of each city determines the size of membership of the city council and determined by the Regional Executive Council. In all cities, the mayor is elected from council members to perform executive functions. Members of the city cabinet (mayor's committee) who are in charge of city departments are nominated by the mayor and approved by the City Council.

Powers and Responsibilities of the Council

The council is responsible to make major local ordinances and laws; approve basic organizational and operational documents and ensure their enforcement. To that end it follows up and supervises the policy implementation process; elect the mayor and, if deemed necessary, a vice mayor from among its members and determine the terms of their services. Based on the proposal of the mayor, it approves the size and the members of the Mayor's Committee. In addition the council elects the Speaker and, if deemed necessary, deputy speaker of the council from among its members. It also appoints the president and the judges of the city court and passes ordinances which shall take effect upon their publication in the local Gazette. The council also introduces, adjusts and ensures the collection of taxes and service charges according to law. It initiates, oversees the preparation of and approves the city plan; ensures its implementation in consultation with the public. It approves the annual work program and budget of the city and ensures the proper execution thereof. The Council convenes regular meetings every two months.

The Mayor

The Mayor is elected by the Council from among its members on the recommendation of the political party that constitute a majority seat in the city council. The mayor is accountable to the City Council and the Governor of Regional State depending on the status of the city. There are also instances where mayors are appointed by zonal or regional governments in which case the mayor can be brought from places other than the city, which conflicts with urban democracy.

The Duties and Responsibilities of the Mayor

The mayor serves as the chief executive officer of the city. The mayor has the responsibility to execute and follow up the implementation of laws, policies and guidelines issued and decisions made by the city council. He/she initiates and proposes policies to the council and ensure their implementation upon approval. As the chief executive officer he/she serves as the head and ambassador of the city and represents the city in its official and ceremonial dealings with others. In addition the Mayor chairs the mayor's committee. In consultation with the concerned bodies the mayor organizes public forums where city work programmes, budget, performance, financial reports and other matters would be presented and the views of the public heard.

The Mayor's Committee

The membership of the mayor's committee consists of council and non-council members. The mayor's committee is accountable to the mayor and to the council. A minimum of four standing committees, each with membership size of 7–13, are established.

Powers and Functions of the Mayor Committee

The mayor's committee has the following responsibilities:

- 1) The Mayor's Committee ensures the implementation of laws, decisions and standards adopted by the State Government and City Council.
- 2) The Mayor's Committee draws up annual city budget and, when approved by the City Council, it shall implement it.
- 3) The Mayor's Committee formulates social, economic and development policies, strategies, programs and; when adopted by the City Council, it shall implement

The introduction of council-mayor model

The regional states later amended previous proclamations in order to reorganize their urban centres and their roles. Amhara, SNNPR, Oromia and Tigray regions issued (Proc. No.91/2003), (Proc. No.103/2006), (Proc. No.116/2003) and (Proc. No.107/2006), respectively. Accordingly, the council-mayor model in most urban centers which was dominant in Ethiopia during the early periods of the reform has been modified. Examinations of urban government structure indicate that currently council-mayor forms of government are less distinct than they once were. This is due, in part, to the common practices of incorporating structural features from other forms into the model. It seems that the introduction of council-manager model is attributed to local responses to perceived distinct realities of regional states in relatively larger towns.

In those urban centres which adopted this model, city managers are responsible for municipal services and accountable to the mayor. The services that are under the purview of the city manager include preparation of detail plans, land development and administration, construction and management of city roads, sewerage and drainage lines, development and management of public parks and recreational areas, urban greenery and beautification, waste collection and disposal, sanitation and street cleaning, provision of land and building permits, control of pollution, abattoir services, civil status record operations, water supply, street lighting and fire protection. The following section shows how various regional states and Addis Ababa City Government introduced the council-manager model in their legislations.

Amhara National Regional State

The Revised Proclamation No.91/2003 was issued to provide for the establishment and organization of urban centers of the Amhara National Region and for the definition of their powers and duties. Unlike the previous one, the revised legislation has categorized cities/towns within the region in to three to define their administrative status, organization and management. These are City administration towns, municipal towns and emerging towns. In each of these categories, there is a manager in charge of urban services.

The proclamation introduced a variant of council-manager model to enable professional service provision in the cities. According to the Proclamation, the manager is appointed by the mayor based on professional competence and experience. In case of loss of confidence, the mayor removes the manager. As a chief of urban services, the manager remains accountable to the mayor and has the following powers and duties, among others (Article 22 (4):

- a) Employing, managing, suspending or dismissing subordinate officials under him,
- b) Attending council's or mayor's committee meetings; takes part in their deliberation without having a voting right,
- c) proper implementation of laws of federal and regional governments, policies and directives that the city administration issues as well as the decisions that it makes each time,
- d) Submitting periodic work plan, performance and financial activity reports to the mayor and to the city council,
- e) Presenting other reports up on the request of the council or the mayor's committee,
- f) Advising the city council and the mayor's committee to have complete information on financial conditions and future needs of the city administration,
- g) Conducting a study and submitting the same to the mayor on the circumstances that improve the revenues of the city and give security and insurances to the city residents as well as on the condition of the provision of integrated service,
- h) Causing that good and friendly ties to be maintained with the community so as to engender healthy communication and supportive leadership,
- i) Addressing the petitions of the resident population and acts thereon without delay,
- j) Nominating the deputy for mayor's approval, when necessary,
- k) Presenting to the mayor's committee via the mayor the proposal of internal departments and organizations necessary for the city services together with the details of operation and implements the same upon approval

Oromia Regional State

As stated earlier Oromia is the pioneering region in introducing legislation for its urban centers since the Transitional Government. Later on, it had the revised Proclamation No. 26 of 1999. The functioning legislation at the moment was introduced in 2003 by Proclamation No. 65/2003. Like the previous legislation, the current proclamation has also categorized/graded cities/towns in to four main parts. These are:

- a) Grade one: cities/towns having greater than 90,000 residents,
- b) Grade two: cities/towns having residents between 45,000 and 89,999,
- c) Grade three: cities/towns having residents between 10,000 and 44,999,
- d) Grade four: cities/towns having residents between 2000 and 9,999.

The proclamation states the necessity of mentioning the grade of any urban center for conferring legal certificate. There also exists a manger for each level of urban centers in charge of the execution of municipal services. The manager is recruited by the mayor for defined period of time on the basis of his/her managerial and professional merit. His/her employment is contractual and he/she is accountable to the mayor. According to the Proclamation, the powers and functions of the manager include:

- a) Leading and coordinating municipal services,
- b) Preparing and developing service delivery standards, and performance indicators to the mayor, and ensure the performance of same up on approval,
- c) Ensuring the implementation of council decisions as well as the regional government laws, policies and standards,
- d) Establishing and chairing a management team constituting of organs of municipal service working under him/her,
- e) Appoint heads of the organs of municipal services,
- f) Recruiting, administering and dismissing human resource working in the municipal service in accordance with the law,
- g) Proposing to the mayor the establishment of municipal service bodies and alternative service delivery mechanisms, and implement same up on approval,
- h) Presenting periodic performance targets and directives to the mayor and implementing same up on approval,
- i) Preparing and presenting to the mayor annual work program and budget of municipal services and implementing same up on approval by the city council,
- j) Maintain transparent and open process to address the complaint of residents concerning municipal services and offer explanations to queries promptly,
- k) Submit to the mayor periodic and annual work performance and financial reports.

Addis Ababa City Government

Addis Ababa city government was re-established by the 1997 Charter which was revised by Proclamation No. 361/2003. Under its Article (10), it has provided the organs of the city government at City, Sub-city and Kebele levels. It also states the election of the Mayor by the council from among its members having similar term of office with the council. The mayor is accountable both to the federal government and the council and he is the chief executive officer of the city and responsible for the normal transactions of the business of the city.

According to the Proclamation, the municipality is reorganized and mandated with many responsibilities in performing a range of activities. To this effect the city government is composed of a Council, Mayor, Manager, City Cabinet, City Judicial Organs., and Chief Auditor. The city has also council standing committees responsible for running seven sectors namely; finance& economic affairs, capacity building, municipal services, justice and good governance, women, youth and social affairs, urban development and environmental protection, communication and cultural affairs.

Unlike the previous proclamations, the new proclamation provided and legally instituted the structures and functions of city management. Article (24) of the charter has instituted the city manager as the chief of the municipal service. The manger is hired as well as fired by the Mayor and remains accountable to the mayor for his functions. The city management was also instituted at Sub-city and Kebele levels. Each 10 Sub-cities has its own manger accountable to the city manager and the Sub-city Chief Executive of the

respective sub-city and responsible to carry out functions provided under Article 37 (2) of the Charter, organize, and direct municipal service organs.

The Role of the City Manager

The City manager shall:

- a) make recommendations, to the Mayor, for the establishment of municipal bodies
- (b) nominate candidates for appointment, by the Mayor, as heads of municipal service bodies; direct; in accordance with law, the operations of such heads and effect their discharge;
- (c) hire, under a contract of employment for a definite period, competent professionals as sub-City Managers as well as administer and discharge same; receive, examine and decide upon annual and, where necessary, periodic reports from sub-City Managers;
- (d) submit to the Mayor action plans and budget proposals concerning city-wide and inter-sub-City municipal services and implement same upon approval;
- (e) develop and submit to the Mayor service delivery indicators and guidelines and implement same upon endorsement thereof;
- (f) ensure the delivery of efficient, transparent and equitable municipal services;
- (g) execute decisions concerning municipal services;
- (h) initiate and submit to the Mayor policy proposals and draft laws concerning municipal services;
- (i) recommend, to the Mayor, a candidate for employment as Deputy City Manager and hire same upon approval;
- (j) submit work performance reports to the Mayor;
- (k) receive and handle as well as respond, reasonably fast, to the pleas of residents concerning municipal services;
- (l) constitute and direct a management committee consisting of the heads of organs subordinated to him,
- (m) perform other functions assigned to him by the Mayor.

In the current Ethiopian urban centres which adopted the city management model, the main job of the managers is to implement municipal polices and provide professional and efficient services to residents. He is responsible for day-to-day activities of the cities. The relation between the mayors and the managers can be explained as superior-subordinate relationship because city legislations oblige the manager to answer to the mayors. The managers propose ways and means on how to provide services to the residents. It is up to the mayors to accept these proposals. For proposals that involve technical issues, the managers may have a professional discretion to explain and get them approved. In practice, both need to work together closely because of the fact that municipal functions for which the managers are responsible take much of the resources and energy of the city administration and they constitute basic urban services which are needed by the residents on the daily basis.

But the way council-manager model functions in Ethiopia differs from the nature of council-manager style stated in the literature. In both Addis Ababa and regional cities, no vacancies are announced to recruit managers on competitive basis. In the literature it was indicated that managers have to be recruited by widely published vacancy announcements with the criteria of professional fitness, experience and competence. Political neutrality is also important to avoid partisan behavior in urban management. A

municipality operating under the council-manager form of government has to be clearly chosen to fundamentally alter its form of government in order to instill professional management consideration and non-partisan basis in daily operations.

However, under the current political environment in Ethiopia, neutrality of city managers is questionable. There is no also direct relationship between the manager and the council. In the literature, the council hires the manger and the extension of managers' contract depends on the approval of the council. The council has the power to fire the manager when it believes the manager is not acting professionally. The manager is under the council's surveillance to ensure professional urban service delivery. Hence, the manager should possess a direct reporting relationship with the city council. This allows the manager to provide his or her professional advice to the full governing body rather than to a single political official.

Conclusion

For a long time, various typologies of local self-government systems have been proposed. They are based on theory and empirical evidence and concern the division of power in local communities, i.e., the relationships between the local council, the mayor, and the executive officials. As indicated in this study, there is no one best way of structuring local government. Nor are there a multitude of models available to guide the organization of local governance institutions. A survey of limited literature of local government organizations reveals that only three basic models (with some possible adaptations or variations on each one) have evolved over time. Circumstances (history of local government development, socio-demographic, cultural and political characteristics) dictate, to a large extent, which model any one of the jurisdictions follows. One of the most important aspects of effective government is defining, understanding, and accepting the appropriate roles of elected and appointed officials. In local governments today, there are three primary forms of government, namely the council-manager, mayor-council, and commission forms of government.

As indicated earlier, the idea and practice of urban management in Ethiopia began early 1940s when proclamation No.1/1942 was promulgated by the Imperial government. Similar provisions were also issued in the Derg(socialist) regime to redefine the roles and functions of the urban centers. In Both regimes only traditional urban functions were identified and assigned to the urban centres and the roles of the council and the mayor were crudely stated. The type of council-executive relationships, the power that one branch has over the other, the relation between the department heads and the mayor etc.were not identified. In both regimes urban governance and management was highly centralized where the higher tiers of government including the central government exercised strict control over the urban centres. Thus, political roles were more pronounced than managerial roles of the urban centres. The Imperial government issued the first and subsequent urban related proclamations after coming back from exile due to Italian aggression. Hence, the proclamations mainly aimed at consolidating the power of the emperor. In Dergregime it was clear that the single most important requirement for election on to the council was the acceptance of the then Ethiopian National Democratic Revolutionary Programme which was the guiding ideological doctrine of the regime. Due to this, politics and management were not demarcated and the urban council and executives were all politicians. It was stated

that one of the duties of the leading functions of the municipalities was to protect the revolution and its gains.

In both regimes, municipal governance had a tradition of centralist government structures. Municipal structures were established in some cities, but the mayors were centrally appointed and municipalities were treated as branches of central government. Despite the adoption of council manager model in some urban centres in various regions since the current government came to power, strict adherence to the principles of council-manager model is not warranted. In the review of literature, it was indicated that the manager is politically neutral, professional and hence the selection is based on open vacancy announcements. As the guiding principle is to separate politics from operation, the sole criteria for the recruitment is competence and neutrality. As the result the employment tenure is contractual, that is dictated by manager's efficiency, effectiveness and fairness in the discharge of responsibilities. In Ethiopia there is no evidence that the managers are selected based on these criteria.

Are the urban governments afraid of leaving the urban affairs to the outsider? Is patronage still preferred in the politico-managerial interface? These questions need further study.

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EU RENEWABLE ENERGY POLICY FOR SMART CITIES

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Abstract: *The European Union energy policy has been more and more focused on how to become more friendly with the environment and looked for efficient measures to assure the protection of the environment and for sustain the development of the cities through participatory governance: human capital, communication infrastructure (including informational communication systems), economic growth and high quality of life. Because the energy sector has the biggest share of total Greenhouse gas emissions (GHGs), the attention was directed to this sector. Although the EU member states claim that they support the transition from fossil fuels to renewable energy, it is important to see concrete actions into achieving this goal. Our study is structured in two parts: the first one, that includes an analysis of main energy indicators like energy production, energy consumption and share of renewable energy sources (RES) in gross final consumption, based on data available on Eurostat for 2019 and a second part that includes an analysis of the future perspectives and the goals of the EU Member States according to their National Energy and Climate Plans (NECP). The results show that the energy policy is a major factor that has great impact on the development of the smart cities, creating the added value for society.*

Keywords: *smart cities, EU energy policy, innovation, strategy*

Introduction

Smart city is a very dynamic concept that implies the development of the communities using creativity and innovation as a main tool. Using the innovative technologies and artificial intelligence and being oriented for increasing the quality of life of the citizens, the smart city is one of the key concepts for the European policies (European Commission, 2015). The urban development trend is present in European Union and the challenges are to respond to the clean energy policy during the urbanisation process. In this process, the cities are important energy consumers, and the EU energy policy follows to limit the negative effects of the gases emissions through innovative solutions.

Smart city is related to the digital technologies for facilitating the development of the communities and for sustaining the growth of the economies (Bakici et al., 2013). The new energy policies are meant to improve the smart city given the other dimensions of the EU policy and strategies.

Our study is meant to present an analysis of the current situation and future perspectives on the energy sector among the EU member states. The energy policy of the European Union is described by Solorio and Jorgens (Solorio & Jorgens, 2017:4) as a 'set

of policy instruments developed at the European level to promote RES between the member states', to achieve the EU's 2030 goals on Greenhouse gas emissions (GHGs). The study is divided into two parts: a first one which includes the analysis of energy production and consumption among the EU member states and the share of renewable energy in gross final consumption in 2019 and their 2030 target and a second part which includes a series of public policy decisions adopted by the EU members to reach the 2030 target.

The subject of decarbonisation was put in the spotlight by the European Union in recent years, as observed by Simionescu, Strielkowski and Tvaronavičienė (Simionescu et al., 2020). One of the main reasons why EU chose to give such attention to the subject of reducing the pollution was exposed by Pablo del Río (Del Río, 2011) and is represented by the fact that more than one third of the total GHGs emissions were produced by power generation. Another important fact was illustrated and confirmed by Ranjula Bali Swain and Amin Karimu (Swain and Karimu, 2020) is that there is a link between the renewable energy, especially used when producing electricity, and carbon dioxide emissions reduction.

According to data available on Eurostat (European Commission, 2021), the GHGs emissions generated by the energy sector represented, in 2019, 76.66% of total GHGs emissions excluding LULUCF. This data represents the motivation for the EU member states to seek for and implement efficient decisions in the energy sector to reduce the air pollution. Thus, the European Union has to find and implement new and less pollutive ways to produce energy and, specially, to generate electricity, but also to reduce the allarming amounts if GHGs emissions generated in the atmosphere. Furthermore, the EU member states need to strive to assure the succes of these measures, meaning that they must set realistic goals and formulate energy policy decisions in accordance with these goals.

Methodology

The question that the present research seeks to answer is “are the EU and its member states able to fulfil their energy and climate objectives set for 2030 and 2050?”. The specific objectives of the current study are:

O1: To analyse the data on energy production, energy consumption and share of renewable sources in gross inland consumption registered among the EU member states in 2019.

O2: To analyse the EU member states' National Energy and Climate Plan, the main objectives set for 2030 and the deficiencies of their energy sectors.

O3: To make proposals to improve the energy sectors of member states to ensure that the EU's 2030 and 2050 targets are met.

For the present study there have been used both quantitative information represented by primary energy production, gross inland consumption and share of renewable energy sources in gross inland consumption from Eurostat database, and qualitative information represented by energy policy decisions implemented by the EU member states, to reveal the EU states' perspective on the energy sectors and its future.

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

The main data used to reveal the intensity of the energetic activity of the EU member states were the energy production and the energy consumption. In 2019 the energy production among the EU member states is exposed into table 1, in descending order.

Table 1. Primary energy production on EU member states in 2019

No.	EU member state	energy production (thousand tonnes of oil equivalent)
1	France	133 920.169
2	Germany	105 426.218
3	Poland	59 345.211
4	Sweden	37 019.097
5	Italy	36 909.779
6	Spain	34 981.684
7	Netherlands	33 116.152
8	Czech Republic	26 597.965
9	Romania	24 529.894
10	Finland	19 268.926
11	Belgium	15 946.835
12	Denmark	12 509.911
13	Austria	12 359.595
14	Bulgaria	11 692.964
15	Hungary	10 785.730
16	Slovakia	6 939.977
17	Portugal	6 561.130
18	Greece	6 367.193
19	Estonia	4 909.228
20	Ireland	4 134.830
21	Croatia	3 900.369
22	Slovenia	3 378.696
23	Latvia	2 826.912
24	Lithuania	2 039.440
25	Luxemburg	232.365
26	Cyprus	208.337
27	Malta	38.004

Source: European Commission, Eurostat. Retrieved from <https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/bookmark/f7dab7c0-f2d5-414d-af86-17a36fc437b5?lang=en>

From the data exposed in the table above, it turns out that among the EU member state that has the biggest energy production is France, one of the founding states of the European Union. At the end of the table there are member states with little surface and population, which means the energy requirement is lower than in the other states of the Union.

On the other side, the energy consumption among the EU states registered in 2019 can be observed in the following table 2.

Table 2. Gross inland energy consumption on EU member states in 2019

No.	EU member state	Gross inland energy consumption (thousand tonnes of oil equivalent)
1	Germany	305 605.530
2	France	251 417.892
3	Italy	155 432.667
4	Spain	126 969.978
5	Poland	103 968.829
6	Netherlands	75 932.100
7	Belgium	56 777.208
8	Sweden	49 703.985
9	Czech Republic	42 995.792
10	Austria	34 698.218
11	Finland	34 234.932
12	Romania	33 107.423
13	Hungary	26 708.150
14	Portugal	23 914.607
15	Greece	23 551.592
16	Bulgaria	18 847.668
17	Denmark	17 313.653
18	Slovakia	17 023.933
19	Ireland	14 955.497
20	Croatia	8 790.716
21	Lithuania	7 800.523
22	Slovenia	6 721.680
23	Estonia	4 824.124
24	Latvia	4 649.810
25	Luxemburg	4 539.717
26	Cyprus	2 630.367
27	Malta	903.139

Source: *European Commission, Eurostat. Retrieved from <https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/bookmark/766dbc70-6525-41da-b22a-3619e558379f?lang=en>*

The biggest energy consumer is Germany, also one of the founding states of the European Union. At the end of the table there can be found the same three states that registered the lowest energy production. Nowadays the analysis of the energy sector of a state only through the production and the consumption of energy can be hallow. The energy sector's impact on the environment has become so big that EU member states started to pay more attention on different indicators, like the share of renewable sources (RES) in gross inland consumption. This indicator reveals the quantity of energy consumed by a state which has been produced with renewable, eco-friendly sources. Among the EU

member states, the share of RES in gross inland consumption reached values according with data from table 3.

Table 3. Share of renewable energy in gross final energy consumption on EU member states in 2019 and 2020 target

No.	Eu member state	share of renewable energy in gross final energy consumption in 2019 (%)	2020 target (%)
1	Sweden	56.931	49
2	Finland	43.081	38
3	Latvia	40.975	40
4	Denmark	37.204	30
5	Austria	33.626	34
6	Estonia	31.889	25
7	Portugal	30.619	31
8	Croatia	28.466	20
9	Lithuania	25.461	23
10	Romania	24.290	24
11	Slovenia	21.974	25
12	Bulgaria	21.564	16
13	Greece	19.667	18
14	Spain	18.356	20
15	Italy	18.181	17
16	Germany	17.354	18
17	France	17.216	23
18	Slovakia	16.894	14
19	Czechia	16.244	13
20	Cyprus	13.800	13
21	Hungary	12.614	13
22	Poland	12.164	15
23	Ireland	11.984	16
24	Belgium	9.924	13
25	Netherlands	8.768	14
26	Malta	8.488	10
27	Luxembourg	7.047	11
	EU 27 Average	19.729	20

Source: *European Commission, Eurostat. Retrieved from <https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/bookmark/766dbc70-6525-41da-b22a-3619e558379f?lang=en>*

France, the biggest energy producer of EU and Germany, the biggest energy consumer have, according to these two indicators, intense activity in the energy sector, but the problem is the way they produce these big amounts of energy they need. According to the data in Table 3, in 2019 Germany was the 16th member state and France is the 17th EU

member regarding the share of RES in gross inland consumption and nor France nor Germany managed to achieve the 2020 goal. Even if these two states have similar share of RES, the 2020 goal is different: Germany's goal is to achieve 18% but France's goal is bigger and reaches 23% share of RES. As observed above, there are common elements about these two states' energy policy, but there are also differences that make every state's energy policy unique. This situation is encountered into the entire European Union, and this is the reason why it is harder for the EU to achieve its energy and climate objectives.

All the EU member states elaborated in 2019 and 2020 a National Energy and Climate Plan (NECP) which include objectives and targets, but also policies and measures meant to develop a less pollutive and more efficient energy sector. The framework is common for all the member states, meaning that national objectives and targets and also the policies and measures are explained through five dimensions:

- Dimension decarbonization
- Dimension energy efficiency
- Dimension energy security
- Dimension internal energy market
- Dimension research, innovation, and competitiveness.

For this study, there will be used information referring the first two dimensions of the NECPs of the member states.

The first dimension, the one called decarbonization, is the dimension which states that all the EU members must find and implement efficient measures and policies to reduce the greenhouse gases (GHGs) emissions. GHGs emissions is usually measured as part of the level of their gas emissions registered in 1990 and few of the EU states have settled the reduction of the emissions as follows: France (Gouvernement de la Republique francaise, 2020: 6) set a reduction of 40%, Germany (German Government, 2020: 11) set a reduction of 55%, Sweden (The Minsitry of Infrastructure, 2020: 5) has set its emission goal for 2045, but it is more ambitious than France's or Germany's goals, because it wants its emissions to represent 15% of the 1990 level.

States from the middle of the production ranking like Romania, Finland, Belgium, Denmark have also set objectives for the future: Romania (Ministry of Environment, 2020, 11) set a reduction of 40% by 2030, compared to the level from 1990. Finland (Ministry of Economic Affairs and Employment, 2019: 16) set a reduction of 39% compared to 2005. Belgium (Federal Government of Belgium, 2019: 13) set a goal to reduce the emission by 35% by 2030 compared with the 2005 levels of the emissions. Denmark (Danish Ministry of Climate, Energy and Utilities, 2019: 6), the last of the four member states from the middle of the production ranking, wants to reduce its GHGs emissions by 70% by 2030, compared to the 1990 level.

At the bottom of the production ranking can be found member states like Luxembourg, Cyprus and Malta. Luxembourg's goal for 2030 (Le Gouvernement de Luxembourg, n.d.: 9) is to reduce its GHGs emissions with 55% compared to the 2005 level. Cyprus (Ministry of Energy, Commerce, and Industry, 2020: 16) and Malta (The Energy and Water Agency, 2019: 14) don't have a specific goal set for 2030 and they follow the collective EU's target of 40% GHGs emissions reduction by the year 2030 compared to the levels registered in 1990. The data above reveals the fact that not all the member states have specific objectives to reduce pollution, and they choose to put only enough effort to support the EU's collective objective for 2030.

The EU states with more intense activity in the energy sector have set ambitious goals for 2030, meaning that these states assumed that they will radically change the GHGs emissions situation. All the EU member states mentioned above in the NECPs analysis on objectives for pollution reduction, except for Luxembourg, Cyprus, and Malta, have set very ambitious objectives. The biggest goal is Sweden's, which stated that it will reach an 85% reduction of GHGs emissions compared to 1990. Romania has the lowest percentage of reduction between these seven states, but it is not the same situation as could be observed in Cyprus and Malta. The 40% reduction is a specific objective mentioned in Romania's NECP and it is not just a statement that claims support for EU's collective target. Even if these percentages seem ambitious and they seem to ease the achievement of the EU's 40% reduction, it is important to see if these member states' percentages are realistic. For this, it is necessary to correlate the data from the analysis that was made above with the share of RES in gross inland consumption among the EU states.

According to Eurostat (European Commission, 2018), the energy producing industries registered in 2018 the largest share of GHGs emissions, more specifically 28% of the total GHGs emission came from this sector. The energy producing sector is followed by fuel combustion by users with 25.5% and the transport sector with 24.6%. The fact that the energy producing sector has a relevant impact on air pollution has determined the EU member states pay special attention not only to the levels of GHGs emission, but also to the source of these emissions. As it could have been observed above, the EU member states have set goals to reach in 2030, 2045 or even in 2050 regarding the GHGs emissions. These states also set goals for the future regarding the share of RES in consumption. The analysis of the current situation of the share of RES correlated with the future perspectives will support the current study in understanding if the EU states have set realistic goals or those objectives will never be achieved.

Further, the study will continue with the analysis of the same 10 EU member states as above, trying to extract different types of behavior in the energy sector.

The first EU member states mentioned before were France and Germany, the biggest energy producer and the biggest energy consumer respectively. The fact that they need big energy supplies can be an obstacle on their way to produce cleaner energy, because the transition from fossil fuels to RES involves more effort and financial resources. In France's case, the data from Table 3 shows that France registered a 17.22% share of RES in 2019 and set a goal to reach 23% share of RES by 2020. By 2030, France's goal is to reach 33% share of RES (Gouvernement de la Republique francaise, 2020: 8) in gross final energy consumption. Germany, the second biggest energy producer, had 17.35% share of RES in 2019 and an 18% goal for 2020. Its goal for 2030 (German Government, 2020: 11) is to achieve 30% share of RES in gross final energy consumption. Sweden has a unique situation among the EU member states and can be considered a positive model regarding the transition to renewable sources. With 56.93% share of RES in gross final energy consumption in 2019, Sweden is the biggest EU renewable energy consumer. Its 2020 target is 49% share of RES, a goal obviously achieved from 2019. Surprisingly, in its NECP is mentioned that it "has no national targets for the share of renewable energy in 2030" (The Ministry of Infrastructure, 2020: 19) but according to the same document, The Swedish Energy Agency realised a scenario where the target for 2030 is set to 65% share of RES in gross energy consumption. Among the EU member states from the middle of the production ranking, the situation is as follows:

- Romania registered, according to Table 3, 24.3% share of RES in final consumption, making it the 10th EU state in the ranking of share of RES. It has already overcome its 2020 target of 24% share. According to Romania's (Ministry of Environment, 2020: 11) the target for 2030 is to reach 32% renewable energy consumption.
- Finland implemented successful decisions in the energy sector and it is the second EU member state in the share of RES ranking, with 43.09%. Its 2020 goal to reach 38% share of RES was obviously overcome in 2019. In its NECP, Finland set its 2030 goal to "at least 51%" (Ministry of Economic Affairs and Employment, 2019: 17) share of RES in final consumption.
- Belgium registered only 9.92% share of RES in final consumption, being the 24th EU member state the share of RES ranking. Its 2020 goal is set to 13%, and seems impossible to be accomplished in just one year. According to its NECP, the 2030 goal is to reach 23.5% share of RES (Federal Government of Belgium, 2019: 57).
- Denmark, the last of the four states in the middle of the production ranking, registered 37.2% share of RES in 2019, which means that its goal for 2020 is exceeded with more than 7 percents. For 2030, Denmark set a goal to reach 55% share of RES (Danish Ministry of Climate, Energy and Utilities, 2019: 8).

The EU member states with low energy production have also set goals for the future regarding the renewable energy sources. Therefore, the current situation of the share of RES and the perspectives for 2030 are these:

- Luxembourg is currently the last EU member state in the share of RES ranking, with 7.04% share of RES in 2019 and a 2020 target of 11%. In its NECP (Le Gouvernement de Luxembourg: 9), Luxembourg stated that the 2030 target is to reach 25% share of RES in gross final energy consumption.
- Cyprus is the 20th member state in the share of RES ranking with 16.2% share registered in 2019 and it already exceeded its 2020 target, which was set to 13% share.
- Malta is above Luxembourg in the share of RES ranking with 8.5% registered in 2019 and 10% share target for 2020. Its 2030 target is to reach 11.5% share of RES in gross final energy consumption (The Energy and Water Agency, 2019: 17, a target which is close to the 2020 one).

From the analysis of the share of RES in gross final consumption indicator, there are a few conclusions to be drawn:

- All the EU member states set ambitious targets for 2030, representing an average 10% growth in share of RES in 10 years. Malta is the EU member state which set the lowest 2030 target, with only 1.5% higher than the 2020's one. Sweden is the EU's biggest green energy consumer with more than half of its consumption being produced by renewable sources and can represent a role model for the other EU members in implementing the transition from fossil fuels to RES. Even if France and Germany have low shares of RES compared to Sweden, as the biggest green energy consumer or even Romania or Denmark, as smaller energy producers, they predicted big growths of share of RES for 2030.

- It is not enough for the EU member states to set a goal represented by a growth of the share of RES in gross consumption indicator. They need to sustain the achievement of these goals by implementing efficient measures. Some of the most common measures found in the EU states' NECPs are:

- A carbon dioxide tax whose role is to discourage the companies to produce CO₂ emission in states like Germany (German Government, 2019: 62), Sweden (The Ministry of Infrastructure, 2020: 42) and Finland (Ministry of Economic Affairs and Employment, 2019: 88);
- Measures and schemes to support renewable energy consumption, including tax incentives in states like Sweden (The Ministry of Infrastructure, 2020: 60), Finland (Ministry of Economic Affairs and Employment, 2019: 95), Romania (Ministry of Environment, 2020: 93) and Luxembourg (Le Gouvernement de Luxembourg: 82)
- Conversion of a coal based electricity production facility to a facility based on natural gas and photovoltaic energy in Romania (Ministry of Environment, 2020: 81);
- Replacing fossil fuels with renewable energy in the transport sector in Finland (Ministry of Economic Affairs and Employment, 2019: 86) and Cyprus (Ministry of Energy, Commerce, and Industry, 2020: 105).

Conclusions

Our study proposed an analysis of the energy policy of the European Union. More precisely, this study wants to reveal the main EU member states' decisions that sustain the 2030 target achievement regarding the reducing of the carbon dioxide reduction. The main question of the present study is that if the EU member states can completely achieve their 2030 goal regarding the GHGs emissions reduction.

For realizing this study and for giving an appropriate answer to its question, there were set three specific objectives that follows to reveal the current state of the energy policy in the EU Member States and the impact for smart cities development. A first objective which includes the analysis on main energy indicators like production and consumption, and the analysis of the share of RES in gross final energy consumption among the EU member states in 2019. The second objective proposes an analysis of the 2030 EU member states' targets and some of the measures implemented or planned for implementing to support the achievement of these targets. The third specific objective which includes deficiencies and suggestions to fix and improve the EU states' energy policy.

Regarding the first specific objective of the present study, the analysis of the data available on the Eurostat database of the European Commission reveal the current position of the EU Member States in producing energy, consuming, and sharing the RES in final energy consumption. The results show that France is the biggest energy producer and Germany is the biggest energy consumer among the EU states. The data show that the biggest share of RES among the EU member states was registered in Sweden, having a value of over 56 percent. Another fact discovered by analysing the data is that at the end of the production and consumption rankings are the same three EU member states: Luxembourg, Cyprus, and Malta. Malta and Luxembourg are also the member states with the lowest share of RES. The biggest producer and the biggest consumer, France and Germany are below the middle of the share of RES ranking with only 17.35% share and 17.21% share, respectively. This ranking will be used further to outline the main measures adopted by the EU member states to reduce the carbon dioxide emissions.

Regarding the second specific objective, there was proposed an analysis of some of the EU member states' National Energetic and Climate Plans, which include the EU states'

objectives and targets for 2030 and specific measures to achieve them. One of the measures adopted by the EU member states, an efficient measure according to Swain and Karimu noted (Swain & Karimu, 2020) was the electrification, because electricity can be produced easier from renewable sources. As observed above, this type of measures were proposed for the transport sector in different countries like Finland and Cyprus and in Romania, as a process of transformation of a coal-based facility to one based on photovoltaic source. Thus, we consider that, from this point of view, the EU member states implement the right decisions to achieve their 2030 goals. Other measures proposed were a carbon taxation based on the ‘polluter pays’ principle and fiscal incentives for the final consumers who join the transition.

Regarding the third objective of the present study, there are some deficiencies that need to be analysed and revised. The fast development of the electricity production from renewable sources was not harmonized with the development of the grid (Solorio & Jorgens, 2017: 298), which reduces the possibility of the member states to consume to the fullest that produced energy. An incompatible grid cannot sustain the use of renewable energy, so, even if there are capacities that produce the energy, it would be impossible to contribute to the country’s share of RES in final consumption and its growth. Even if some of the EU member states managed to accomplish and even exceed their 2020 target, according to the analysed data, some of them have set high targets for 2020 and were not able to get close to that target in 2019. One good example in this regard is France, which registered 17.2% share of RES in 2019 and set a target to reach 23%. The slow process of growing the share of RES in final consumption can lead to a failure in reaching the 2030 not just in the member states, but even at the EU level, as a whole.

Regarding the first deficiency exposed above, we suggest that the EU member states should formulate appropriate strategies after making detailed studies on every aspect of the energy sector. Investments can be partially redirected from building new facilities of production to the development and modernisation of the grid, otherwise the produced energy will never reach the final consumers.

For the second deficiency found in the present study, we consider important that the EU main institutions to get more involved into the states’ way on making the transition from fossil fuels to renewable ones. As observed by Solorio and Jorgens, the promotion of using renewable energy has become politicized (Solorio & Jorgens, 2017: 4) and it would be a mistake by the EU to ignore this aspect. It is very important that the EU drives all its resources, either financial or cognitive, to truly sustain the achievement of these goals for real, not just into political speeches and to respond to a sustainable development of the communities creating smart cities for smart people.

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**PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS IN PUBLIC SECTOR
UNDER NEW PUBLIC MANAGEMENT REGIME: AN
AUSTRALIAN CASE**

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Abstract: *Performance management system in public sector has undergone significant changes in new public management regime. Countries adopting new public management have brought changes in styles and modalities of performance management in public sector with the sole purpose of ensuring service quality to the satisfaction of service recipients. This research has adopted a qualitative research methodology under epistemological and ontological paradigm of social inquiry to study the performance management system of a government owned department in Australian Capital Territory. Giddens' Structuration theory has been applied as theoretical framework to develop a thick description of social reality. An in-depth case study method has been used as a predominant research methodology supplemented by observation, interview and review of archival records. The study reveals that new public management ideology has been successful in ensuring performance of the department from multi-facet dimensions.*

Keywords: *Case Study; Giddens' Structuration Theory; New Public Management; Performance Management System; Public Sector Organization*

Introduction

During the last three decades, the public sector worldwide has come under increasing pressure to improve performance and demonstrate greater transparency and accountability (Alam and Lawrence, 1994; Parker and Bradley, 2000; Larbi, 2003; Brown et al. 2003; Ellwood and Newberry 2007, Evans, 2018). In this context the practitioners started to adopt new management approaches as the basis for improving performance in the public sector (Metcalf and Richards, 1992; Osborne and Gaebler, 1992; Hughes, 1995; Girishankar, 2001; Robbins, 2007; Christiaens and Rommel, 2008; Broadbent and Guthrie, 2008; Alam and Nandan, 2008; Dooren et al., 2010; Walker and Boyne, 2010; Hoque and Adams, 2011; Kearney, 2018). This management approach created a new orthodoxy in the public sector, namely 'new public management' (NPM) (Hood 1991, 1995; Dunleavy and Hood, 1994; Hoque 2005, 2008; Alam and Nandan, 2008; Yusuph and Guohua, 2017). The NPM movement has emphasised the value of market efficiency in the public sector and stimulated various managerial reinventions (Moon, 2000; Tooley, 2001; Luke, 2008; Christiaens and Rommel, 2008). The NPM initiatives forced public organisations to concentrate on a new approach focusing people within the organisation. The objective to

introduce this new management approach in the public sector is to promote a culture of performance (Baehler, 2003; Mir and Rahaman, 2006; Jansen, 2008). It ensures learning environment and professional development within the organization. In line with the NPM reforms, public organisations are now using a number of people control mechanism similar to the private organisations. In an organisation people control mechanism provides three fundamental purposes. First, it helps to make sure that each employee understands organization's expectations. Second, it helps to make sure that each employee is capable to do a good job. The third purpose is to make sure that each employee will engage in self monitoring (Widener, 2004; Davilla, 2005; Merchant and van der Stede, 2012). Performance management system is an element of a people control system which is a part of overall management control systems of an organization. Performance management is a formal and regular process for assessing and managing individual performance for all employees (Australian National Audit Office, 2004/05).

Kimura and Mourdoukoutas (2000) argued that management control systems must be expanded to managerial practices that cultivate employee cooperation and creativity in the discovery and exploitation of new business opportunities. Chenhall and Langfield-Smith (2003) pointed out that Management control systems comprise a variety of control mechanisms, including performance management, to align individuals' behaviours with the strategies and goals of the organisation. Therefore, the purpose of management control systems is to facilitate goal congruence between an organisation and the people within it (Picard and Reis, 2002). Kareeman and Alvesson (2004) observed that people nowadays live and work under constant performance evaluation. Performance management is important not only for the effectiveness of strategic planning of the organization but also for modernization and public services reforms generally (Joyce, 2007; Anderson, 2008). During the 1980s Australia rejected traditional administration which was replaced by reforms based on management. In the 1990s new agenda emerged centered on competition and contestability, contracting out, client focus, application of purchaser/provider principle (Halligan, 2009). In 2000 integration and performance phase emerged and the focus is on attaining more effective performance management (Halligan, 2009). McCann (2001) pointed out that a firmly established performance culture in the Australian public sector has emerged and the basic notion – a public sector driven to perform - has become an integral part of everything. In the light of the wide ranging reforms and implementing new public management approach to the Australian public sector the present study intends to identify and explore the performance management system that have been implemented in a public sector organisation in Australia.

Research Questions

Berry et al. (2009) claimed that from the 1980s onwards, new public management reforms have introduced different management control tools in the public sector organizations which are borrowed from the private sector. These reforms open the door to more dynamic, action research type activities to observe the consequences of performance management systems design and its use over a period of time following a change. Traditionally, the key focus of management control research is on financial control and little attention has been paid on the components of people control. Against this background this research will explore the performance management system- a tool of people control

system adopted in the public sector in the context of new public management initiatives. A government department in the Australian Capital Territory (ACT) has been adopted as a field for investigation for the purpose of this exploration.

The study will seek answers of the following research questions:

How has the researched organisation adopted performance management systems within their organisation? Specifically,

In what ways are performance management systems linked to the organisational actions of the researched organisation?

How have performance management systems contributed to and shaped new organisational culture within the researched organisation?

Berry et al. (2009) also suggested that much more case research is necessary to yield insights into how organisation can develop effective rules and procedures and encourage managers to act flexibly, share information and create opportunities for learning. Taking into this view and to address the research questions the present research was conducted through a case study.

Research Method

This research explored in depth the evolution of performance management system in the context of new public management initiatives in Australia. The organisation investigated under this study was a government department in the Australian Capital Territory (ACT) involved in service delivery. This department was formed in 2002 to assist people with disability, and to cater to needs in housing and community services. The qualitative research approach was adopted and data was collected in the ethnographic tradition. By using qualitative research methodology, this study is something like naturalistic inquiry (Guba and Lincoln, 1981) which has provided a thick description (Geertz, 1973). In this research the sources of data were: official organizational documents, interviews and observations.

Documents allow the researcher to track what happened, when it happened, and who was involved (Bickman and Rog, 2009). In this research, the researched department supported the researchers in collecting official organisational documents and archival records. One of the researchers spent more than one year in the selected organization. The department provided the researcher with a desk and a personal computer to collect the necessary information. The department allowed the researcher to use staff intranet which made it easier for the researcher to collect internal evaluation reports, financial delegation manuals, newsletters and numerous other organisational documents. The researcher maintained a high level of confidentiality in this regard. Approximately 5000 pages of official organisational documents were collected during the research. These official documents helped the researchers to supplement and corroborate the interview data. Observation data come from detailed descriptions of people's activities, actions, behaviours, interpersonal interactions and organisational processes (Patton, 2002). Patton asserted that observation data is sufficiently descriptive and the reader can easily understand what occurred and how it occurred. Observation can also be used to overcome validity threats because it focuses on actual behaviour not perceptions (Birnberg et al. 1990). Observation can be done in four ways. These are: complete observer, complete participant, observer as participant and participant as observer (Pearsall, 1970; Denzin,

1978a; Atkinson and Hammersley, 1994; Denzin and Lincoln, 2003, 2008; Cohen et al. 2007; Flick, 2009; Stake, 2010; Rallis and Rossman, 2012). The researcher can take any of the abovementioned roles. In this research, the researcher played the 'participant as observer' role because by adopting this role, the researcher was able to collect more in-depth data, which was the prime objective of this study. Data were collected in the field notes. All field notes were dated with appropriate reference number, time, place, attendees and researcher's opinion towards the situation. The departmental staff with whom the researcher came into contact was very co-operative and seemed really interested in this study. The epistemological position influenced the researcher to conduct interviews because it allows a legitimate or meaningful way to generate data by talking interactively with people, to ask them questions, to listen to them, to gain access to their accounts and articulations, or to analyze their use of language and construction of discourse (Mason, 2002). The primary interview method used in this study was unstructured and open-ended. In this study snowball sampling technique was used. To conduct the interviews in this research, 20 top and mid-level executives and junior staff were included in the interviews. The intention was to include participants ranging from lower positions to upper management positions to obtain a complete understanding about the perceptions.

Any research involving human and animal subjects requires ethical clearance from the relevant institution (Hoque, 2006). The present research, as it involved human subjects, was approved by the Committee for Ethics in Human research at the University of Canberra, Australia. It followed the general conditions determined by the university policy and the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in research involving Humans (National Health and Medical Research Council, 1999). To understand the purpose of the research project, each of the participants was provided with a Participant Information Form which included the project title, details of the researcher and the supervisors, project aim and benefits, general outline of the project, participant involvement, confidentiality, anonymity, data storage system, ethics committee clearance and queries and concerns about the research project. Each participant was also provided an Informed Consent Form. Before conducting the formal interview, the participant was required to sign the Consent Form stating that the participant understood the information about the research. Both the Participant Information Form and the Informed Consent Form were approved by the Committee for Ethics in Human Research, University of Canberra. Participation in this research was voluntary. The interview proceedings were tape recorded with the consent of the participant. For safety reasons, back-up notes were also taken and checked and compared when the transcriptions were made. The interview tapes were transcribed later word for word. Key interview transcripts were fed back to the respective interviewees to establish the validity of the interview data. In qualitative inquiry, data collection is not an end. It requires analysis, interpretation and presentation of findings (Patton, 2002; Irvine and Gaffikin, 2006; Merriam, 2009; Nagy et al. 2010). In this study, the researcher analyzed data using the approach provided by Miles and Huberman (1994) which includes data reduction, data display and conclusion drawing and verification.

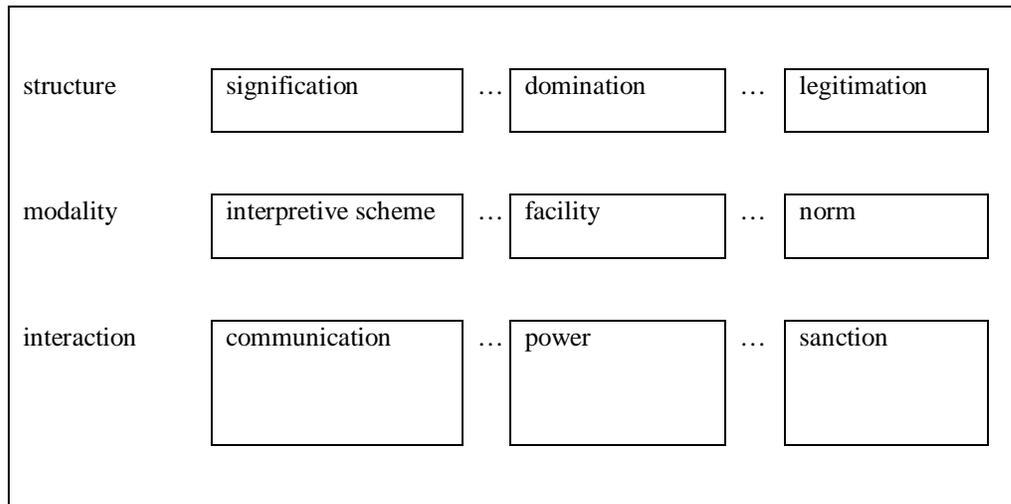
Theoretical Framework

Gaffikin (2007) argued that research is undertaken to either generate new theories or support existing theories. It has been observed that there are various views among the

researchers in adopting a prior theoretical stance in research. Some scholars argued that a prior theoretical stance may bias or limit the findings (Eisenhardt, 1989; Flinders, 1993; Layder 1995). The critics claimed that adopting a pre-determined theory in a research can be more robust because these theories have already been tested in previous research. However, supporters in favour of adopting a prior theoretical framework in research (for example Alam and Lawrence, 1994; Lodh and Gaffikin, 1997; Quattrone and Hopper, 2001; Baxter and Chua, 2003; Hoque, 2005; Gaffikin, 2007; Berry et al. 2009) argued that in conducting research on organisational practices, it is legitimate to use a wide range of theoretical approaches to explain such activities. In qualitative research, a useful theory helps to organise the data (Jorgensen, 1989; Lodh and Gaffikin, 1997; Llewelyn, 2003; Irvine and Gaffikin, 2006; Cooper, 2008; Maxwell, 2009, Jacobs, 2012). The view taken in the present research assumes that theory is a framework for viewing the social world that is too general, too broad and too all-encompassing to be confirmed or refuted by empirical research (Cooper, 2008). It is also assumed in this research that when knowledge is gathered with the help of theory, there is a potential for data coherence and control, which prevent the researchers from collecting an unsystematic pile of accounts (Kaplan and Manners, 1986; Bogdan and Biklen, 1982).

Over the last two decades it was observed that a series of alternative approaches has been used in qualitative research. One of these approaches is motivated by interpretive sociology (Glaser and Strauss, 1968; Schutz, 1967). Interpretive perspective epistemologically believes that social meaning is created during interaction and people's interpretations of interactions (Hesse-Biber and Leavy, 2006; Cresswell, 2007; Gaffikin, 2008). Chua (1988) argued that interpretive sociology refers to an intellectual tradition which focuses on the constructive and interpretive action of people. Llewelyn (2003) observed that qualitative research using interpretive methodologies now has become increasingly influential. According to these methodologies, performance management system is not natural phenomena they are socially constructed and they can be changed by social actors (Ryan et al., 1992). Interpretive approaches illustrate the subjective nature of the social world and tries to understand it primarily from the frame of reference of those being studied (Hopper and Powell, 1985). Humphrey and Scapens (1996) found that published management control researches have been influenced by these interpretive approaches of writings of social theorists and philosophers. Management control researchers adopted these theories to analyse sociological and philosophical discourse (Zawawi and Hoque, 2010). They used various sociological and philosophical theories, for example, theories provided by Foucault, Latour, Marx, Adorno, Braverman, Gramsci, Hebermas, Giddens, Weber and Derrida. These theoretical stances helped to understand issues of social control and coordination (Covaleski and Dirsmith, 1990; Covaleski et al., 1996; Lodh and Gaffikin, 1997). In order to gain a better understanding about the control systems in an organisation, it is necessary to look at the relationship between day-to-day social action and the various dimensions of social structure. The present study has adopted an interpretive approach and used Giddens's structuration theory to understand how results control systems, one of the important management control systems, is implicated in their social setting. The epistemological and ontological belief also inspired the researchers to adopt Giddens' structuration theory in this study. Here, it is assumed that multiple realities can exist in a given situation and for this reason the intention of the research is to promote a subjective research. The following Figure shows Giddens's structuration framework.

Figure 1. Structuration framework



Source: Giddens, 1984, p.29

The third line of the Figure refers to the elements of interaction: communication, power and sanction. Second line represents modalities which refer to the mediation of interaction and structure in processes of social reproduction (Giddens, 1984, p. 29). Here modalities are interpretive scheme, facility and norm. Those on the first line are characterisations of structure in the form of signification, domination and legitimation. Signification refers to the communication of meaning in interaction. It is the cognitive dimension of social life which has interpretative schemes. Interpretive schemes are 'standardized elements of stock of knowledge, applied by actors in the production of interaction' (Giddens, 1984, p.30). In the signification structure, agents draw upon interpretative schemes in order to communicate with each other and at the same time reproduce them. In the domination structure the use of power in interaction involves the application of facilities. The facilities are both drawn from an order of domination and at the same time, as they are applied, reproduce that order of domination (Giddens, 1984, p. 30). The final structure is that of legitimation which involves moral constitution of interaction, and the relevant modality here is the norms of a society or community which draw from a legitimate order, and yet by that very constitution reconstitute it (Giddens, 1976, p. 123). These three structures constitute the shared set of values and ideals about what is important and should happen in social settings. Giddens (1976, 1979, and 1984) identified that actors are not simply as social dupes governed by independent structures, but rather as existential beings who reflexively monitor their conduct and make choices in social settings.

Findings and Discussion

A central element in the Australian public sector reform policy during the last thirty years is management for results based on performance. It has created a culture of clear and precise definition of program and organisational objectives for the Australian public sector managers. Managers in the Australian public sector established control system within their organisation to influence the employees' actions. The objective to implement this control

system is to inform the employees about the goals of the organisation. Evidence from the field supported that the researched organisation has benefited enormously in adopting a performance approach to management.

Findings of the study reveals that in line with the NPM initiatives, the researched organization built a participative and consultative workplace where people want to work and stay in the organisation. They provide staff with opportunities for professional development and support learning environments. The following quote illustrates this view:

We will maximize and maintain the Department's human resource capacity. We will support and provide opportunities to our staff and other personnel to provide a responsive and responsible workforce (DHCS, 2007a, p. 15).

The Organisational Services Unit of the Department provides strategic advice in relation to People Management. This unit also prepares human resources planning and develops personnel control systems within the organisation. To implement people, control first it focuses on staffing the organisation. It is the process by which the department satisfies their human resources needs. In the department the strongest influences on culture formation are top management's day-to-day activities, interactions, sentiments and norms. The department has applied a wide range of cultural control devices which are reflected within its operations. These devices are supported by organisation-wide norms and values and shaped organisational culture within the organisation. In the researched organization, it is evident that performance reviews and staff appraisal were introduced in the line of the new public management.

The researched organization designed people control systems across all its units to fit organisational basic needs, core values, and strategic goals. To assist managers and staff in implementing performance management, the department developed its Guide to Performance Management. This was clear from the comments made by the Chief Executive of the department:

The Introduction of a Performance Management Program in the Department is an integral step to ensure that we meet our strategic goals and performance measures. I strongly support the introduction of the program as I believe that employees have the right to receive regular feedback on their performance and to understand how their work helps the Department to achieve its strategic goals and ensure the ongoing development of staff (DHCS, 2007c).

The researched organization's documents show that according to the guideline, a key driver in implementing the performance management program is to encourage managers/supervisors to talk to staff in a more formal process to ensure ongoing communication, expectations, development and the alignment of individual goals with departmental goals and performance measures (DHCS, 2007c). The performance management program of the Department is intertwined with the legitimation structure. Legitimation involves the moral constitution of the interaction (Giddens, 1979; 1984). In the researched organization, this legitimation structure is mediated through normative values and ideals about approve and disapprove behavior.

It is evident that performance management is addressed in the Department as performance culture. The benefits and goals of performance management in the Department are:

- the ability for employees to develop a clear picture of the employees' role and purpose within the Agency;

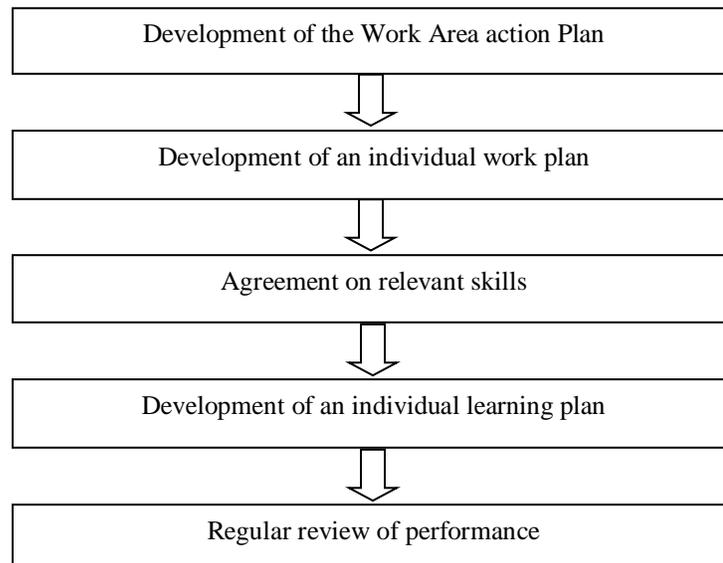
- the establishment of improved communication between employees, supervisors and managers; and
- the ability to explore and develop the skills and potential of employees (DHCS, 2007b).

The researched department claims that their performance management program benefits the business because it has clear definition of roles and responsibilities and improves staff communication (DHCS, 2007c). It also focuses on achieving business goals. Evidence from the field and organisational documents suggests that in the line of the new public management the Department is trying to establish a performance-oriented culture that focuses on outcomes as well as process. One of the senior executives of the Department elaborated:

- We have established a performance-oriented culture and put emphasis on the application of performance management system. This program is based on results and designed to improve transparency in a new public sector environment. Basically, this system focuses on strategies and activities of the Department with the individual responsibilities. We are at the initial stage in implementing this tool and struggling a lot.

The operation of this performance management program in the researched organization includes five steps. This practice is different from the private sector.

Figure 2. Performance Management Program in the researched organization



One of the senior executives of the department made the distinction of performance between private and public sector and highlighted the fact that traditionally this practice would not occur in the private sector. He commented: If you compare performance between private and public sector, within the private sector one of the goals is to achieve profit for the organisation, which they might allow to share profits across the management and staff team. In the public sector our goal is to be efficient and effective with public money and that is the challenge.

At step three the skills, knowledge and behavior needed to carry out the responsibilities of the position and to work effectively with others are also identified. Then staffs are required to identify the area where improvement is needed and records it in the Individual Learning Agreement. Finally, a meeting is conducted between the supervisor and the staff and a performance review document is prepared (a copy of performance review agreement is attached in Appendix I). Under the performance management program of the Department, formal feedback takes place at least every six months, conducted usually in May/June and November/December (a copy of feedback on performance is provided in Appendix II). This formal feedback ensures that progress against the plan is acknowledged and recorded and plans are still realistic and reflect changes in directions and priorities. If any training and development activities are needed, it is carried out according to this feedback. It is evident that in addition to formal feedback there are also informal feedback systems in the department. This informal feedback is conducted to ensure that the progress is satisfactory. It also identifies the areas where improvement may be necessary. Evidence from the field shows that the Department always recognizes and acknowledges good performance. However, poor performance is addressed early and not left until the formal feedback session. The relevant area manager offers advice and support to the employee to overcome unsatisfactory work performance.

A review of organisational documentation suggests that the Department also developed an action plan for poor performance of employees. If the manager considers that an employee's work is not satisfactory, the manager discusses his/her concerns with the employee. If the problem continues, the manager informs the employee in writing the assessment and prepares an action plan. This action plan is developed in consultation with the employees. The department identified the possible causes of poor performance and also developed possible solutions for poor performance. This practice is also different from the private sector where staffs are simply terminated for poor performance. In the department there are different alternatives to implement this program and are more flexible than the private sector.

Table 1. Causes of unsatisfactory performance and probable solutions

Cause of poor performance	Possible Solutions
Employee has personal problems, family illness, financial problems etc.	Meet with the employee and establish if there are any problems. Suggest employee should meet with the Employee Assistance Program (EAP) provider. Employer may be able to offer alternate work arrangements to assist the employee during a difficult period.
Employee doesn't know what is expected	Establish standards, expectations and/or objectives.

Employee doesn't know how to do what is expected	Arrange for training. Look into the availability of reference materials and other aids.
Employee knows how to do what is expected but is 'out of practice'	Provide practice
Employee doesn't get feedback about the level and the quality of actual performance	Establish some means of giving timely feedback. This could be through periodic discussions with the employee or regular meetings of all staff.
Expected performance is difficult, 'punishing', or in some way less desirable for the employee	Remove or reduce the inhibiting factors to correct performance. Try to make good performance be seen as important.
Something in the work environment interferes with performance	Determine the source of interference by looking at priorities, time expectations, mix of duties, physical environment, compatibility with other workers or availability of resources.
Performing below expectations is easier, 'rewarding', or in some way more desirable for the employee	Be sure expectations are known and the consequences for not performing up to expectations are also known (effect on future performance appraisals, employee's displeasure interference with others' work). See if the performance as expected can be made less difficult or more rewarding.

In terms of performance, the researched organization has developed management control systems. The department rewards good performance or punishes poor performance. The elements of punishment as a management control device may be by way of demotion, supervisor disapproval, and failure to get rewards earned by peers; only in extreme circumstances, an employee is punished with loss of job (Merchant and Van der Stede, 2012).

A vital element of Australian Public Sector reform initiatives is managing for results. The Australian public sector now focuses on results, outcomes and performance (Keating, 1993; English, 2002; Bevir et al., 2003; Hoque, 2008). A concern for results logically implies review from time to time of results achieved - in other words, it requires some attention to evaluation (Barrett et al., 1994). In line with these reform initiatives, the Department has developed performance culture within the organisation. Evidence from the field suggests that for poor performance, there is punishment system but no performance-based cash reward for good work. It is the common practice in the ACT Public Sector. To motivate people, the department has established group rewards and a recognition system.

Performance-Dependent Rewards and Punishments

Performance-dependent rewards and punishments are important elements of a results control system (Bruijn, 2002; James, 2006; Joborne, 2006; Mussari and Ruggiero,

2010; Whitford, 2010; Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara, 2011; Soss et al. 2011; Brown and warren, 2011; Merchant and Van der Stede, 2012). Rewards are the motivational factors those influence employees' actions. Rewards remind employees what result areas are desired. It may be in the form of monetary or non-monetary compensations. Monetary incentives include salary increases or bonuses. Non-monetary compensations include promotions, job security, job assignments, training opportunities, freedom, recognition, and power. Punishments are the opposite of rewards.

The Department is committed to achieving an environment where employees feel valued for the contribution the employees make in achieving organisational goals. The department has implemented results control system to make employees conscious of the consequences of their actions. Field study data revealed that the department has introduced Chief Executive Awards for performance. The department also participates in the ACT Public Service Awards in which good performance and good approach with professionalism are recognized. The selection for awards can be either a team or an individual which is conducted every six months.

Evidence from the field also supports that based on performance, the department provides extrinsic rewards to its employees such as fair supervision, pleasant working condition, status etc. The department also provides intrinsic rewards which are personally satisfying outcomes such as achievement, recognition and responsibility. From departmental documents it is clear that the department is committed to the recognition and rewarding of employees for their contribution to the achievement of the department's objectives, but does not include rewards in the form of performance pay (DHCS, 2007b). One of the senior executives of the Department explained this view: In terms of monetary rewards, we are paid our salaries. In terms of performance we don't have a performance pay in the system. However, there are non-monetary rewards that include Chief Executive Award which is given at least twice a year. There is public recognition for achievements. There is also opportunity to attend conferences or perhaps even exchange programs. We have a couple of those programs which is also recognition of the contribution that the individual may have made within the organisation. A junior staff who has received awards for performance described: Being a government structure rewards are generally out of the question in the ACT government. I know in the Commonwealth there are performance-based rewards. We have non-monetary rewards and I think non-monetary rewards would be very much intrinsic and that would be better than nothing. Another interviewee also did not see any incentive for performance as reflected in the following quote: We don't have any incentive-based system in terms of performance payments or anything like that. It's just something that is part of our organisational culture. We want to try and improve our performance and to achieve that result.

The similar view was expressed by a senior executive of the department and she commented: The reward system is the pay system. We don't have any performance pay. There is no performance pay in the ACT government. That is something which is done within the Commonwealth system. The executives are under individual contracts. Within my performance agreement it's part of my agreement that I have to come in within budget and to meet government objectives. I don't get a performance pay for delivering that. We are on fixed term contracts and so in that sense contracts are either 3 years or 5 years usually for executives. If you don't deliver on what's in your performance agreement you would not expect to have your contract renewed. Reflecting on his area's experience one of the

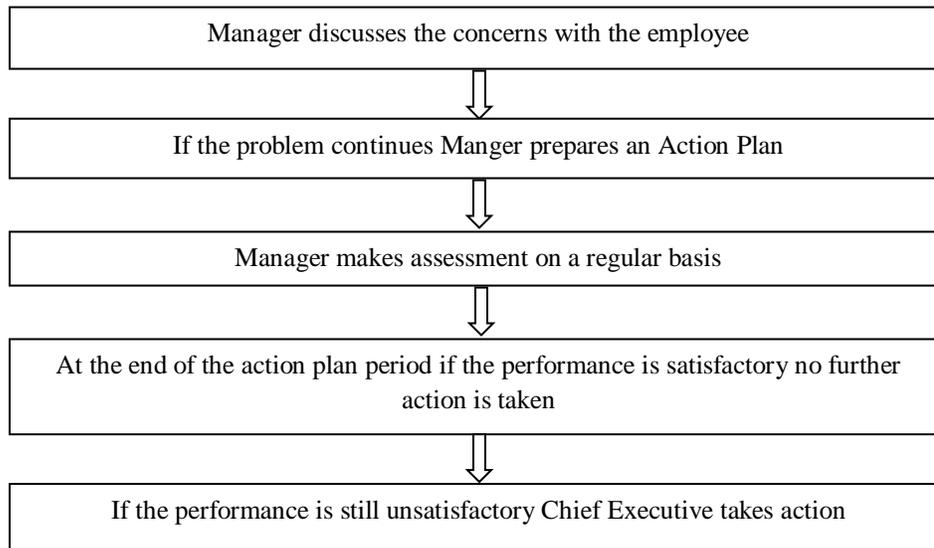
senior managers in the Finance Division of the Department remarked: When you are in the financial areas you always think about how do you reward good performance and how do you punish bad performance? Those are never easy. As the financial manager, here I always think about how I can do that! I really would like to do that because some of the managers are better than others with their management of resources. To be frank and I haven't come up with a good answer to that. I know in the commonwealth they give staff new performance bonuses, but in our organisation we don't. We don't have performance bonuses but we have performance reviews here. In my area we have a four- or six-monthly performance review where each manager does a formal review and documents it with the staff member. I think that's really important for communication.

A review of organisation documentation suggests that the department developed an action plan for poor performance of the employees. If the manager considers that an employee's work performance is not satisfactory the manager discusses the concerns with the employee. If the problem continues, the managers inform the employee in writing the assessment and prepare an action plan. This action plan is developed in consultation with the employees. During the action plan period, the manager makes assessments on a regular basis. At the end of the action plan period, if the managers assess the work performance of the employee as satisfactory, no further action is taken. If the performance is unsatisfactory, the Chief Executive takes action. It may be one or more in the form of transfer to other duties, below current salary, deferral of increment, reduction in increment point, temporary or permanent reduction in classification and salary, or finally termination of employment (DHCS, 2007c). However, field study data revealed that Department managers cannot fire people like private sector managers do. The main reason is that performance management in the public sector is not as strict as private sector.

It is evident that the department has started performance management as a management control tool. The focus of employee performance in the Department provides a basis to manage staff effectively and to deliver quality service to the clients. These benefits ensure accountability, quality improvements, good communication and achievement as identified by Macaulay and Cook (1994). The Department believes that the performance management program gives the managers the means to implement organisational goals and responsibilities. In the Department, this performance management program is regarded as the new signification dimension (Giddens, 1979; 1984) in the design of organisational structures, and in the policies and procedures used for rewarding the members of the organisation.

The Department is required to operate as a public sector organisation driven to perform. Evidence from the field supports that in the signification dimension of the Department, this performance management program is the new interpretive scheme brought in from private sector practice and the department uses it in modified form to cope with the changes in the public sector. From the above discussion, it can be concluded that the Department produced results control systems similar to the private sector but are not able to apply them in the same way as in private sector systems. The main reasons behind this is that public sector organisations are fundamentally different from private sector organisations on a number of dimensions such as diversity in their goals, access to resources, nature of the organisation and the accountability systems. Though the researched organisation is trying to change its organisational culture, it remains different from the private sector.

Figure 3. Action Plan for poor performance of employees in the researched organization



Group Rewards and Recognition

In a participatory organisation, groups and teams are empowered. Groups and teams provide a forum for making decisions, sharing information, improving functional coordination, building trust, and smoothing interpersonal relations. It creates vital links between different individuals, functions, departments, and levels of the organisation (Hellriegel and Slocum, 1991). Group rewards and recognition is considered as a management control tool and used as a key cultural control device within the Department. Giddens' structuration theory is concerned with the relationship between the actions of agents and the structuring of social systems in the production, reproduction and regulation of social order. According to Giddens (1976, 1979, 1984) group rewards and recognition is the allocative resources in the Department. The Department promotes groups and teams and this linking is evident at the various levels in the Department. The following quote illustrates this view: We will provide organisational systems, practices, procedures and policies which encourage staff to perform at their highest level in an effective team environment (DHCS, 2007a).

This finding supports the arguments of Chenhall and Langfield-Smith (2003) that team-based structures enhance employee enthusiasm to work towards sustaining strategic change. In the Department there are formal groups whose purpose and tasks are directly related to the attainment of organisational objectives. Special purpose teams are also established within the department to handle special situation. Observations during fieldwork revealed that the department developed group-based rewards and recognition for its groups and teams. It is evident that to encourage the groups or teams, the Department has introduced Chief Executive Awards for Excellence and Certificates of Commendation. This indicates the implementing of private sector culture in the public sector. In the Department, the role played by actors and their interaction with the structure and social processes have been identified. Recognition and rewards are the allocative resources (Giddens, 1979; 1984) which the Department provides to its members. Many of the staff

interviewed conveyed views similar to the following, expressed by a mid-level executive of Department: We have celebrations within outcomes such as the Chief Executive Awards and it's done to reward groups who have performed good jobs. The Department established this type of rewards to promote private sector performance culture throughout the organisation. It is a recognition which increases the morale of the employees also.

This finding is consistent with the results reported by O'Reilly and Chatman (1996) and Malmi and Brown (2008) that organisations provide group rewards to retain employees and encourage cultural control. This reward is given in the form of non-monetary incentives. A junior staff of Finance and Budget Division elaborated this view: I think management may provide some financial incentives. For example, in our division at the end of the financial year we all go out for a congratulatory lunch or something like that. But that's not really an incentive it's more of a moral thing than anything else. We have Chief Executive Awards but the rewards side of monetary based benefits is not there. It's more of an in lieu arrangement and we are recognized for our hard work in getting something done.

The reason behind introducing Chief Executive Awards is to build effective teams within the department and to increase employee morale also. It has also been observed that the department participates in the Commissioner for Public Administration Awards. It recognizes high achievement in the ACT Public Service and they showcase the quality and dedication of ACT Public Service employees. To build an effective team the department has not only provided different facilities for its staff but also has developed some disciplinary strategies for misconduct. This is discussed next.

Misconduct and Discipline

Blonder (2010) argued that misconduct concerns non-compliant, wasteful or illegal activities within the organisation. To ensure effective cultural control, the Department developed procedures for managing misconduct or alleged misconduct by an employee. Evidence from the field identified how the department encouraged the practical and expeditious resolution of misconduct issues in the workplace similar to the private sector. Management of the Department uses this control tool and draw upon the domination structure (Giddens, 1979; 1984) in the exercise of power.

New public management claims to use modern human resource management and asserts that employees of the public organisation will work for the interests of the public as well as for the interests of the large majority of people working in the public sector. Public servants are expected to follow the Public Sector Management Act. Misconduct happens if the employee fails to meet the obligations set out in the Public Sector Management Act. Interviews with the participants in Department indicated that sometimes this created problems. According to the Act, every member of the public service will perform to the best interest of the public. Meanwhile, their performance is measured in terms of private sector practices. It is considered a misconduct if the employee engages in behaviour or action that has or is likely to bring the department or the ACT Public Service into disrepute. If the employee returns to duty after a period of unauthorized absence and does not offer a satisfactory reason on return to work, this may be considered misconduct (DHCS, 2007b). This behaviour is consistent with the findings observed by Werbel and

Balkin (2010) that cultural attitudes and style of communication may affect reports of unethical behaviour by employees.

The department has developed a code of conduct and established management control systems in relation to misconduct. If misconduct is alleged in the department, the manager/supervisor gathers sufficient information about it. After considering the gathered information, if it is found that the alleged misconduct has not occurred or is not sufficiently serious for further investigation, the manager or supervisor informs the employee concerned that no disciplinary action will be taken and an investigation is not necessary. However, if it is found that misconduct has occurred, but the matter can be resolved informally, then the manager or supervisor discusses it with the employee. In the investigation if it is found that serious misconduct has occurred which is against the organisational culture the Chief Executive considers disciplinary actions. From Department documentary records, this researcher found that these actions may be counseling of the employee, a written admonishment, a first or final written warning, a financial penalty, transfer to other duties at or below current salary, deferral of increment, reduction in increment point, a temporary or permanent reduction in classification/salary, and finally termination of employment (DHCS, 2007b).

Conclusion

Performance management system was found to be an integral part of the management control systems at the researched organization. Empirical evidence collected on the organisation showed that the department implemented a wide range of control mechanisms to attain the economic rationality of the NPM. The department spent considerable time since 2002 building its strengths by spreading private sector culture in a new public sector organisation in line with NPM. These cultural control mechanisms have brought economic logic into the Department's new type of management. The researchers also observed that these control devices not only supported the business culture in the Department, but has also reshaped the general orientation of the people in the Department. It is evident that in the Department these control devices are used to hold individuals accountable for their actions and behaviour. Empirical evidence collected on the organisation suggests that implementing these control devices in the Department were a response to pressures from NPM reform initiatives in Australia. The objectives of implementing these performance management systems in the Department are to facilitate goal congruence between the organisation and the people within it. The findings of this study are consistent with the view of Otley and Berry (1980): An organisation acts only by way of the actions of the individuals who comprise it. Thus, for organisational control to be effective, not only must feasible control actions be possible but individuals must also be persuaded to implement the required actions.

Giddens's structuration model was adopted to analyze the performance measurement systems of the Department and assumed this control system represents the social construction of reality. Structuration theory is a valuable way of understanding the role of the control system in the production and reproduction of the social life of any organisation. For this reason, the relationship between day-to-day social action and the dimensions in social structures were identified. The findings of the study have reported that performance management system in the Department are the modalities of structuration and

this control system is both the medium and the outcome of interaction because in the organisational setting, this control device is constituted by human agency and at the same time also guided by them. This attitude supports the argument of Ahrens and Chapman (2007) that performance measurement system as structures both shape and are shaped by shared norms and understandings. The department has implemented this control system on a modified basis from the private sector. The department introduced rewards and punishment system in their organisation. The department is also committed to recognize and rewards employees for the employees' contribution towards the achievement of the Department's objectives but does not permit the inclusion of performance pay. However, it is evident that as a government department, the organization is committed to achieve economy, efficiency and effectiveness- the major objectives of the public sector reforms agenda by introducing new public management ideals within the organisation.

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THE ROLE OF LOCAL GOVERNMENTS IN CONTAINING COVID-19 IN ETHIOPIA

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Abstract: *Drawing from qualitative analysis of constitutions, proclamations, archival documents and interview results, the study examines the role of local governments in containing coronavirus (COVID-19) epidemic in Oromia regional state and Addis Ababa city Administration based on their powers and functional competences. It analyzes the efforts made by the local governments in containing coronavirus pandemic. The analysis indicates that the federal government has broad policy making power, and as a result, can impact local government actions. The regional governments and zonal administrations also oversee the activities of local governments through the respective sectoral bureaus. In addition, local governments in Ethiopia do not have adequate protection under the FDRE Constitution. However, their role in mitigating the corona virus pandemic and similar pandemics in the future cannot be undermined. The study also reveals that, during this COVID-19 pandemic, most of the activities are all managed from the center by a centralized task force which has a governance structure at federal, regional and local levels for decision making around the pandemic and meant to co-ordinate all the activities. This shows that the role of local governments is insignificant, and limited only to implementation as every activity is under the command of ministerial committee. Hence, both senior levels of governments are playing key roles in local governments' actions. Finally this paper recommends strengthening local systems and building the capacity of local governments to manage the policy responses and to improve their role as laboratories of innovative ideas and encouraging them to initiate new ideas and methods of confronting local problems such as coronavirus (COVID-19).*

Keywords: *Local Governance, Corona Virus, Federal Government, Policy Power, Addis Ababa, Oromia, Ethiopia*

Introduction

Background of the Study

The coronavirus (COVID-19) disease is creating enormous stress on the health care system of almost all nations in the world. The pandemic is also causing social, political and economic impacts on the people. The coronavirus (COVID-19) outbreak was declared a global pandemic by the World Health Organization (WHO) on 11 March 2020. The virus was first known in Ethiopia when a person who came from Burkina Faso, Japanese by nationality, was tested and found positive on 13 March 2020. After the first state of COVID-19 in Ethiopia in March 2020, the Ethiopian Government passed different decisions and has taken different policy measures such as closing schools, limiting large gatherings, and restricting number of passengers in mass transport such as city buses to contain increased levels of infection. The federal, state, and local governments are introducing various actions with the affirmed purpose of containing the spread of the virus. While the effect of the crisis is highly visible in terms of local public health and socioeconomic imbalances, other local democratic values including participatory practices,

transparency and accountability could also be influenced by the enacted restrictions (Moolakkattu, 2020).

Immediately after the first definite situation of COVID-19 in Ethiopia in March 2020, the Ethiopian Government passed some decisions and has taken different policy measures to contain increased levels of infection. These comprised closing all schools and limiting big meetings and mobility of persons. The government officials at federal and regional states have repeatedly communicated the main prevention measures such as hand-washing and social distancing to the general public via numerous media outlets.

Currently more than 1.3 million persons are tested, and the persons infected with the virus reached more than 79, 437 in Ethiopia. Number of individuals who died due to the virus also reached more than 1230 while 34,016 of infected person were recovered. These numbers are also increasing very fast on the daily basis and the disease is also spreading to almost all regional states and cities in the country. Globalization could be considered as one of the main reasons for the fast spread of COVID-19 worldwide. The massive transportations systems, the free trade liberalization and labor mobility could escalate the spread of coronavirus (COVID-19) globally. Contagious causes could also take advantage of the dramatic population flow facilitated by the advance in transportation, to reach out to everywhere in the world (Estrada and Khan 2020).

Although the crisis' impact has been most noticeable in terms of local public health and socioeconomic inequalities, other local democratic principles such as participatory practices, transparency and accountability could also be affected by the imposed restrictions. Better governance is critical for fighting infectious disease transmission in this globalized world. As complex as the epidemic itself, infectious disease control presents significant governance challenges. It is thus vital to understand how states place themselves in the architecture of global epidemics control. Governments need to set up a functional system to face up the challenge. Timely intrusions with high political commitment and community mobilization are believed to assist in preventing the incidence of numerous cases and deaths. Local governments also have great roles in the governance. Without real functioning local governments, the role of nations in controlling global infectious diseases cannot be realized.

Local governments play a key role in establishing healthy and safe work environment, creating jobs, sustainable local economic development, and a stable political climate. Local governments in federal systems do not have similar place and role as some federations constitutionally recognize their local governments while others leave such functions and competences for the regional states or provinces. Yet, local government's role is growing in the governance of federal systems and creating new interests on the philosophy and model of federalism, resulting in changing its position alongside the new role (Steytler 2005).

It clear that there is a lot we do not know, and need to know, to effectively address the present corona virus pandemic. Hence, this paper examines the role of local governments in containing coronavirus (COVID-19) epidemic in Oromia regional state (one of the constituent units of Ethiopian federation) and Addis Ababa City Administration (the capital of the country). It will analyze the efforts made by the local governments in containing coronavirus pandemic based on their powers and functional competences.

Objectives of the Study

The main objective of the study is to assess the role of local governments in containing the COVID-19 pandemic in the context of the federal system. The specific objectives are:

- to examine the responsibility of each level of government for containing the corona virus disease under the country's federal dispensation,
- to assess the activities of each level of government in containing the virus in relation to the Constitution and the federal system

To assess the extent to which local governments are recognized under the FDRE constitution, and to explore how much power and competencies are given to them to recommend future policy direction to build strong local governance in Ethiopia

Significance of the Study

Recently many developing countries have recognized decentralized governance as a factor for local development and promoting good governance. Similarly, the process of decentralization in this country is of a recent phenomenon. Rural woredas and municipalities/ towns have started getting attention because they are assumed to play key roles in local, regional and national development. Since these tiers of government are close to community, they have substantial importance for mobilizing local resources for social and economic development, and for controlling different pandemics such as COVID-19. Hence, local governance is likely to be especially important in bridging the gap between policy measures and local realities for the coordination of responses to COVID-19.

Since the main purpose of this study is to provide information about local governments' role in containing coronavirus epidemic and the practice in Ethiopia in line with the performance of decentralized local governance, it will assist federal, regional and local policy-makers, planners and program implementers to acquaint with current knowledge about the status of local governments to avoid rebirth of COVID-19 infections and of similar pandemics in the future.

Methodology of the Study

Descriptive and exploratory research approaches were utilized in the study to richly describe and to investigate an under researched corona virus (COVID-19) pandemic issue in the local governments of Ethiopia. The research is an exploratory method of observation to gather non-numerical data and an inductive process of organizing data in to categories and identifying patterns. Qualitative research approach was used to establish holistic process and largely narrative description to understand the COVID-19 pandemic in the local governments.

Both primary and secondary data sources were used. Primary data were collected using interviews from civil servants and officials in the local governments. The secondary data were collected from different constitutions, proclamations, regulations, and unpublished documents and reports. The research sites were purposely selected from Oromia (Sebeta Hawas woreda, Burayu town, Batu town, Goba woreda, Bishoftu town) and Addis Ababa (Yeka and Gulele sub-cities). They were selected both from the center and periphery areas to represent both areas. Interview participants were selected based on the convenience for interview. Interviews were also conducted through telephone as the situation was not convenient for face to face interaction of persons due to the coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic in all the areas in the country.

Conceptual and theoretical issues

Devolution of Power and Development

Decentralized systems of governance have been introduced in many states since 1990s due to the unsatisfactory performance in achieving national objectives through centralized processes. The failure of central political systems in several developing countries also contributed to the decentralization of powers to lower level government tiers (Abu, 2003; Deribe, 2015). According to Abu (2003:111), “the failure of the centralized system of economic and political administration is one of the forces behind the temptation of a number of countries to experiment with some forms of decentralization of both political and fiscal power.” The reactions to extreme centralization in certain unitary states also led to the dissemination of federal or decentralized systems in the world (Ahmad and Brosio, 2006). Decentralization is vital to advance service delivery, react to the public interest and demand of the civil society, resolve conflict, address the technological changes and meet the challenges of the growing urbanization. Decentralization of governance is largely held to promise a range of benefits since the centralized state has lost a great deal of legitimacy everywhere due to its various well-accepted failures (Ahmad and Brosio, 2006). Such reactions have led to demands for more responsibilities and resources for subnational governments.

The contemporary global politics also urges to get economic and political systems closer to local people by encouraging subnational governments to engage in political and economic practices. Public services delivered to persons must at least be administered by agencies close to those being served. For example, hospitals and schools must be administered by managers who have some degree of discretion over expenditure decisions, and local services such as sanitation, water, recreation, and garbage are almost always delivered by local governments (Boadway and Shah, 2009). Hence, sharing central authority, introducing more intergovernmental competition and checks and balances is often advised as a way of reducing the role of the state in general. It is viewed as a way to make government more responsive and efficient.

Devolution of power has many goals, out of which developmental and democratic goals can be cited. According to Zemelak and Asefa (2012), the worth of local government as an institution of democracy and development is getting acknowledgment in the past few decades. For example, local government is recognized in South Africa as a leading actor in entrenching democracy and promoting development (Steytler, 2005). The Indian Constitution in 1992 was also driven by developmental concerns. Local government has also been frequently recognized as a vital strategic sector for enhancing governance and development in Bangladesh (Aminuzzaman 2010). For Aminuzzaman, local authorities work with their community to enhance social, economic, environmental and cultural well-being now and for the future.

Decentralization enhances the quality of representation which enables people to participate more effectively in development. In essence, decentralization strengthens democracy by enhancing the government’s institutional ability to determine and respond to people’s choices. Through decentralized institutions, minorities and vulnerable members who may otherwise have a weak or non-existent voice at the national level are more effectively represented thereby enhancing participation in development (Malik, 2013). Hence, decentralization is believed to be a best mechanism to bring government closer to

people and to promote development and institutionalize democracy in addition to being a political process of creating accountability.

Development is improvement in citizens' well-being, popular participation, social justice and equity. Development is achieved when poverty is eliminated or reduced by making the food, health, clean water, education, etc. accessible to the public at large. These broad development goals are realized through the process of devolution of power and empowerment of the local governments. To bring about participatory development that can stimulate the welfare of citizens, there needs to be decentralized and empowered local governments (Ayele and Fissaha, 2018). However, Steytler (2005) argues that a three-sphere of government each functioning with some degree of autonomy may create complex relationships among the different levels of government. It may also influence the effectiveness and efficiency of government, the problems most decentralized countries share. Better governance is critical for fighting infectious disease transmission in this globalized world. As complex as the epidemic itself, infectious disease control presents significant governance challenges. It is thus vital to understand how states place themselves in the architecture of global epidemics control. Governments need to set up a functional system to face up the challenge. Timely interventions with high political commitment and community mobilization are believed to assist in preventing the incidence of numerous cases and deaths. Local governments also have great roles in the governance. Without real functioning local governments, the role of states in controlling global infectious diseases cannot be realized.

The Place of Local Governments in Federal Systems

Locality can create a foundation where common interests could be negotiated with other areas and levels of governments such as federal and regional governments. Goss (2011) describes identity, geography, scale and power as the elements that make up localities. In this study the term 'local' refers to rural and urban governments i.e. woredas and towns in Ethiopia. The role of local governance is not simply to work at local level, but negotiate relationships with other levels of governance. Governance in the sense of network of decision-making and relationship between levels of government and between government and people is required at local level (Goss, 2001:32-36). Local governance is not just concerned with the local, but about the interface among levels of government i.e. federal, regional, local and neighborhood. If vicinity is too small it might not be adequately powerful to be listened to by others. Local governments need to have adequate power to be able to negotiate. They need to have greater capacity to listen to and to respond to public concerns and to negotiate and create partnership with different organizations operating in their localities (Nigussie Daba and Mberengwa, 2009). Local governments should respond to administrative issues and focus on quality, effectiveness and responsiveness, and adjust them to their specific situations (Stewart and Stoker, 1995:9).

Local governments in federal systems do not have similar place and role as some federations constitutionally recognize their local governments while others leave such functions and competences for the regional states or provinces. In many federations, local governments are regarded as the competences of the states or regional governments. Countries with a federal system of governance also differ significantly in terms of federal influence on subnational governments and vice versa. In some states central control over regional expenditures is rather restricted, and sub-central units have substantial power to

decide their matters. In others, central and sub-central institutions are noticeably separated and the national and subnational governments interact through gatherings of administrators and ministers (Boadway and Shah, 2009). Ahmad and Brosio (2006) are also of the view that states with a strong legal framework and new institutional methods, including the dispersal of asymmetric arrangements have emerged as a result of decentralization of powers.

The constitution of the United States of 1787, the Swiss Constitution of 1848, the Australian Federal Constitution of 1901 and the Canadian Constitution of 1867 did not include local government as an order of government. Most of them were silent on the matter, or mention it only as a provincial field of competence (Steytler, 2005). However, after the Second World War, the issue of local self-governance growingly appeared in federal constitutions, frequently matching with the return to democratic rule. Although the Spanish Constitution of 1978 focused on the creation of Autonomous Communities, local autonomy was nevertheless mentioned. The first was the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Germany of 1949. Yet, local government's role is growing in the governance of federal systems and creating new interests on the philosophy and model of governance and federalism, resulting in changing its position alongside the new role (Steytler, 2005). According to Steytler, Spain, Brazil, India, Nigeria and Switzerland have entrenched local government in their more recent constitutions. Within the constitutional setting, the roles of local governments are defined in detail by provincial statutes in Canada (Lazar and Seal (2005). According to the authors, every sub-national unit has its own regulation labeling the place, authorities and responsibilities of urban administrations within its area.

Local Governments are usually the first line of link to the communities they serve (Aminuzzaman, 2010). They play a key role in administrative, public service delivery and developmental roles. They also establish healthy and safe work environment, create jobs, contribute for sustainable local economic development, and a stable political climate (Ketema and Regassa, 2018). We can see the growing role of local governments in the delivery of services to the local community. Ever more tasks are being transferred to the local governments as they are becoming instruments for growth and development in many countries. This could also put substantial pressure on them to finance such tasks. These increased status and role of local governments make intergovernmental relations between local, state/provincial and federal governments more complex. In addition, decentralization can also be considered as an instrument of good governance. Local governance increases the popular involvement in decision making, enhances local people's capacities, and improves responsiveness, transparency and accountability of all levels of government.

Findings of the study

Powers and Functions of Local Governments in Ethiopia

The Ethiopian 1995 Constitution assures that the federal government and the states shall have legislative, executive, and judicial powers. In addition, the Constitution in its article 50(b) clearly stipulates that their powers of policy making are constitutionally delineated and that they shall respect their powers. In this regard, the Federal Government formulates overall economic, social, and developmental policies. The federal constitution provides that general policies related to social and economic matters, after being prepared by the executive council, have to be approved by the parliament. The executive council is

also ordered to ensure the implementation of the policies once approved by parliament. Likewise, the regional policies on social services and economic development are formulated by regional executive council and submitted to a regional council for approval. Article 52 (c) of the FDRE constitution also empowers the regional states to formulate and execute economic, social and development policies, strategies and plans of their respective governments. The 2001 revised constitution of Oromia regional state in its article 49 (i) also empowers the Council or 'Caffee' to adopt social and economic policies, strategies and plans of the region. According to the Constitution, the legislature or 'Caffee' is decisive institution in policy making process in the regional state. The council/'Caffee' is the highest political body with full powers in the affairs of the regional state and mandated to check whether the laws, policies and strategies are implemented by the executive according to their intention and desire, including the power of calling and questioning the executive bodies of the regional state. Getting the power to formulate policies on local development issues is also critical for local governments (woredas and cities).

However, the place of local government in the Ethiopian federal system is not clear. Local governments in Ethiopia do not have adequate protection under the FDRE Constitution. The functions under the competences of local governments are not granted by the federal Constitution and are not original. So, the Constitution lacks clarity and the existence and status of local governments is based on the interests of the powerful party at the federal and regional levels rather than on Constitutional doctrines. The regional constitutions also did not explain whether woredas may formulate and adopt policies on the local development matters. On the other hand, federal and regional cities have policy making power which is based on proclamations and other legal instruments rather than federal and regional constitutions.

Addis Ababa city Administration Proclamation No.35/2012 also states that "The City Government shall have Weredas that are organs of a Sub-City." This shows that woreda stays a body hierarchically subsidiary to the city government. When local institutions are designed as agents of the regional states to achieve the regional goals, such conditions may create a central tension in the tasks of local governments. Zemelak (2014) stated that a multi-tiered system of rural local government is established in which each level is allowed to choose its own local issues related to social and economic development, but the exact matters on which it is empowered to act are not clear.

Communities and local businesses are all facing unique challenges and stress during this time of COVID-19 and are increasingly looking to the local councils for help. Yet local governments could not have adequate budgets for crisis management which may create extra financial burden on them as they remain to provide necessary services and assist their communities. As elected governments, local governments have a democratic responsibility to pursue the objectives of their constituents. Hence, empowering local governments with strong, self-governing authority and power for locally demarcated objectives, rather than making them simply as institutions formed by the states, is critical to assure their permanence.

The crisis may also bring certain positive effects to local governance in spite of the negative consequences of the COVID-19 pandemic. Citizens could be reminded of the essential role of public institutions and the need for a robust local government to respond to challenges like the corona virus epidemic. This awareness, in the long term, may strengthen local participatory processes, accountability and transparency. Moreover, the

current pandemic offers a chance for local governments to rethink how to best serve citizens through digital tools (Moolakkattu, 2020). COVID-19 could open the door to a long-due digital transformation of public institutions based on accountability, open data and democratized access to information for everyone.

On the other hand, woredas are empowered to prepare their own social and economic development plans by regional constitutions. The regional constitutions provide that a woreda has the necessary power to plan and implement its own social services and economic development (Constitution of Oromia Regional State, 2001). To this effect a woreda executive council is mandated to prepare plans on woreda social and economic issues, and the concerned woreda council is sanctioned to adopt the plans. But woreda planning is not plainly clarified by the constitutions (Zemelak, 2014). Woreda planning is mostly based on the guideline of Ministry of Finance and Economic Cooperation and Civil Service Commission. Planning involves identifying resources and developmental priorities, and utilizing resources to achieve these priorities. Woreda development plans can be classified into short-term development plans (for 1 year), medium-term or strategic development plans (for 3-5 years) and long-term development plans (for 10-20 years). Woredas are authorized to adopt a short-term and medium term plans.

The constitution at first sight seems to be ambiguous about the constitutional status of local governments. In 2001, a decision was made to decentralize power to local authorities. It might even appear to suggest the establishment of a mere deconcentrated local administration by the regional states as opposed to democratically elected autonomous local governments. Yet, a cautious scrutiny of the constitution reveals that the latter requires the establishment of autonomous local government. However it needs to be known that the ostensible ambiguity in the constitution regarding the status of local government has made uncertainty about the status of local government. In addition to this, the absence of clearly defined powers, inadequate financial sources, and one party's dominance at all levels of government have stuck the attainment of a constitutionally recognized autonomous local government.

Article 50 (4) of the FDRE Constitution states that the regional governments will grant powers to local governments which indicate that the degree of powers of local governments depends on the regional states as they are the primary guardians of the powers devolved to local governments. The Constitution infers that a specific function should be assigned to local government if public participation is vital for its implementation. For Zemelak (2014), this is based on democratic value for those who have direct interest to deliberate on a public service. Regional states in Ethiopia also adopted regional constitutions in 1995 and revised them in 2000 as the older constitutions did not conform to the FDRE Constitution's recommendation of creating autonomous local governments in the states because local governments were viewed as states' administrative agents (Zemelak, 2014; Zemelak and Solomon, 2018).

Revision of the state constitutions were also necessitated due to the need for empowerment of local governments as the latter were expected to play a key role in achieving poverty reduction and sustainable development goals through the delivery of public services such as drinking water, health services, primary education, etc. at the local level. Revisions of the constitutions were needed to devolve certain functional competences. However, the state constitutions did not spell out the competences of woredas. They just state that woredas can plan and implement social and economic

development related matters in their localities, without outlining the pertinent functions (Zemelak and Solomon, 2018).

Legal instruments such as proclamations and executive regulations were also used by certain regional states in Ethiopia, such as Oromia regional state, to describe local government functions. However, such documents are below the regional Constitution in the order of regional laws. Furthermore, such proclamations and regulations can simply be revised by the regional states. As a result, the regional states may take back whenever they need, the functions they have reassigned to local governments, because those functions of woredas and towns are not clearly stated in the federal and regional constitutions.

The main reason for the revision of the Oromia State constitution in 2000 was also indicated in the preamble of the revised constitution. The objective was to ensure good governance through separation of state powers such as state councils and the executive organ. Strengthening check and balance, transparency and accountability of state organs and effective state structure to enable them provide effective service was also stated to be the intention of the revision of the constitution. It was also specified that the objective reality of the region could not be met with the existing constitution (Zemelak, 2014).

In addition, regulating local governments in the region was also mentioned as one of the reasons for the revision of the constitution, though the main reason behind the revision of the constitutions of the regional states (including Oromia regional state) was linked to the then strong interest and decision of the ruling party and the central government (Zemelak and Solomon, 2018). Thus, the power to design policies on local issues is an important political power. The power to adopt policies is also important issue in Ethiopia because social and economic policies adopted by different levels of government have a legal force which comes from the process through which they are adopted.

The Role of Local Governments in fighting COVID-19 pandemic in Ethiopia

The federal government's power to regulate widespread diseases is stated in the FDRE Constitution of 1995. Article 51(3) of the 1995 Constitution states that, the federal government "shall establish and implement national standards and basic policy criteria for public health, education, science and technology as well as for the protection and preservation of cultural and historical legacies". Hence, the federal government is mandated to create and execute nationwide standards and basic policy criteria which the regional governments utilize as a source to frame their policies under the "framework concurrency". It is clear that issues related to public health are concurrent competences of both federal and regional states. As a result, "the federal government has policy making and legislative powers on pandemics as it is a public health issue". Furthermore, the federal government is also responsible for regulating the mobility of people in the country's borders to control the expansion of the pandemic which may be exacerbated as a result of movement of people around the borders. In this regard, the federal government is expected to play active role by managing the country's borders to contain the pandemic which is a threat to health.

Likewise, the regional policies on social services and economic development are formulated by regional executive council and submitted to a regional council for approval. Article 52 (c) of the FDRE constitution also empowers the regional states to formulate and execute economic, social and development policies, strategies and plans of their respective

governments. The 2001 revised constitution of Oromia regional state in its article 49 (i) also empowers the Council or 'Caffee' to adopt social and economic policies, strategies and plans of the region. According to the Constitution, the legislature or 'Caffee' is decisive institution in policy making process in the regional state. The council/'Caffee' is the highest political body with full powers in the affairs of the regional state and mandated to check whether the laws, policies and strategies are implemented by the executive according to their intention and desire, including the power of calling and questioning the executive bodies of the regional state.

Ethiopia faces unprecedented devastating and existential challenge even more than most of the world due to the Corona virus unless decisions are guided by evidence, knowledge and good judgment. Without informed decision of the government, the Ethiopian economy may face an enormous shock and the potential consequences could be so catastrophic. Alemayehu Geda (2020) calls for a special and bold politico-economic approach to the challenge and to avoid the cliff. He also advises Ethiopians, the government and opposition political parties to put aside their differences and unite on the pandemic as one people, one country, and also to use the chance to forge the unity of the country. The Ethiopian government has also been investing in economic stimulus packages and emergency healthcare. These interventions denote an unprecedented challenge for governments. While the magnitude of the challenge and policy responses vary across borders, the focus needed at the household and community level highlights the pivotal role local governments must play in response to a crisis. Many of the important services are supplied by the local governments since they are near to the grass roots community. This may involve a high degree of interaction with vulnerable members in the communities through their provision of services such as public health and aged care, meals, and other community services. For the period of the coronavirus epidemic, local governments are likely to assist and implement the federal and regional governments' restrictions concerning their societies necessitating to be social distancing and self-isolating.

It was also stated in Regulation No.466/2020 that no federal or regional level authority can give statement about coronavirus without the permission of the ministerial committee or its sub-committee (FDRE Council of Ministers Regulation No.466/2020). The task force mainly engages in mobilizing the resources and community, awareness creation, distribution of alcohols, sanitizers, soaps, etc. for the needy people, restricting meetings and facilitating conditions for persons to wash their hands, and advising them to wear face masks and/or gloves. This shows that the role of local governments is insignificant as every activity is under the command of ministerial committee. Information from key informants during interview reveals that activities are all managed from a central point by putting in place a centralized task force from federal to local levels for transmitting clear messages from one source. A task force created a central management and co-ordination point for the coronavirus pandemic response, especially during emergency times. The task force, having a governance structure for decision making around the pandemic, was meant to co-ordinate all the different activities that are required.

The task force creates awareness based on the directives and manuals prepared by the Health Ministry and regional health bureau and passed to them. However, an interview with Oromia regional health bureau expert revealed that no guideline was prepared at the regional level but the bureau sends to the local governments and sectors different documents prepared by the federal ministry of health. The role of regional bureau is very

much limited as compared to the role of ministry of health (an interview with Oromia regional health bureau expert). If any COVID-19 patients yield to the infection at home, local governments will assure that final resources are performed as per provision mentioned in the directives. The task force prepares list of vulnerable groups like elderly, malnourished and people with immuno-compromised conditions like cancer, diabetes, HIV/AIDs, hypertension and adopt safety measures to prevent them from contracting virus. In such a backdrop, local governments should coordinate with health institutions under its authority to notify the Federal and regional health authorities for managing the drugs, equipment and reagent. This may prevent such groups from the unwanted psychological effects like depression, loneliness, anxiety and suicidal thoughts.

An interviewee from Oromia health bureau also indicated that the coronavirus pandemic related activities are monitored mainly by the Oromia regional bureau in addition to the established regional and ministerial committee. It was also stated that regional health bureau regularly interacts with woreda and city health institutions even before the COVID-19 pandemic outbreak. Thus, local governments in the region rely on the senior level of governments (regional and federal governments) for many of the pandemic related issues rather than deciding for themselves. Central supervision of the tasks of local governments is important for achieving decentralized goals as well as national and regional objectives. Collaboration between governments at all levels is also vital to minimize overlapping of activities and duplication of efforts. Interviewees from Addis Ababa also indicated that collaboration between stakeholders is immense in managing crisis like COVID-19. According to the interviewees, local institutions and CSOs in particular had been involved in sensitizations and reaching out for the poor that relied on daily labor to make ends meet. However, the regional constitutions and the city proclamations highlight the tiered relationship of local governments to regional governments than cooperation. Regulation No.466/2020 also states that no federal or regional level authority can give statement about coronavirus without the permission of the ministerial committee or its sub-committee

Local governments in Oromia regional state also discuss COVID-19 related issues on regional media such as Oromia Broadcasting Network, Radio, and local FM stations to raise the awareness level of the community. This may also help to instill positivity and hope, and to guide the public during difficult time of epidemic. However, unlike Addis Ababa city residents who have access to various print and broadcast media, a large part of the people living in rural areas in Ethiopia does not use media due to limited access to such media platforms that are utilized to announce COVID-19 prevention procedures and actions. Moreover, without aggressive interventions, current levels of access to water and soap are suboptimal to adopt the hand-washing recommendations, particularly in rural areas. The limited size of families with different infrastructures such as electricity, refrigeration, or internet access and the relatively high incidence of spouse violence warn that applying the stay and work from home actions could be problematic (Kaleab, 2020). Interview participants in Addis Ababa also stated that during the state of emergency there were different groups that were involved in provision of food and sanitary supplies which seem to have decreased currently. Interviews' reports also show that woredas and sub-cities are the most crowded places as most activities are concentrated there. Although personal protective equipment are available, considering the overwhelming crowds of clients, lack of ventilation and limited office space, we can say there is potential risk.

Thus, the role of local governments, especially woredas is critical to slow down the transmission of the virus and to prevent transmission to rural areas. Communication platforms and messaging will need to be adapted to different local realities to make any COVID-19 containment recommendations operational. Local governments need to address barriers to staying at home and support the public in providing different facilities to prevent the virus. The local governments' role is important to end the current pandemic in Ethiopia, as well as similar pandemics in the future addressing the serious challenges related to water, sanitation and hygiene that need urgent attention. Local governments should also collaborate with non-governmental and community-based organizations to strengthen their capacity during COVID-19 outbreak.

We can see that the federal government has broad policy making power, and as a result, can impact local government actions. Its policy making power on social and economic development related issues and establishing and implementing national standards and basic policy criteria for public health, education, science and technology enables it to influence local government undertakings (FDRE Constitution, 1995). This constitutional power helps the federal government to regulate the local governments. The federal government also uses federal policy papers and its legislative powers to regulate local government activities (Zemelak, 2014). The regional governments also regulate local governments through their regional policies and plans. Hence, both senior levels of governments are playing key roles in local governments' actions during this time of coronavirus pandemic through the established task forces at the federal level, and the role of local governments is limited only to implementation.

The federal government also ensures whether the federal standards are achieved or not by the local governments indirectly through the regional states i.e., monitoring through each federal ministry. The federal government could, directly or indirectly support the local government to ensure the execution of central government's policies on social services. The regional governments and zonal administrations also oversee the activities of local governments through the respective sectoral bureaus. At the same time, local governments should work with non-governmental organizations running in their local level to work with them and to focus and invest on COVID-19 response by forging coordination with local government. The woreda executive council is in charge of formulating woreda plans while the woreda council has the final power to approve the plans (Zemelak, 2014). Planning also comprises pinpointing resources and developmental priorities, and using resources to realize the priorities. Article 79 (C) of the revised constitution of Oromia (2001) also states that woreda councils have the powers and responsibilities to create the favorable conditions to mobilize and initiate the public for development actions.

Woredas identify community problems and prioritize them through consultations with the public and incorporate them into short-term plans. However, local governments may not have adequate budgets in their plans for crisis management. This may also create additional financial pressure on them as they continue to deliver essential services and support their communities. Hence, local communities and local businesses could all face unprecedented challenges and stress during the COVID-19 outbreak and may increasingly look to the local councils, community based organizations, non-governmental organizations and private businessmen for help.

Interview results reveal that task forces as subcommittees of the regional committee were established in all these woredas and towns and they are actively participating in

mobilization of resources by coordinating private investors and the community. It was also reported during interview that the resources provided helped the local government authorities to keep quarantined people in the woredas and towns in a proper conditions with suitable and distinct sleeping accommodations, washing and restrooms for men and women. Similarly, safe water and frequent cleanliness were ensured as different sanitary pads were also easily found and provided to the isolated persons.

On the other hand, the alignment of task forces at all levels (federal, regional, zonal, woreda/town and kebele levels) and the uniformity of the activities in all woredas and towns indicates a top-down approach where the role of local actors is limited to only implementing decisions made at the higher level. In addition, Proclamation No. 3/2020, Article 3(3) states that “any federal or state law, decision or practice which contravenes the emergency declaration shall be of no effect.” Hence, the local governments do not have ordinary competencies in time of peace let alone policy decision making power in time of emergency. Quarantine centers in local towns and woredas may face difficulties in collecting necessary food materials. Local authorities in the local governments may need to collect food items including fruits and vegetables from local farmers to fulfill the demand at the quarantine centers to ensure healthy food during this difficult time. Although diets and supplementary foods by themselves cannot prevent COVID-19 infection, balanced diet and good food habits certainly strengthen a person's immunity.

Interview participants indicated that efforts were made to share meals (*ye ma id megarat* in Amharic), to solve the shortage of food items that could face the areas due to the epidemic. Interviewees also explained that the private sector and non-government organizations operating in their localities are actively engaging in the fighting of the pandemic by contributing different resources in cash and in kind. For instance, the businessmen in the woredas and cities provided different vehicles and buildings for using them for quarantine purposes and related services. Hence, local governments are struggling to respond to the desires of the local communities by utilizing resources obtained from different sources under their disposal though their autonomy is too much limited. For example, a key informant from Goba town explained that the task force divided the Goba-Market into seven places to minimize gatherings of people.

The Regional constitution of Oromia of 2001 does not clearly state whether woredas can formulate their own policies on local development issues. So, it is not clear whether they have powers of policy making or not. The key informants engaged in the interview were also of the view that the role of woredas and towns is implementation of different programs and projects prepared at federal and regional levels, rather than adopting their own policies. This shows low awareness level of the public on policy making power since most people perceive policy making power is limited to the higher level of government. In addition absence of clear policy making power of the local governments in the regional constitution downgraded the lower levels of governance as the sheer policy implementing institutions. This affects local governments' role as laboratories of innovative ideas as the local governments would be able to come up with novel ideas and new methods of confronting local problems such as coronavirus (COVID-19). When the local governments are entitled to adopt their own policies on local issues within their competence, they may tackle the problem in different ways based on their local context. All local governments with diverse contexts may come up with different methods out of which the best can be selected. With the power of policy making, the COVID-19 pandemic

could offer a window of opportunity to the local governments to create new ideas to protect similar pandemics for future and provide better public services for the local communities. To materialize such opportunity, the regional constitutions should be revised and explicitly state policy making powers of local governments and the local governments must exercise their authority and execute the responsibility of strengthening local development and smooth operation of basic public services including health services. Furthermore, local governments need to develop their capacity in terms of human resource capacity and financial capacity.

Although regional constitutions are silent on whether woredas may enact laws on their social and economic problems, the principle of subsidiarity implied in the regional constitutions permits them to exercise any power that enables them to formulate and execute social and economic development plans. However, absence of clearly stated legislative power in federal and regional constitutions may restrict woredas' important local autonomy of translating locally generated policies into law. This may also limit woreda council's lawmaking power of regulating the council's own internal procedure of operation. This calls for the amendment of the regional state of Oromia's constitution to provide woredas with unequivocally specified and constitutionally provided legislative power.

According to the interviewees, some traders have increased the price of goods and services in the localities taking the COVID-19 situation as a good opportunity. In addition, some restriction measures were also put in place by the federal and regional governments to curb the spread of coronavirus infection. As a result, supply of vegetables, fruits, bread and other food items had been impacted. Key informants during interview explained that local governments (zones, woredas and cities) took legal measures on these illegal traders. Directing woreda police and other security forces is one of the competences of the woreda. The regional cities also exercise both state and municipal functions as these are their functional competences. They also deal with economic issues such as delivering trade licenses, registration and regulation of commercial activities, micro-and small scale enterprises and expanding urban transport infrastructures (Zemelak, 2014) and legal measures taken by the local governments on illegal traders could be related to these functional competences. The Oromia regional state also dispensed a regulation which looks for defining in detail woreda and kebele functional competences in 2003. However, such legal instruments are easily changeable by the regional state as they are ranked below the regional constitution and proclamations in the hierarchy of laws. Hence, woredas and cities in the region can and are exercising certain functions in the security and economic sectors though those functions are not originally emanated from the federal constitutions, and some of them are not also explicitly stated in the regional constitutions.

Participants of the interview also raised that lack of clearly defined activities performed at the level of woredas and towns is a problematic. The federal democratic republic of Ethiopian government declared a national state of emergency on 8 April/2020 to counter and control the spread of COVID-19 and to mitigate its impact (Proclamation No. 3/2020; FDRE Council of Ministers Regulation No.466/2020). The Oromia regional state has also imposed a restriction measures on public transportation on Monday, March 30, 2020 in an effort to contain the spread of the coronavirus (COVID-19) in the region. It was explained by participants of the interview that, as of Tuesday, March 31, it remained unknown how long the restriction would remain in effect for. They also said that the

restrictions on mobility of persons were lacking precision and clarity, and were not clear whether they were meant to have the force of law.

The restriction on the mobility of rural people to towns and urban residents to rural areas was also announced to the public through a press release. In addition, no reference was made to the specific legal authority on the basis of which these measures were introduced. The lockdown could lead to the freezing of social and economic activities involving severe restrictions on freedom of movement, the right to work/livelihood, freedom of religion, freedom of assembly and freedom of association, and addressing the socio-economic impact of the various measures limiting movement and economic activities of the persons requires the government additional budget. Moreover, limiting rights and freedoms of persons is only possible by constitutional authority with proper procedure of State of Emergency. According to Articles 108 (1), (2), (3), (4) and 109 (1) and (2) of the Oromia regional state constitution (2001), the regional government has the power to decree a state of emergency when the natural disaster or an epidemic happens in the region. The Oromia regional state could announce measures in response to COVID-19 on the basis of a declaration of a state of emergency. The administrative council (the executive arm of the government) of the regional state could prepare and submit a bill to the ‘Caffee’ Oromia (legislative body of the regional government) for approval, declaring a state of emergency within a framework of Article 93 of the Federal Constitution of Ethiopia.

Conclusion and recommendations

Conclusion

The federal government has broad policy making power, and as a result, can impact local government actions. This constitutional power helps the federal government to regulate the local governments. The regional governments also regulate local governments through their regional policies and plans. In addition, both senior levels of governments are playing key roles in local governments’ actions during this time of coronavirus pandemic through the established task forces at the federal level. Hence, the role of local governments is limited only to implementation. The alignment of task forces at all levels (federal, regional, zonal, woreda/town and kebele levels) and the uniformity of the activities in all woredas and towns indicates a top-down approach where the role of local actors is limited to only implementing decisions made at the higher level. This affects local governments’ role as laboratories of innovative ideas as the local governments would be able to come up with novel ideas and new methods of confronting local problems such as coronavirus (COVID-19). When the local governments are entitled to adopt their own policies on local issues within their competence, they may tackle the problem in different ways based on their local context. All local governments with diverse contexts may come up with different methods out of which the best can be selected. With the power of policy making, the COVID-19 pandemic could offer a window of opportunity to the local governments to create new ideas to protect similar pandemics for future and provide better public services for the local communities.

Woredas identify community problems and prioritize them through consultations with the public and incorporate them into short-term plans. Woreda councils have the powers and responsibilities to create the favorable conditions to mobilize and initiate the public for development actions. However, local governments may not have adequate

budgets in their plans for crisis management. This may also create additional financial pressure on them as they continue to deliver essential services and support their communities. Thus, local communities and local businesses could all face unprecedented challenges and stress during the COVID-19 outbreak and may increasingly look to the local councils, community based organizations, non-governmental organizations and private businessmen for help.

Although regional constitutions are silent on whether woredas may enact laws on their social and economic problems, the principle of subsidiarity implied in the regional constitutions permits them to exercise any power that enables them to formulate and execute social and economic development plans. However, absence of clearly stated legislative power in federal and regional constitutions may restrict woredas' important local autonomy of translating locally generated policies into law. This may also limit woreda council's lawmaking power of regulating the council's own internal procedure of operation. This calls for the amendment of the regional state of Oromia's constitution to provide woredas with unequivocally specified and constitutionally provided legislative power. The regional states can impose a restriction measures to contain the spread of the coronavirus (COVID-19). However, the restrictions of Oromia state region on mobility of persons were lacking precision and clarity, and were not clear whether they were meant to have the force of law. Limiting the rights of citizens is impossible without following appropriate procedure of state of emergency. and addressing the socio-economic impact of the various measures limiting movement and economic activities of the persons requires the government additional budget.

Recommendations

Declaring state of emergency following the procedure on the regional constitution was appropriate rather than simply giving a press release. Hence, the regional governments needs to show commitment for transparency, accountability and rule of law when taking such measures as all those measures have far reaching consequences on civil liberties and socio-economic rights of citizens. The laws also need to be enshrined in dully enacted law of general application. Attention must also be paid to what can be done to avoid resurgence of COVID-19 infections and of similar pandemics in the future. The COVID-19 pandemic can serve as an awakening to invest more in local governments, in building their capacity in the long term since pandemics such as COVID-19 are complex social and behavioral challenges that cannot be contained only by national governments. In addition, effective coordination mechanisms between national and local governments are critical. Strengthening local governments (rural woredas and urban centers) and building the capacity of local administrators and bureaucrats to manage the policy response (from health to the economy to social protection) is critical. Hence, investment in local government should be given attention to effective recovery and long-term resilience.

There is a need to create awareness for regional states on their constitutional mandates and importance of local governments. The regional governments need to show commitment and follow the procedure on the regional constitution for transparency, accountability and rule of law when taking such measures as declaring state of emergency. Furthermore, there is a need to constitutionally establish local governments and put specific competencies unto them.

Citizen Participation mechanisms need to be devised for mobilizing resources and to work with local agencies. Community and religious leaders and trusted and credible third parties play important roles in the local communities and their support is needed to spread awareness, particularly in remote and vulnerable communities because public action in response to a crisis mitigates its impact. Robust accountability such as independent media allow citizens to check that emergency resources are distributed equitably and used optimally.

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VOTE BUYING AND DEMOCRATIC ELECTIONS IN NIGERIA

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Abstract: *The study examines vote buying and democratic elections in Nigeria: a study of the 2018 Ekiti state gubernatorial election. Vote buying In Nigerian election is not a new phenomenon however; it has gotten a lot of spotlight as a result of its inherent ability of causing devastating effect on the body of politics and the democratic process of new democracies such as Nigeria. This is because vote buying has become an integral part of elections in Nigeria and has escalated to the point that some candidates add buying of votes as part of the political strategy, as they believe that manifestoes and integrity of candidates alone is not enough to win elections. This research therefore, aims to identify the manifestations, examine the impact, ascertain the catalyst and suggest possible mechanism to minimize vote buying in future Ekiti state elections. The study adopts the quantitative method been supported by the qualitative method of data collection and uses clientelism as the theoretical framework. The study discovered that vote buying largely affected the outcome of the 2018 Ekiti state gubernatorial election and identified some factors such as poverty, lack of voter's education and poor execution of sanctions as catalyst of vote buying. It also suggests some recommendations in the bid to curb the behavior of vote buying in future Nigerian elections. The study concluded that without tackling the catalyst of vote buying in Nigeria election, the behavior of vote buying will keep on thriving.*

Keywords: *Elections, Electoral Process, Vote Buying, Nigeria.*

Introduction

The research examines the impact of vote buying on democratic elections in Nigeria, with specific focus on the 2018 governorship election in Ekiti State. Nigeria's style of democracy can be linked to that of America which advocates that the absolute and supreme power remains with the people (Noah, 2006). This style of democracy in which Nigeria adopts is largely hinged on the premise that the will of the majority is done and the voice of the minority is heard. For democracy to thrive as a political system the basic features of democracy must be implemented which include periodic elections; the provision of fundamental human rights; multiply party system with candidates to choice from, amongst others (Noah, 2004). Periodic election, a feature of democracy can be said to be an indispensable characteristic of any democratic transition and the hallmark of representative democracy (Inokoba and Kumokor, 2011). This is because, it is during elections that the voices of the people are well heard and it is also recorded as an event

with the highest rate of political participation by the people. Today elections are seen as the most acceptable medium by which citizens choose their leaders in an orderly, serene and peaceful exercise (Momoh, 2005). Elections could be regarded as a coin with two sides; On one side, elections give citizen's an avenue to indicate their choice amongst candidates, manifestoes, policies, ideas and programmes presented to them by individuals vying for leadership positions while on the other side, it is also an instruments for removing unpopular and ineffective leaders as well as forcing elected officials to hearken to the plight of the people (David, Manu, and Musa, 2014). This is because the electorates hold the power to renew or cancel the tenure of every elected official. These functions of election are made possible because of the provision of the electoral process; which spells out the method to be used in selecting individuals for political offices (Nnamani, 2014).

The electoral process can be said to be the sum total of the entire operation in relations to carrying out an election from as little as performing of voter education to as great as dissolving of the National Assembly (Elekwa, 2008). It is also said to be the pre and post-election duties including guidelines put in place by the electoral officials in order for the election to run smoothly as well as for the electorates to choose representative towards catering for their interest because without such activities the election is more or less void. Activities of the electoral process include registering political parties, registering and reviewing of voters' records, scheduling times for electoral campaigns, electoral disputes resolution, swearing elected representatives to mention a few (Nnamani, 2014). One of the activities as part of the electoral process is campaigning where candidates race to captivate the heart of the electorate with the hope of becoming the electorate's choice. A democratic campaign is supposed to be peaceful and serene interaction. On one hand the candidates are involved in various discourse of persuasion as they vie for the most support from the electorates by presenting arguments as to why they deserve the votes of the people and on the other hand the electorates sieve through the arguments which are to become policies and select the candidate whose policy positions best or closely depicts their own set of believes, expectations or preferences (Bratton, 2008). In that vein, any action that violates the electoral process can be classified as electoral fraud or malpractice and is considered an impediment to free and fair elections. Thus, any government produced from such a marred electoral process can be termed un-democratic. In the case of Nigeria, elections is seen as winner takes all scenario, requiring a fight to the death attitude and with such high stakes in play, there is no limit a politician would not go in order to secure votes be it fair or foul (Fafchamps and Vicente, 2013). That is why a lot of elections in Nigeria are marred with diverse methods of electoral malpractices such as electoral rigging, electoral violence include vote buying (Adamu et. al., 2016).

Vote buying is the direct exchange of benefit and material goods by the political elites to propel electoral support (Carreras and Irepoglu, 2013). It also includes buying of the voting shares or payments made to voters to influence them to vote for a specific candidate (Nichter, 2014). Election outcome in which vote buying is involved is slowly becoming normal way in which politics is played in growing democracies like Nigeria, having been transitioned from the military to the civilian era (Ovwas, 2013). This is because the civilian administration aims to present an appearance of free and fair election, implement universal adult suffrage and following the electoral processes and Nigerian politicians make use of such desires through campaigning to manipulate the electoral rules by inducing material benefit to the electorate so as to acquire mass support (Bratton, 2008).

Statement of the Problem

Election is a medium for the voice of the people to be heard. This has been norm as far back as the Greek city state where ‘show of hands’ in support of a decision to be taken was carried out. Today elections have become a significant pillar of democracy and a means of legitimizing the decisions of government (David, Manu and Musa, 2014). In that vein, anything that is an impediment to elections, infringes on the ability of citizens to have their voice heard which affects an essential pillar of democracy (Adamu, Ocheni and Ibrahim, 2016). Nigeria the giant of Africa whose democracy and elections are closely watched by the international community; as a testimony of the growth of democracy and the possibility free and fair elections in the region, is still challenged with vote buying in its elections (Baidoo, Dankwa and Eshun, 2018). The presence of vote buying in Nigeria’s elections especially that of 2018 Ekiti and osun state gubernatorial election as noised by INEC has raised some critical questions about the credibility of such election and her democracy (Akinkuotu, 2018). These questions include how free or fair can elections be when some candidates have bought the votes of the electorate even before the election? How can the principle of equality exist when vote buying gives more advantages to the wealthy over the poor? How responsible will the elected leaders be to the electorate when vote buying as an electoral transaction implies that the politicians have paid for the vote of the electorate? (Neeman and Orosel, 2008; Jensen and Justesen 2014; Adamu, et. al., 2016). The presence of vote buying in Nigeria’s elections in addition to the questions raised, gives room for concern about 2018 governorship election in Ekiti state and the future of elections Nigeria. This research therefore, seeks to ascertain the presence of vote buying in the 2018 Governorship election in ekiti state, how truth are the question raised against vote buying in Ekiti state and what are the implications of vote buying to Nigeria’s future elections and democracy focusing on Ekiti State .

Objectives of the Research

In accordance with the problem and research questions the overall objective of the research is to investigate the offshoot of vote buying on Ekiti State democratic elections. Specifically, the objectives are to:

- *To examine the manifestations of Vote buying in the 2018 Governorship election in Ekiti state*
- *To determine the impact of Vote Buying on the 2018 Governorship election in Ekiti State?*
- *To ascertain the factors that encouraged vote buying in the 2018 Governorship election in Ekiti States*
- *To identify ways by which vote buying can be minimized in future elections in Ekiti State*

Research Hypothesis

Some hypotheses were made in the null form to guide the research. These hypotheses are as follows:

- There were no manifestations of vote buying in 2018 Governorship election in Ekiti state
- Vote buying had no impact on the 2018 Governorship election in Ekiti State

- There were no factors encouraging vote buying in 2018 Governorship election in Ekiti States
- Vote buying cannot be minimized in future election in Ekiti State

Significance of the Research

This research has three points of significance theoretical, governmental and statistical. Theoretically, the research on vote buying and democratic election using Ekiti state as a case study, aids in expanding the already existing literature on vote buying and Democratic elections in Nigeria. As the present literature review shows that there are limited studies done in Nigeria such as Bratton (2008) who examines Vote buying and Violence in Nigerian election campaigns, Ovwasa (2012) who examines Money Politics and Vote Buying in Nigeria: As the Bane of Good Governance. Governmental, this is necessary and significant as the present mode of election engineering carried out by political candidate creates an impediment to democratic elections and her growing democracy. Hence, exploring the nature, extent and effectiveness of irregular campaign methods such as vote buying is geminin to future elections. This research also throws light to who are the victims of vote buying in Nigeria with Ekiti state as a case study and what are the possible voter behaviors in responses to irregular campaign method like vote buying. Bratton (2008) explains that voter's behavior at the individual level when introduced to irregular campaign methods like vote buying can be classified into three possible course of action namely to refuse, to defect, or to comply. These three courses of actions are very important in understanding the outcome of the election in Ekiti state. The finding of the research offer valuable insight into how the government can tackle the issue of vote buying in future elections. Statistically, the research employs the T-test which is a great addition to previous studies both in Nigeria and other countries. Other studies have done relationship between electoral turnout and candidate popularity as a function of vote buying but the t-test exposes the degree at which the menace of vote buying has largely dogged into the fabrics of democratic elections in Nigeria.

Scope of the Research

This research focuses on five (5) local government areas in Ekiti state and the events leading to 2018 gubernatorial election until the 14th July 2018 the day for the gubernatorial election. The local government includes Oye (North), Ado Ekiti (Center), Ekiti West (West), Ekiti East (East) and Ikere (South). The choice of Governorship election in ekiti state is significant as it possess all the characteristics at a micro level to qualify it to be used as a research as well as statements from INEC about the presence of vote buying in the election.

Limitations of the Research

The challenges encountered in this research were mainly related to primary data gathering. The human factor which cannot be totally removed in form of biases, lack of total transparency and lack of willingness to release certain information that are vital to the research under the pretext classified information. Other issues include the scope of the research which is Governorship election in ekiti state as a case and making assertions about Nigeria as a whole.

Organization of the Research

The research is divided into five chapters. Chapter one introduces the entire work, identifying the problem, objectives, significance of the research. Chapter two handles the literature review and theoretical framework. On the literature focus is placed on the subject of vote buying, democratic elections and the electoral process identifying the relevant concepts, issues and themes that are central to the research and for the theoretical framework adopted was the clientalism as it relates to elections. Chapter three handles the Research Methodology involving the Research Design, population of research, sample size, instrument of data collection, validity and reliability of the instrument Chapter four mainly covers the aspect of data collection, report/analysis. Chapter five concludes the research. It attempts a summation, and makes recommendations with the benefit of hindsight and field experience. The chapter thereafter makes a number of suggestions for future research

Literature Review and Theoretical Framework

Conceptual Clarifications. Vote Buying

Vote Buying like most social science concept lacks a universally accepted definition however; some similarities can be identified from the different definitions by scholars. However, the following definitions were adopted for this research; Vote buying is the provision of rewards to groups/individuals pre or during elections in lure of solidifying or changing voter's choice to their favor. These rewards could include cash, goods, service, position, kind or anything that benefits the said receiver in order to sway them over (Nichter, 2014). It is a form of clientelism known as political clientelism: which involves the direct/indirect exchange of vote for benefits by political elites before or during elections (Jensen and Justesen, 2014). Vote buying is also an economic transaction just like buying and selling of commodities such as shoes, bags and food stuffs based on demand and supply so as the electorates are willing to sell, candidates are also available to buy (Fredrick and Andrea's, 2005). It is interesting to note that vote buying cuts across all countries be it developed or developing countries the only different maybe in manifestation, level or magnitude. In Nigeria and most developing countries vote buying is closely related to an auction procedure were the highest bidder wins the vote. The most common exercise of vote buying in Nigeria can be seen during electoral campaigns when money and food stuff change hands to induce the electorate to vote for that party (Sakariyau, Aliu and Adamu, 2015).

Approaches to Vote Buying

Vote buying can be classified into two basic approaches (Adetoye, and Omilusi, 2016; Onuoha and Ojo, 2018).

Payment for Vote approach: This approach to vote buying is largely based on trust the buyer puts on the seller. In this situation the vote buyer mostly the agent of a party seeks out a prospective voter and they agree on a particular amount in the situation of cash or position or goods in the situation of kind. The transaction in payment for vote is done before the day of the election or on the Election Day and the location of the transaction can be around the area of the polling center or at any other location (Onuoha and Ojo, 2018). Adetoye, and Omilusi, (2016) argue that most times the vote buyer demand evidence of

capability of the vote seller to vote such as been a registered voter with a voter's card and some form of assurance that the voter will keep their word and vote for their party before payment is done.

Vote for payment approach: This approach to vote buying is also dependent on trust but this time trust the vote seller puts on the buyer. In this situation payment is done either money or material benefit after evidence has been shown that the voter keep his/her word by voting for the agreed individual or the party (Onuoha and Ojo, 2018)

Catalyst of vote buying

Vote buying is a contemporary topic circulating around both the international and domestic community. However, it is important to determine what the catalyst that aids the progress and growth of Vote buying in New Democracies. Several scholars have identified some catalyst aiding the progress of vote buying. Scholars like Bratton, (2008), Carreras and Irepoglu, (2013), Jensen and Justesen, (2014). This catalyst includes

1. Poverty: The place of poverty as a catalyst for vote buying cannot be overlook. When individuals can't access the basic necessities of life such as food, clothing and shelter and an opportunity to solve their need is provide with selling their vote as the price. That decision will be a no brainy transaction because they will sell their vote in a heartbeat without thinking about it. This reality is therefore, explored by candidates as they focus their vote buying strategy on the poorest of the electorates. Jensen and Justesen, (2014) explained that although vote buying is common, poverty makes some set of people to be targeted by vote buyer. Reasons for such include the number of individuals ready to sell their vote are higher towards poverty stricken members of the electorate. Secondly the cost of the vote is classified as cheaper amongst the poor.
2. Lack of trust in the government: this is another catalyst for vote buying as individuals who see government as not trust worthy or perceive that they are not likely to gain dividend from democracy will rather collect their own share of the national cake during electoral campaigns by selling their votes (Bratton, 2008).
3. Lack of voter's education and enlightenment: it is said that ignorance is bliss but a very dangerous bliss because of the side effect that come from lack of knowledge. This is another catalyst for vote buying as the electorates are mostly not aware of the magnified or consequence of their decision. Hence, they sell their future for a pot of porridge. Mmeyer Jude the National Publicity Secretary of (RPN), speaking with Leadership Newspaper explains that vote buying is undoubtable an electoral fraud and the worse kind because the buyers do not just defraud by purchasing the conscience and present entitlement of the electorate but the future of their children for a plate of porridge compared to the enormous proceeds of democracy accrued to the them as citizens of the country (Oguntola, 2018).
4. The lack of operation of electoral laws and sanctions: This is another strong catalyst to vote buying because when individuals participate in vote buying and get away with it because sanctions are not implemented. Other people are motivated to do the same (Elekwa, 2008).

Leveraging on the works of the above scholars it is evident that a lot of literature has been done on the concept of vote buying, the nature of vote buying and some catalyst of vote buying. However, very little literature has been done on the effects of vote buying to credible elections and how vote buying threatens democracy especially in a budding

democracy like Nigeria. This therefore, become the gap in knowledge in which this research intends to fill.

Elections and Electoral Process

Election a features of democracy can be said to be an indispensable characteristic of any democratic transition and the hallmark of democracy (Inokoba and Kumokor, 2011). This is because, it is during elections that the voices of the people are well heard and it is also recorded as an event with the highest rate of political participation by the people. Today elections are seen as the most acceptable medium by which citizens choose their leaders in an orderly, serene and peaceful exercise (Momoh, 2005). According to Dr Nwodo (2011) he explains that Election is what gives birth to the future not the stories of the past (Nnamani, 2014). This typically means that elections is a new opportunity to either correct or improve the events of the future taking lessons from the past and not living in them. Election is a new opportunity/avenue for citizens to indicate their choice amongst candidates, manifestoes, policies and programs presented to them by individuals vying for leadership positions (Ayeni-Akeke, 2008). Election is also an instruments for removing unpopular and ineffective leaders as well as forcing elected officials to hearken to the plight of the people, this because the people hold the power to the renewal or cancellation of the tenure of every elected official. These functions of election are made possible because of the provision of the electoral process; which spells out the method to be used in selecting individuals for political offices (Nnamani, 2014). Electoral process can be said to be the sum total of activities relating to carrying out an election, starting from as small as providing of voter education to as large as removing or installing a president. The concept of Electoral process has had a good share of voice from diver's scholars: Akamere (2001) expresses electoral process in terms of activities and procedures involved selecting representatives or leaders during an election by the electorates. It also involves the pre and post-election activities put in place to ensure the election run smoothly and be credible as without such the election may ended up void. Electoral process is also the stipulated method or process by which individuals are elected to public office in a democratic society. For an electoral process to be deemed free and fair as well as credible some agenda and provision must be put in place to aid the electorate, candidate and political parties harness effective the election to be conducted (Nnamani, 2014). In Nigeria the body that is saddled with the responsibility of determining the agenda and implementing the electoral process during elections is the Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC) which stipulates some stages or phrases during elections which include description of constituencies, registering political parties, registering qualified voters, recruitment of ad-hoc staff for the election, providing electoral material, announcing the stipulated time to commence election campaign, organizing debates between political parties, announcement of the election, conducting the election, broadcast of the results and the process of trial in the event of election disputes (Elekwa, 2008; David, et al. 2014)

Election campaign is a lawful and legal process available to all candidates vying for an elective office to sensitize, educate and convince the electorate on his party's manifesto, ideology and most importantly why such candidate should be given the opportunity to be trusted with their vote (Beyer, Knutsen and Rasch, 2014). Election campaign is a unique tool in the hands of candidates serving divers functions such as acquisition of voters need and expectation, selling of party policies and programmes to the

people and real time record of citizens-voters problems from different regions with a view to the possibility of dealing with them (Grbeša, 2004). This is not the case in Nigeria as electoral campaign is used as a medium for expletives expression and debasing actions against the opposition as well as lavishing of ill-gotten wealth on the electorates with the intention of recouping such wealth via corruption. It been observed over time in Nigeria that this nature of election campaign has kept recurring and very successful because the voters are both not enlightened and illiterate as well as been bewildered by poverty (Jensen and Justesen, 2014).

Implication of Vote Buying on Election

Vote buying has several implications of the election of any society, these implications affects different area of the election such as

Low participation in politics: vote buying affects the participation of both the electorate and the political candidates for contesting in election. On the side of the electorates when the voters believe that the election is already marred by vote buying, the impression that their vote does not count sets in and as such there is no need to vote. Carreras and Irepoglu (2013) explains that electorates who receive incentives (cash or kind) during the campaign are more likely to vote and individuals who do not believe in selling their votes see no reason to vote. This is because election participation is largely determine by how the election appears to the people; if the people believe that the election is unfair or corrupt, they have no incentive to participate or cast their votes as to them voting or not voting has no relevance on the outcome of the election (Franklin, 2004; Birch, 2010). To the aspiring leaders who intend to contest election, vote buying suggest that money rather than credibility, policies is what is required to win elections which becomes deterring element for good and trustworthy candidates contesting for office

Lack of trust in the government: Vote buying shows what extent a leader is willing to go to gain power, remain in power and have their way. When a candidate decides to buy votes as a medium of winning election, rather than winning fair and square, it shows that candidates disregard for democratic norms and the candidates willingness to use corrupt means and this in turn weakens the trust in the government (Neeman and Orosel, 2008). This is because if that candidate can use corrupt means to get into power, what stops them for using corrupt means to stay in power.

Low responsibility of leaders to the electorate vote buying as form of clientelism, see candidates as capitalist who make investment with the end game of making profit. Vote buying as an electoral transaction implies that the politicians have paid for the vote of the electorate and therefore, not responsible to them (Jensen and Justesen 2014; Adamu, Ocheni and Ibrahim, 2016).

Vote Buying and Election in Nigeria. Nigerian Elections since Independence focusing at the National Level

Nigeria got Independence in 1960 and in line with the political system during colonialism adopted a Westminster model of the parliamentary system of government (Dudley, 1982). The general election that got representatives into the local council, regional and federal legislature was conducted on December 12, 1959 using secret ballot system for voting. The electorate eligible to vote in Western and Eastern part of Nigeria consisted of all registered adult while in the Northern part of Nigeria; eligibility to vote was only give

to registered adult males. The existing ethnic based parties which were the Northern People's Congress (NPC), National Council of Nigeria and Cameroons (NCNC) and Action Group (AG) came out as the dominant parties for the three regions. None of the three parties was able to make majority to form the government hence there was a need for a coalition government that was formed between the NPC and the NCNC making Tafawa Balewa as the Prime Minister and Chief (Dr.) Nnamdi Azikwe was made the chairman of the House of Senate by Sir James Robertson the Governor-General at the time (Dudley, 1982; Abia, 2006). Although, Nigeria got independence from Britain in 1960, the nation was still a Commonwealth Realm with Elizabeth II as titular head of state. After independence as a result of the flaws of the 1960 constitution, the spirit of nationalism and a desire to be totally freedom from our colonial masters Nigeria in 1963 adopted a new constitution declaring the nation a Republic, with a ceremonial President, Nnamdi Azikiwe who had assumed the role of a ceremonial Governor-General after independence (Abia, 2006). There was a discrepancies between the number of individuals eligible to vote on the voting rolls and the amount of people that live in the location based on the census resulting in the election been postponed for several weeks. Even at that UPGA still felt some fraudulent act been played and called for a boycott of the election by its supporters. The call for the boycott of the election was however, effective in the Eastern Region resulting in about fifty-one constituencies where polling unit existed not opening especially those units that had more than one candidate running for office. In a lot of other constituencies in the eastern region, UPGA candidates ran unopposed. This action and other had a ripple effect nationwide with only 4 million voters casting their votes, out of 15 million who were deemed eligible. From the 261 constituencies based on the result that was returned it was recorded that NNA was able to elect 198 candidates were 162 represented the NPC. As a result of the outcome of the election President Azikiwe reluctantly asked Tafawa Balewa to form a coalition government with the NNA majority. This action however, resulted in neutralized the effect of boycott on the election giving the party within the House of Representative a total of 108 seats. By March 1965 the Eastern Region and Lagos had supplementary elections conducted in areas where the boycott was successful. This however, favored the UPGA candidates as they were elected in all these constituencies making UPGA the official opposition to the ruling party (Dudley, 1982; Abia, 2006). The interest of UPGA however, became focused on the legislative election which was to hold on November 1965 in the Western Region their plan was to be able to gain control over the three southern regions, Lagos and the region surrounding the capital. They believed that if that was successful it will give the predominant southern UPGA a majority in the Senate (Elaigwu 2005).

This plan was however, not successful, although been accused of massive voting irregularities, the NNDP recorded landslide victory in November, resulting in an outbreak of protest. This protest was not only recorded among the civilians but was also recorded among the senior army officials because of the vivid perversion of the democratic process. It was therefore, recorded that an estimated 2,000 people were killed because of the result in the six months after the election (Abia, 2006). This however, resulted in the instability of the country, this state necessitated the intervention of the military were army's commander Major General Johnson Aguiyi Ironsi stepped in to restore discipline within the army and the country. This however, coincided with President Azikiwe admission in a London hospital while he was undergoing treatment. The military takeover from civilian

rule by Major General Johnson Aguiyi Ironsi sparked an effect of coups and counter coups and then a civil war and Military control of government unit 1975 (Dudley, 1982; Elaigwu, 2005). On July, 29, 1975 General Murtala Mohammed came into power after which he established a Constitution Drafting Committee (CDC) on October 18, 1975. Charging it with the responsibility of producing a new constitution for Nigeria, with a specific mandate of eliminating the existing constitutional problems in which Nigeria was facing. With this mandate at hand the committee performed extensive comparative reviews of constitutions and systems of government which involved them travelling to several countries so as to studied them in operation in order to come with appropriate form of government for Nigeria. After their research was over the committee submitted a draft which was studied and reviewed by a Constituent Assembly (CA). General Murtala Mohammed did not live long to see his vision of returning Nigeria back to a democratic dispensation however, his successor Lt. General Olusegun M.A. Obasanjo had that a reality. The journey to achieving this vision started with establishing the Constitution Drafting Committee (CDC) in 1975, to be constituted by 50 members Committee which eventually became 49 members because Chief Obafemi Awolowo opted out as a result of poor communication. The CDC was chaired by Chief Rotimi Williams a constitutional law guru and then the Constituent Assembly which was established in 1976. The constituent assembly chaired by Justice Udo Udoma was made up of 230 members composed of 190 indirectly elected and 40 Federal Military Government appointed members. The main aim of the assembly was to examine and ratify the drafted constitution of the Constitution Drafting Constitution. The constituent assembly identified some minor concerns in the drafted constitution and with the amendment those aspects the constitution was promulgated and came into effect on October 1, 1979. The dictates of the constitution ushered in Alhaji Shehu Shagari as the first Executive President of Nigeria (Abia, 2006; Oromareghake, 2013). That election wasn't devoid of allegations of election rigging and other malpractices the result however, was challenge in court by the UPN as it complained bitterly over rigging of the 1979 election. By 31st of December 1983 another coup was successful bring the military once more into power which lasted to the 1993 aborted third Republic; the presidential election of June 12, 1993 which was believed to be the freest and fairest in Nigerian elections since independence however, got cancelled by the Army over the failure of The National Electoral Commission (NEC) to abide by the ruling of the court to postpone the election as a result of the allegations made by Association for Better Nigeria (ABN) over the corrupt nomination of Chief M.K.O. Abiola (Oromareghake, 2013).

The 1999 general election that ushered in the fourth republic and was the election that finally disengaged the military from politics as usual had allegation of severe rigged and electoral malpractices (Osaghae, 1999). The allegations against the transparency of the 1999 election includes electoral materials shortage at the polling centers, pre thumb printed ballot papers and thumb printing of ballot papers on the election day outside polling centers, the result of election not in accordance with the electorates that came out to vote in different centers, etc. The All Peoples Party (APP) and Action for Democracy (AD) alliance both went to court to challenge the result which declared Olusegun Obasanjo the presidential candidate of the Peoples Democracy Party (PDP) as the winner. However, their efforts was fruitless as they lost making Olusegun Obasanjo the first president of Nigeria in the Fourth Republic (Oromareghake, 2013). The subsequent elections of both 2003 and 2007 elections also had accounts of worse electoral malpractices allegations against the

both elections include snatching of ballot boxes from electoral officers and replacing them with already thumb printed ballot papers in favor of the ruling PDP was said to have taken place, double thumb printing so as to make ballot papers of the opposition parties void was alleged to have happened, some centers where election was never conducted because electoral officials failed to show up suddenly had results recorded for such centers. In some other centers through corroboration between electoral officials and party agents produced inflated and doctored results (Oromareghake, 2013). The two presidential elections of 2003 and 2007 had the incumbent President Olusegun Obasanjo return for his second term and President Musa Yar'Adua start his first time all from PDP. The 2011 election was a step forward towards better democracy as the election was the most transparent election since 1999, the election recorded a situation where vote were opening casted and recorded in the various polling booths. The 2011 election and its generally acceptable outcome was a spark that rekindled new hope for the future of democracy in Nigeria. It was more or less popular option that the 2011 election had moved Nigeria forward towards achieving electoral excellence, although there was much room for improvement which included refining the methods to make it more transparent. The transparency of the 2011 election made the number of litigations in the tribunals substantially reduced compared to other elections. However, the violence that followed gave the election a bitter taste as it was recorded that about 1000 lives were lost as a result of the violence (Osabiya, 2014).

The analysis of the election based on the two prominent parties and their presidential candidate incumbent President Goodluck Jonathan for PDP and Muhammadu Buhari for CPC shows Goodluck Jonathan winning, 59% and Muhammadu Buhari winning 32% (Animashaun, 2015). This was the win that made Goodluck Jonathan President for his first term after completing President Musa Yar'Adua tenure following his death in office. The 2015 election was a unique election and a testimonial of the growth of democracy in Nigeria, the election was special for several reason one of which was that the election was a build-up on the great stride achieved in 2011 and rematch between Goodluck Jonathan now the incumbent President of PDP and Muhammodu Buhari the Presidential candidate of APC (a merger of CPC and AD) (Uduak-Obong, and Forsberg, 2018). Another reason for the uniqueness of the election was that it showed the growth and characteristics of democracy where leaders are periodically required to test their popularity based on the support of the people, Goodluck Jonathan's administration had several challenges some of those challenges includes high level of corruption, high rate of unemployment, Boko Haram insurgency, etc. These challenges form the platform in which Buhari campaigned with his slogan "Change" (Olowojolu and Ake, 2015). Finally, the election also showed a significant nature to how politics is ran in Nigeria, which occurs following religious and ethnic affiliation. This was evident because the candidates were from two different parts of the country: Jonathan from the south and Buhari from the north. Jonathan got more support from states in the south-south, South-east, and parts of the South-west while Buhari got most of his support from the northern states and because APC was a merger between CPC and AD the remaining south west state where in support of Buhari This support for Buhari of Both the North and most of the South West made Buhari the winner of the 2015 presidential election (Uduak-Obong, and Forsberg, 2018).

Vote Buying in Nigeria's General Elections 1999-2018 at National Level

The return to civil rule in 1999 propelled great expectation of a speedy growth of democracy in the hearts of citizen; as the international community watched Nigeria closely to see progress especially on the aspect of free and fair elections and democratic leadership. (The Carter Center, 1999). However, that isn't the case as Nigerian government and leadership today still have a high degree of authoritarianism. Some may say perhaps it's because significant leaders of the fourth republic were former military men who only took off their uniforms but never became true civilians (AuwalAbubkar, MohdMahadee and Ku Hasnita, 2017). The major difference is that in the past the military men came into power without giving the people a choice or say in the matter about governing them but the present administration which is supposed to be a democratic administration have come into power having a resemblance of democracy and an appearance of free and fair election giving the people a choice of having the carrot or the stick. The carrot represented by vote buying or the stick which is electoral violence (Bratton, 2008). Vote buying in reality isn't a new phenomenon in Nigeria haven been in existence and practiced over the years in different elections since independence, although discreet (Sakariyau, Aliu and Adamu, 2015). The process of vote buying involved politicians and/or their agents appeared very close to the election date to give money, food stuff, opportunities and benefits in order to buy the votes of the electorates (Oguntola, 2018). The presence of vote buying runs through the entire process of Nigeria's election starting from the different party primaries, the party campaign activities, meeting with specific association and community development representative, up to the polling centers on election day (Owete, 2014; Olowojolu and Ake, 2015; Onuoha, and Ojo, 2018; Thomas-Odia, 2018).

1999 General Election and Vote Buying

The 1998-1999 general elections were key elements in the return of power from the military to civilian rule. The death of General Abacha brought General Abdulsalam Abubakar into power, who started almost immediately on the process of transition Nigeria into a democratic government. General Abdulsalam Abubakar regime promulgated the 1999 Constitution through Decree No.24 of May, 1999. The 1999 Constitution made provision for multi-party system which were allowed to contest in every election in Nigeria as long as they meet the requirement of the INEC (Odusote, 2014). General Abubakar admitted that the plan to return Nigeria back to a civilian rule by his predecessor was nothing but political fraud and as such, he disbanded and dissolved the five political parties that were registered under the Abacha regime as well as their result from the election pronounced null and void based on lack of credibility. He also dissolved the National Electoral Commission established by the Abacha's regime and established a new electoral body called the Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC), which was headed by a retired Supreme Court judge Justice Ephraim Akpata. General Abubakar also promised not to interfere with party formation and allow the commission freely conduct their duties so as to convince the world of the commission independence and that the country has truly on the path towards democracy. The body was therefore, was charged with the responsibility of registering political parties, registration of voters and the conduct of elections. The registering of political parties had over fifty political associations emerging within a month but only thirty of them collected registration forms and by the end for submission only twenty-four of these associations had returned their forms. Based

on the requirement by INEC only Nine out of the twenty-four political associations was able to meet the conditions for registration as a political party and therefore, given provisional registration as political parties. However, the local government election performance was a yardstick for confirmation of those political parties (The Carter center, 1999). The time table for the election was therefore, set for December 5, 1998 as the local elections; January 9, 1999 as the state and gubernatorial elections; the February 20, 1999 as the National Assembly elections; and February 27, 1999 as the presidential election. The local government council election was scheduled to Just as schedule to hold on December 5, 1998 and as part of the electoral guidelines stated, among others was that for any political party to be confirmed it had to score a minimum of five Percentage of the total number of votes in at least 24 states. The parties able to meet this requirement among other conditions and get confirmed were the (AD) Alliance for Democracy, (PDP) Peoples Democratic Party and (APP) All Peoples Party. These three political parties were given official complete registration by the (INEC) Independent National Electoral Commission (The Carter center, 1999; Odusote, 2014). The Local government result between the three fully registered parties showed that the People's Democratic Party had more chairmanship and councillorship seats and was more nationalist in nature having a wider geographical spread in terms of support than the remaining parties. This result also shows that the All Peoples Party (APP) was next in line in terms of chairmanship and councillorship seats but got most of its support from the northern party of the country (Odusote, 2014). The Alliance for Democracy (AD) came third getting most of its support from the southwestern yourba speaking part of the country. The Gubernatorial and Houses of Assembly elections held on January 9, 1999 nationwide did not show much difference from the local government elections in relationship to the results. The People's Democratic Party (PDP) the only party at the time with a National outlook started with a lead in the gubernatorial election sweeping twenty one states, the All Peoples Party (APP), followed suit by winning nine Governorship seats from the north and the Alliance for Democracy (AD) had its dominates in the southwestern been able to sweep six states. The State Houses of Assembly Election was not different as the same arrangement in victory was also represented by the political parties, PDP taking the lead, APP coming next and then AD. After the State House of Assembly Election was concluded came the National Assembly election which held on the 20th of February, 1999. The result of the election followed the existing pattern with People's Democratic Party (PDP) establishing its lead, by sweeping sixty-nine (69) Senatorial seats and a majority seats in the House of Representatives election; the All Peoples Party (APP) came next by winning twenty-one (21) Senatorial seats and in the House of Representatives a good number of seats. The Alliance for Democracy (AD) came third been able to sweep nineteen (19) Senatorial seats and a few seats in the House of Representatives (Odusote, 2014). The AD victory included unexpected win of two seats both in the Senatorial and House of Representatives from Enugu State which happened to be a strong base of the People's Democratic Party in the east. As the February 27, 1999 presidential election drew nearer, it was obvious that the PDP was at the verge of having an easy win for any presidential candidate presented by the party as a result of their dominance in all previous elections (The Carter center, 1999). The AD and APP had no choice than to form an alliance to checkmate the popularity of PDP if they were to have any chance in the presidential election. When AD and APP found out that General Olusegun Obasanjo (Rtd) from the south west, was selected as the presidential flag bearer

of PDP, Chief Olu Falae of the AD was selected as the joint presidential candidate of both (APP) (AD) to checkmate the move of the PDP. The choice of picking Olusegun Obasanjo from Ogun by the PDP and Chief Olu Falae from Ondo by the AD-APP coalition which recorded the first time in history were both presidential candidates will be coming from the same region could be linked to the June 12 1993 election which Chief M.K.O. Abiola, claimed to have won both was cancelled. The aftermath of the cancellation and the actions of M.K.O Abiola resulted in him been detained and eventually dying in detention. This gesture however, could be said to be an attempt to appease the South-west who at that time claimed to have been cheated by the North since the Head of State at that time was a Northerner (The Carter center, 1999).

On February 27, 1999 Presidential election

The total number of registered voters:	57,938,945
The total number votes turned in:	30,280,052
Percentage of Registered Voters:	52.3%
The Invalid/Blank votes:	431,611,
Total valid votes:	29,848,441.

Chief Falae immediately reacted to the result by calling the entire process nothing but a farce and announced his intention to challenge the result in court (Oduote, 2014). In a special report by the Carter center (1999) while observing the Nigeria's 1998-1999 election discovered that during the electoral campaign "big money politics" backed up financial patrons shaped the whole election starting from the party primaries, to the electoral campaign and the actual election. The delegates of the center heard and observed wide spread bribery of voters, electoral agents and officials transition, particularly in the latter voting rounds. One of the submissions of the report was that in an environment of severe poverty, the temptation is magnified for the electorates to sell their votes and the money bags are very willing to take that opportunity to buy.

2003 General Election and Vote Buying

The 2003 April general elections was a unique time in Nigerian democracy a country that has had to endure failed experience moving from one democratic government to another. Based on past events the political transition has mostly been from a civilian administration to a military regime rather than from one elected civilian administration to another. Thus, the April 2003 presidential election was to be both a change in history and first of its kind in over 20 years (Nwokeke and Jayum, 2011). In preparation for the election, an addition of twenty-seven political parties were registered by INEC in addition to the three already registered bringing the total number of political parties to thirty eligible to contest in the elections. Although, most of these parties were those that failed in meeting the requirement and as such denied registration by INEC before the 1999 elections (Ogbeidi, 2010). The pre-election activities got the outcry of the public especially on the subject donations by politicians and corporate entities, the Nigerian public described those donations as unconstitutional and fraudulent. Some of this donations includes N5.5 billion realized by President Olusegun Obasanjo and his Deputy, Alhaji Abubakar Atiku raised during their campaign, N2 billion raised by Chief James Ibori Governor of Delta State, N1.3 billion raised by Chief Bola Ahmed Tinubu Governor of Lagos State raised (Human Rights Watch, 2004). The schedule for the elections was slated as April 12, 2003 for The National Assembly election, April 19, 2003 for the Presidential and Gubernatorial election

and May 3, 2003 for the State House of Assembly. The Election on April 12, recorded an overwhelming number of voters in most polling centers, the process of the election moved smoothly in some polling center while in some it was practically nonexistence as a result of either vote-rigging or violent intimidation or a combination of the two and other polling centers had logistical problems that impeded the smooth running of the elections giving some parties agents and candidates opportunity to falsify results (Nwokeke and Jayum, 2011). On April 15, 2003 with a nemine contradicente nine registered parties agreed to reject the result of the National Assembly polls. These parties included (NDP), (UNPP), (APLP), (NNPP), (JP), (PAC), (APGA),(ARP) (CPN) (Ogbeidi, 2010).

By April 19 which was the Presidential and Gubernatorial election several incident of violence had occurred with identical presence of voters and problems encountered on April 12, even though for some locations election never occurred because of challenges of elections materials getting to the polling center or absence of the election officials however, when the results were officially announced such locations got result from these constituencies (Moshood, 2009).

The April 19, 2003 Presidential Election

The total number of registered voters:	60,823,022
The total number votes turned in:	42,018,735
Percentage of Registered Voters:	69.1%
The Invalid/Blank votes:	2,538,246,
Total valid votes:	39,480,489.

By May 3, the efforts of the violence has ran its course as trust and morale in the election had dropped as must opposition party members especially in south and the southeast started boycotting the election and advising voters not to wait their time casting useless votes. The public outcry against the election and its results included electoral rigging, electoral fraud, political intimidation and assassination etc. In the final report of the Transition Monitoring Group (TMG) on the elections, TMG described the 2003 election and the result announced as an election characterized by monumental fraud (Transition Monitoring Group, 2003; Moshood, 2009). The 2003 election saw the PDP returning President Olusegun Obasanjo as the president for the second term, increasing its seats at the national legislature and winning more gubernatorial positions at the state level. The result of the 2003 election was contested by several associations and groups such as the Patriots led by the late Chief F. R. A. Williams, the Civil Liberties Organization (CLO) and so on. These groups and associations called for the cancellation of the result and suggestion for an interim government while elections are reran and a national conference so as to tackle the bewildering challenging's of the Nigeria State and Democracy (Ogbeidi, 2010). The presidential candidate of the All Nigeria People's Party and former military Head of state General Mohammed Buhari (Rtd.) in protest to the result threatened to make the country ungovernable if the results of the general elections of April and May 2003 were not cancelled and another election conducted. Alhaji Umaru Sada Ndayako leading a group of Northern leaders presented President Olusegun Obasanjo with a list of conditions to prevent a clear state of emergency in the country as a result of the rejection of the April election by over sixteen opposition parties led by the ANPP (Ogbeidi, 2010).

The European Union Election Observer Mission (EUEOM) observing the 2003 election discovered new information confirming the irregularities within the election and

challenged result and conduct of the election (European Commission, 2003). In a report by the mission they noted that the elections in Kaduna, Rivers, Cross River, Edo, Delta, Imo and Enugu States were marred by serious irregularities. The Head of the observer team, Mr. Max Van dem Berg reported cases about arrest of opposition candidates shortly before the May 3 elections with an example of Edo State (European Commission, 2003; Iyayi, 2005). The 2003 election had little evidence of vote buying which occurred in the electoral campaign in form of distribution of commodity and food stuff. However, there was high rate of electoral violence, intimidation, electoral fraud and assassination.

2007 General Election and Vote Buying

The 2007 election was hoped as an election to consolidate the existence of democracy in Nigeria. In order to tackle the flaws of 2003 election and to make 2007 election free and fair, the Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC) called meetings in December 2003 and February 2004 consisting of government agencies, civil society organization, political parties and the electoral commission to figure out a way forward in achieving their goal. The result of the meeting identified four critical obstacles that needed solution on or before 2005 so as to make the 2007 election free and fair. (Ibrahim, 2007; Nwokeke and Jayum, 2011). These obstacles included

Real autonomy of INEC: Participants in the meeting believed that only when INEC was truly autonomous was there going to be a resemblance of free and fair election. The consensus of participants of the meeting that the power in which the president had over key officers of INEC such as the chairman, national commissioners, and resident state electoral officers as a result of been appointed by the president needed to be taken away. In addition, participants of the meeting believed that it was necessary for provision to be made to prevent the executive from starving Independent National Electoral Commission from getting the necessary funds to able it perform. Therefore, it was proposed that INEC financing should come directly from the consolidated revenue fund.

The Revision of the Electoral Bill: participants in the meeting also believed that some aspect of the Electoral Act of 2002 which had been identified and improvement should be passed into law. One significant aspect was the improvement which imposed a limit on campaign expenditure by political parties. This law was finally enacted in June 2006.

The completion and updating of voter registration used for the 2003 elections: it was observed that the voters registration used for the 2003 was incomplete and as such many eligible voters' names were not on the voters list. It was therefore; decided that INEC should put mechanism in place for continuous registration according to the provisions of the Electoral Act which will aid the registration of individuals that were omitted in the previous registration and those that have come of age since 2003.

The distributing new voter identity cards expected to be use in the election: it was observed that the process of distributing the permanent voter's card which was to have embossed photographs and biometric features that commenced about three years ago was yet to reach the people as less than 40% of the electorate had received theirs (Ibrahim, 2007).

As the 2007 election draw nearer it was obvious that INEC was not taking heed to implementing the necessary requirement in order to achieve free and fair elections in 2007. This was obvious because as at September 2006 which was few months to the elections, the process of voter registration had not yet kick started except for the trial run that was done in the Federal Capital Territory (Nwokeke and Jayum, 2011). This raised some

concern as it looked like INEC was banking on a hurried and unorganized method towards the registering of voters which further aroused suspicion about the possibility of individual's planning on preventing the 2007 election from holding or if held be a failed one at best. This fear and suspicion was further strengthened by the actions of the chairman of INEC Maurice Iwu during his first year in office, as Iwu held the electoral preparation process hostage based on the argument that for the 2007 Election to hold the Independent National Electoral Commission had to use electronic voting machines. Observers and the citizen were flummoxed because regardless of the advantages the voting machines brought if it was to be use, it was not enough reason to impeded the election because the time needed for the legal procedures, constitutional procedures and a test run for a voting machine that meet Nigeria needs was not available and as INEC was focusing on achieving voting machines at all cost it was neglecting its basic duties in preparations of the elections, knowing that a timeline for all the various event and element had to be set. Critiques and the opposition parties therefore, concluded that the reason that INEC is handling the matters of the election in a languorous manner had to be related to the ambitious third-term agenda of President Olusegun Obasanjo (Ibrahim, 2007).

On the political terrain, there was heightened political tension on one hand President Obasanjo and his vice Atiku were at odds as they accused each other of corruption while on the other hand the southern politicians were agitating for more tenures and northern politicians insist that power must move back to their North. These issues were coinciding with the continuous agitation by the militants of the Niger Delta over the control some oil wells located in their states (Nwokeke and Jayum, 2011). The 2007 election was scheduled to hold on April 14, 2007 for the gubernatorial election and state house of assembly election and April 21, 2007 for Presidential and National Assembly election

Many political parties got registered with various presidential aspirants perpetrating all forms of maneuvers in the struggle to dethrone the leadership of Peoples Democratic Party (PDP). Party primaries to provide candidates for the different positions occurred in late 2006; the internal debate concerning geographic rotation of power to the different arm of government rocked a lot of parties especially the PDP. After the failure of President Obasanjo third term agenda, on December 17, 2006, the PDP conducted voting to select its presidential candidate, although the exercise could not be called voting as several of the leading candidates were forced to stand down because of intimidation, threat and money politics so as to favor President Obasanjo's hand-picked successor the then-Governor Umaru Yar'Adua. This occurrence in the PDP convention resulted in a lot of politicians decamped to some other political parties. The primaries for the selection of the presidential candidate for other parties included the announcement of consensus candidates in some and the endorsement of allied parties' presidential candidates in others (Nwokeke and Jayum, 2011).

April 14, 2007 the day for the gubernatorial and House of Assembly elections it was observed that voting started late in several polling centers as a result of problems with the voter registry, shortage of electoral materials and the omission of candidates' names and/or photographs on the ballot papers. In some states, poll workers recruited failed to show up hence others were recruited on the post with little or no training. The election turnout was moderate in some location and poor in others however, there was incidences of sporadic outbreaks of violence, electoral malpractice including vote buying, electoral rigging and ballot snatching in several centers such as Ekiti State, Ogun State, Rivers State, Delta State

to mention a few. The announcement of the result by INEC in favor of PDP in some state that was at odds with the expectation of the electorate resulted in outbreak of violence, killings and destruction of properties (Ibrahim, 2007).

On April 21, 2007 the day for the Presidential and National Assembly election due to administrative problems it was announced that the election should commence at 10am Nationwide however, it was noticed that the polls opened after 10:00 a.m. in almost every part of the country, and in some places did not open at all. This situation raised new wave of aggression and violence during the election (Ibrahim, 2007).

The April 21, 2007 Presidential Election

The total number of registered voters:	61,567,036
The total number votes turned in:	35,708,880
Percentage of Registered Voters:	58%
Total valid votes:	35,397,517.

Based on the result the 2007 election Umaru Musa Yar'Adua was declared the winner and the next President of Nigeria. The presidential and gubernatorial election raised a lot of dispute as candidates contested the result of the election in the tribunals and the court. The election was classified by observers as the election with the most electoral malpractice in Nigeria history (Nwokeke and Jayum, 2011). In spite of the promise of free and fair election by INEC chairman, the local and international monitoring team categorized the election as one of the worse election conducted anywhere in the world. The April 2007 general elections set a new benchmark as it relates to electoral malpractice, far higher than that of 2003 and 2004 elections in the level of vote buying, electoral violence, rigging, electoral fraud, and complicity by the various organs of the state in the electoral farce that occurred. The record of electoral violence shows that over 200 individuals lost their lives nationwide during the 2007 election (Ibrahim, 2007; Nwokeke and Jayum, 2011)

2011 General Election and Vote Buying

The road to the 2011 election could be traced to the dissatisfaction and condemnation of the 2007 general elections which was reflected by the amount of cases that was brought before the courts and the election tribunals as well as the amount of election results that had to be nullified (INEC 2007, Ugochukwu 2009). This therefore, necessitated for better plans and amendment to be put in place in order to achieve free and fair election 2011. Two major remedial measures taken by both the government and the Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC) to prevent the repeat failure of the 2007 general elections in 2011 was one the appointed Professor Attahiru Jega, a respected academic and activist as the chairman of INEC by President Goodluck Jonathan and two the revision of the 1999 Constitution and Electoral Act concerning the legal framework of elections in Nigeria. The confidence of the public in INEC was largely boosted at the appointment of Professor Jega as the INEC Chairman. The federal government promised to release funds adequately and in a timely fashion to aid the Commission to operate effectively to that end, 87 billion naira was released to INEC to aid its preparation for the 2011 elections (Gberie 2011). In a bid to achieve the success of the 2011 election INEC took some radical decisions which included creating a new voters register because the old one was alleged faulty which needed to be completed within four months. INEC also went decided to recruit National Youth Service Corps (NYSC) member and federal universities staff as ad hoc staff to register electorates and for the Election Day. This decision was taken

to strengthen its election personnel. The 2011 election was initially supposed to be in January 2011 however, it was rescheduled to April 2nd, 9th and 16th but as a result of logistical problem and the desire for fair election it was further postponed to 9th for the National Assembly elections, 16th for the Presidential election and 26th for the Gubernatorial and State house of Assembly election.

The April 9 elections for the National Assembly had a lot of police security presence at polling stations; this was as a result of a bomb that went off in western region of Nigeria on April 8. The polling centers in almost all the locations opened by 8 am and just a little later with the voting exercise going smoothly. The accreditation of voters started in earnest although there was a misunderstanding in most polls causing the turnout of voters were rather lower because the electorates assumed that the previous accreditation process done a week before will still be valid resulting to a large amount of electorate not able to vote in the election (Nwokeke and Jayum, 2011). Some other challenges were noticed in the April 9th election such as lack of privacy for the electorate, underage voters attempting to cast their votes. Regardless of the short coming of the process the election went smoothly and relatively fair (Gberie 2011).

The April 16 election had a lot of improvement in relations to the April 9 election. Almost all polling centers opened on time or with little or no delays and voter turnout was far higher than that of the previous election. The election had voters from young to old and women to men, the disabled, elderly and even pregnant women coming to vote (Gberie 2011). The atmosphere in most polling centers was calm and many people stayed back even after the polls had closed to observe the vote tabulation. However, some shortfalls were still associated with the election such as late arrival of INEC officials and election materials in some locations, inability to accreditation voters in some location, ballot-box stuffing, suspicious actions during vote tabulation, and so on. Nevertheless, the election in total had a good resemblance of been free and fair with little or no record of violence during the election.

The April 16, 2011 Presidential Election

The total number of registered voters:	73,528,040
The total number votes turned in:	39,469,484
Percentage of Registered Voters:	53.7%
Total Invalid/Blank Votes:	1,259,506
Total valid votes:	38,209,978

The announcement of Goodluck Jonathan as the winner and President of Nigeria defeating Muhammadu Buhari, with a 27 Percentage margin, resulted in an outbreak violence in places like Kano, Kaduna, and 10 other northern states between supporters of the Goodluck Jonathan and Muhammadu Buhari and between Christians and Muslims. The outbreak of violence claimed more than 800 killed with thousands injured and over 65,000 displaced, as well as damage and destruction to homes and property. The post-election violence tainted the election of April 16 2011 as one of the worst episodes of violence in Nigeria's recent democratic history (Nwokeke and Jayum, 2011). The April 2011 election was classified as the most free and fair election since the return of Democracy in 1999 however, the sudden outbreak of violence after the presidential election also tainted the victory and efforts put by both the government and the Independent National Electoral Commission (Bamgbose, 2012). From the different records gotten about the 2011 there

was little evidence of vote buying on the days of election but during the electoral campaign of different parties and during the party primaries among the delegates

2015 General Election and Vote Buying

The road to the 2015 general elections was a build on the success of the 2011 election. The 2011 election was a unique election first because in it was the first time in which Dr. Goodluck Jonathan was standing on his own for election as the main candidate since his political career commenced and winning to be the first individual from the Niger Delta region that will emerge as the executive president of Nigeria and secondly because it was the election with the worse account of post electoral violence (Olowojolu and Ake, 2015). The outburst of violence in 2011 created fear and anxiety both in the minds of local and international bodies about the possibility of Nigeria bursting in flames after the upcoming 2015 election (Orji and Uzodi, 2012). Prof. Bolaji Akinyemi a former Minister of Foreign Affairs appealed to both candidate which were President Goodluck Jonathan and General Muhammadu Buhari to sign a Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) the need for that sign memorandum of understanding was to help prevent the possibility of an outbreak of violence as a result of a loss from one of the candidate. The agreement stated that both individuals should speak to their supporters that if Jonathan the presidential candidate for the the Peoples' Democratic Party (PDP) should loss the Niger Delta militants could decide to resort to violence and if Buhari the presidential candidate of All Progressives Congress (APC) should loses the election, there will be another outburst of violence in the north hence both candidates to undertake a civil and peaceful campaign, devoid of threats (The Cable, 2014). The timetable for the presidential election was stipulated for February 14, 2015 while the governorship and state legislative elections was to hold on February 21, 2015. However, it was later postponed to March 28 2015 and April 11, 2015 respectively as a result of security and administrative reasons. The 2011 Amended Electoral Act, which INEC relied upon in issuing the time-table, stipulates that campaigns into elective offices must begin 90 days to Election Day and end 24 hours before the election; meaning that the earliest time for campaigning to commence was on November 15, 2014 and end on February 12, 2015, which is 24 hours before the end of the 90 days stipulated in the Act (Daniel and Agbakwuru, 2014). The People's Democratic Party (PDP) had their two-day National Convention on the 10th and 11th of December, 2014 at Eagles Square, Abuja. Top on the agenda of the convention was the ratification of President Goodluck Jonathan as the party's presidential candidate in the February 14th presidential election and that of Adamu Mu'azu and Wale Oladipo as the party's national chairman and national secretary, respectively. Over 3,050 delegates from the 36 states and the Federal Capital Territory were in attendance of the convention. The incumbent president was the sole presidential candidate for the PDP after the two opposition candidate Jelil Tafawa Balewa, son of Nigeria's former Prime Minister, and Akasoba Duke-Abiola, widow of the late Moshood Abiola withdraw from the contest (Owete, 2014).

The APC also held their primaries on the 10th of December, 2014 at Teslim Balogun Stadium in Lagos to pick the party's flag-bearer for the February 14 presidential election. The attendance of delegates at the stadium was estimated at about 8,000. The APC presidential aspirants included Atiku Abubakar the former Vice President of Nigeria under President Olusegun Obasanjo; Muhammadu Buhari former Military Head of State; Rabi'u Kwankwaso Governor of Kano State; Rochas Okorochoa Governor of Imo State and the

founder of Leadership newspapers and finally Sam Nda-Isaiah (Owete, 2014). The five aspirants were made to sign an undertaking that they will not fight the outcome of the primary as well as that the losers will not only strongly support the winner and the party but that they will not defect to another party. The results of the primaries were as follows: Muhammadu Buhari: 3,430 votes, Dr Rabi'u Kwankwanso: 974, Atiku Abubakar: 954, Owelle Rochas Okorocha: 624, Sam Nda-Isaiah: 10 votes and 16 voided votes were recorded (Owete, 2014). The behavior of vote buying within the APC primaries was evident between Muhammadu Buhari and Atiku Abubakar. It was reported that almost all the 8,000 delegates who participated allegedly made US\$5,000 from both of the candidates. The Atiku Abubakar group was said to have given all the delegates US\$2,000 each and the Buhari group was said to have given all the delegates US\$3,000 each. Given that the estimated number of delegates who were reported to have attended the primaries was 8,000, the estimated amount spent by both parties was US\$16 million and US\$24 million respectively on vote buying at the primary stage (Onuoha, and Ojo, 2018). Buhari with this victory moved on to be the presidential candidate for the APC in the 2015 general election.

The Election Campaigns for the 2015 according to the provision of the electoral act started on the 15th of November 2014 with a lot of large-scale rallies in diverse locations in the different states in Nigeria. There were also a lot of campaigns using the media, especially social media. The 2015 election campaigns as usual did not anchor on high-minded political discussion of policy proposals but low politics of promises and criticism of the opposition. The two main parties PDP and APC adopted mainly negative campaign tactics involving attack of opponent candidates and prominent party members. The PDP's main line of attack on Buhari was on his credentials and ability to contest for the presidency. The party tried to show a demarcation between the former military leader General Buhari and President Jonathan's in experience, education achievement (Orji, 2015). There was a fight for popularity and the minds of the electorate on the internet using young individuals especially with social media to attack rivals online by deliberately peddling misinformation and manipulating the electoral climate (Nwaubani 2014). The APC however, were clearly more coordinated, catchy and consistent in their campaign as the party anchored its campaign on the message of CHANGE which was a direct challenge to PDP's hegemony in Nigeria politics which they have had for nearly two decades long. The change message highlighted the shortcomings of the PDP-led government especially in the aspects of security and the fight against corruption, the change message carried by the youth, the middle and lower classes echoed all through society as APC described corruption as the greatest challenge impeding the government's ability to produce results which happened to be a fundamental nature of PDP. The APC have established that foundation attacked the credibility of PDP as a party and the effectiveness of its government. The APC accused the PDP of only attending to the needs of the elite but presented the APC to be a party that cared for the needs of the masses and was ready to be accountable and responsible to their needs in education, employment, security, and so (Orji, 2015).

The March 28 presidential election was quite successful however, the process of voting process and the environment in Nigeria is faced with diverse challenges these challenges include inadequate infrastructure, grave insecurity, unenlightened voters and power deadly contest for political power, these challenges inevitably affect the success and administration hereby causing hitches and problems during the election in the country. Some of these hitches include problematic Smart Card Readers and issues with the arrival

of the election materials. The Independent Electoral Commission introduced a two-step voter-accreditation process which was to be used for the 2015 general election; these included the card-reading machines and the fingerprint authentication. The first was to ensure that the voter card was issued by INEC and the second step was to verify that the cardholder was truly the owner of the voter cards through their fingerprints (Orji, 2015).

The 2015 Presidential Election

The total number of registered voters:	67,422,005
The total number votes turned in:	30,276,602
Total Invalid/Blank Votes:	844,519
Total valid votes:	29,432,083

On 11 April, the day of the gubernatorial and House of Assembly elections, election management had gotten a lot of improvement, especially in terms of arrival of INEC official, opening of polling centers and functionality of the card readers. It was observed that nearly 90 per cent of the polling units opened on time and that accreditation process went smoothly with the card readers functioning with minimal hitches (Vanguard, 2015). However, the improvement gained was further marred by reports of fraudulent incidents such as intimidation of poll officials, interference with the result-collation process and snatching of ballot boxes. The cause of violence further escalated during the gubernatorial and House of Assembly elections reports of at least 30 people killed in 28 incidents. This number of killing surpassed that of the Presidential and National Assembly elections which was reported at 19 deaths in 20 violent incidents (Orji, 2015). The results announced by the INEC showed that APC greatly increased the number of gubernatorial positions, and won a majority of the seats in state and federal legislatures. The analyses of the election show PDP got massive support of votes from the South-South and South East while the APC swept the North West and North East. The 2015 elections recorded the long awaited victory of Muhammadu Buhari after standing for election in four successive times as well as a great victory for the APC (Vanguard, 2015). The 2015 election was indeed a win for democracy in Nigeria for the first time an incumbent president was defeated at the poll and transition without an outbreak of violence. However, the election was greatly affected by vote buying like some elections in Nigeria. In a survey carried out by Matenga, (2016) for his article titled, "Cash for Votes: Political legitimacy in Nigeria", Nearly 80 per cent of the respondent acknowledge that voters at one time or the other got bribed during elections and only five to six cent of the voters believe that bribing for vote doesn't happen. In a longitudinal survey from 2007-2017, recorded that in 2007 seven out of ten vote strongly agreed that vote-buying was an recurrent event by 2016 almost a decade later, the number increase to nine out of ten respondent acknowledged witnessing a vote transaction request either from them personally or seeing others been persuaded (cited in Ojo, 2018). This however, can said to be a chronic problem for Nigeria's electoral process and democracy. Vote-buying in Nigeria most recent election conducted has escalated to the point that vote buying patrons go as far as giving money to election officials, security agencies, election observers and even the media to ensure success of their enterprise. Eye witness encounters from journalist and the observers reveal that at some polling centers, party officials enticed voters with cash ranging from N4, 000 to N10, 000 in order to get them to vote for a particular candidate however, they were to come with prove of voting for the agreed candidate to redeem their cash. (Thomas-Odia, 2018)

This alarming phenomenon has made elections become an auction trade where victory goes to the highest bidder. Therefore, heightening the rate of political corruption because political office becomes a business investment and profit is the sole purpose of every business endeavor which they get back bountiful through corrupt avenues (Oguntola, 2018).

Vote buying as a crime in Nigeria

According to the Electoral Act, 2010, Article 130,

“A person who – (a) corruptly by himself or by any other person at any time after the date of an election has been announced, directly or indirectly gives or provides or pays money to or for any person for the purpose of corruptly influencing that person or any other person to vote or refrain from voting at such election, or on account of such person or any other person having voted or refrained from voting at such election; or (b) being a voter, corruptly accepts or takes money or any other inducement during any of the period stated in paragraph (a) of this section, commits an offence and is liable on conviction to a fine of N100,000 or 12 months imprisonment or both.” (Electoral Act, 2010:60 amended)

This explains that vote buying is a crime and every criminal action should not be allowed. The National Electoral Commissioner in charge of South-West, Mr. Adedeji Soyebi explained that although vote buying falls under electoral offence it should be further emphasized and highlighted as a capital criminal offence in order to curb the practice. He further elucidated that vote buying was not just an offence against democracy but an offences against humanity because it literally means buying the conscience of the electorate (Oyenigbehin, 2018).

Theoretical Framework: Clientelism

Clientelism theory explains the system of patron-broker-client ties and networks that operates within the politics and government of different societies (Piattoni, 2001). The theory has its tentacles in Economics and Political Science explains the transactions between politicians and citizens whereby material favors are offered in return for political support at the polls (Eisenstadt and Lemarchand, 1981). Clientelism has its origin traced to ancient Rome where the relationships between the patron (patronus) and client (cliens) were seen as crucial in understanding the political process. This kind of clientelism also known as old clientelism or notable clientelism has been likened to feudalism by Lemarchand and Legg although modern French historians such as Mousnier and Major disagree explaining that clientelism patron-client bond only had a feudal legacy, because there was no oath of homage and no exchange of fiefs in the patron-client bond; choice of master was free; and services were not defined (Eisenstadt and Lemarchand, 1981; Piattoni, 2001). Development of the theory evolved through the English industrialization and French revolution where the patron-client relationship was seen as a personal direct exchange in which on one hand the patron uses resources in which he owns or controls for the behalf of his clients (Parisi and Pasquino 1979). This involved assisting, defending and protecting

his clients, by giving them material benefits and an opportunity for career advancement while the clientage on the other hand, was loyal giving the services that is owed to the patron in return for his protection and advancement (Katz 1986). A patron-broker-client relationship is a three-party transaction the patron who is the master that requires loyalty, the broker who acts as a middleman or connector that arranges the exchange of resources between two parties separated by situations such as geo-graphic or personal distance such as differences in rank or office and the client who needs protection or favor (Piattoni, 2001). The theory of clientelism was further expanded by social scientists like Eisenstadt and Roniger, Lande, Brown and Schmidt the different social scientist identified that the changing structures of the state and society also affect the process of clientelism. Eisenstadt and Roniger explained that different systems affect the process of clientelism and it is largely dependent of social setting. Lande explains that variation in patron-client relationships are the result of variations in the substructure to which they are attached. Brown has observed that vertical clientelist power relations have changed over time and in respect to the structure of the state. Schmidt further elucidate that changes in clientage is usually as a result of changes in the larger society (Tarrow, 1967; Weingrod, 1968; Eisenstadt and Lemarchand, 1981).

Notables clientelism or Old clientelism existed to see modern democratic era in different parts of the world, in this contexts patrons, or their agents, stand for election and their clients vote for them, usually as a result of obligation, loyalty or because of what they tend to gain in good or services either already rendered or promised. However as a result of change in time and society this form of clientelism has evolved to the new clientelism which was first noticed in studies on postwar Italy (Tarrow, 1967; Weingrod, 1968; Caciagli and Belloni, 1981). These changes in society involved the replacement of landlords with organized political parties with structured party system as patrons; the clients on the other hand became electorates who demanded better and more immediate material benefits in exchange for their votes. In the change that brought about new clientelism, patrons had to 'buy' votes by distributing concrete excludable benefits and favours to individual voters or groups of voters (Parisi and Pasquino 1979; Katz 1986). New clientelism as an evolution of the old still shared some fundamental features such as the relationship between the patron and client remained mutually beneficial and the benefits provided to clients was still privately own or public materials controlled by the patron, which the patron rewarded the client from. Some differences also exist such as: the relationship in old clientelism was less hierarchical, while in new clientelism more democratic, the client were less bound to the patron and therefore, can use their vote in exchange for their maximum satisfaction (Parisi and Pasquino 1979; Eisenstadt and Lemarchand, 1981; Katz 1986).

The economic aspect of clientelism can be seen as a market exchange which is influenced by the forces of demand and supply. Based on this context the patron and the client interact with the sole purpose of maximizing utility as they jettison every sense of obligation towards each other. Economic aspect of clientelism does not focus on permanent relationship and the benefit provided by the patron to the client but is determined by the value provided by the client. The determinate of the benefit provided by the patron include how much other patrons intend to pay the client for their votes and the availability or scarcity of good that is individuals ready to sell their votes (Gellner, and Waterbury, 1977).

Application of the Theory

Clientelism is germane in understanding how vote buying and elections in Nigeria. According to the theory Nigeria as any society within the modern day democracy is made up by patrons representing organized political parties with structures who are controlled by the political elite, these patrons during elections need the votes of the electorate which represent the client however, sometimes the patron are too far to reach the clients which therefore, requires an intermediary representing the brokers who come to speak or convince the clients to vote for the patrons. The theory also helps us to understand that the clients in the new clientalism does not need to be loyal to the party they are been influenced to vote for as long as the benefit expected from the patron or party is met, if such benefit dries up they can move over to another patron. The theory new clientelism helps us to understand that the good provided to the client does not necessary need to be private good only but public good like government position, favourable government policy and so on controlled by the patron. It also helps us to understand that the support of the clients does not always restricted in voting for the party alone but also campaigning for the party to their friends, family and co-workers. The theory also helps us to understand why the poor and the illiterate are the easiest of the client to be targeted. This is because the flow of patron client relationship is from those that have to those that have not.

Research Methodology

Research Design

Research design is to be the structure of every research. Zikmund (1988) defined research design as the master plan which contains the methods and procedure to be used in collecting and analyzing information necessary for the research. Manheim (1977) explains that research design does not only anticipate or recommend the different decisions necessary for collecting, processing and analyzing of data but also gives a logical basis for these decisions. The research design employed in this research is the descriptive survey (the single cross section) which involves observing and describing the behavior or getting a precise measurement of a subject without influencing it (Loeb et al., 2017). The single cross section requires the collection of information from a selected sample at a single point in time and used to represent or draw inference about the entire population, this can be used to form causal explanation of a particular phenomenon (Silva, 2017). In this context the design vividly shows current conditions that exist between specific events i.e. vote buying and democratic election. This design enables the research to explain, record, analyze and interpret the conditions that exists in relations to the subject matter.

The population in this research comprising of public and civil service workers; teachers, university students, staff of universities and private business owner. These of individuals can be seen below

Table 3.1: Population of Individuals from 18-Above in Ekiti State

S/N	AGE RANGE	POPULATION (Based on the 2006 Census)
1	18-29 years	464,898
2	30-39 years	277,497
3	40-49 years	209,275
4	50-59 years	126,226
5	60-69 years	77,255

6	70-79 years	35,459
7	80-above years	24,701
		1,215,311

(City Population, 2017).

These set of individual's range 18-69 which largely represent the highest Percentage of voters in the state. The justification for limiting the research to 69 age is because records shows that the population of people above 69 in Ekiti state are very small as well as scarcely available to respond to questionnaires and interviews (Adetoye, and Omilusi, 2016; City Population, 2017). The population was derived from five local government areas of Ekiti state namely Oye (North) with a population of 137,796, Ado Ekiti (Center) with a population of 313,690, Ekiti West (West) with a population of 179,600, Ekiti East (East) with a population of 138,340 and Ikere (South) with a population of 148,558. The justification for picking these five local government areas is that these areas gives good representation of Ekiti State, consist of all the individuals needed for the research population as well as covering at the five cardinal points of Ekiti State. That is North Center, West, East and South.

The sample size for this research was determined using Gill et al. (2010)

Table 3.2: Sample Size Determiner

Variance of the Population P=80%			
Confidence Level =95%, Margin of Error			
Population Size	5	3	1
50	45	48	50
75	63	71	75
100	80	92	99
150	109	132	148
200	132	169	196
250	152	203	244
300	169	235	291
400	197	292	385
500	218	341	476
600	235	385	565
700	249	423	653
800	260	458	739
1000	278	517	906
1500	306	624	1298
2000	323	697	1656
3000	341	788	2287
5000	357	880	3289
10000	370	965	4900
25000	378	1023	6939
50000	381	1045	8057
100000	383	1056	8762
250000	384	1063	9249
500000	384	1065	9423
1000000	384	1066	9513
2000000	385	1067	9558

(Gill et al. 2010; cited in Taherdoost, 2017: 238)

Gill et al. (2010) who explained that an population size of 1,000,000-2,000,000 with a 5% margin of error a minimum of 385 should be used as the sample size (cited in Taherdoost, 2017). However, because of the possibility of unreturned materials with an 80% estimated response rate, the sample size calculator advocated that at least 410 respondents should be targeted (check market, 2019). Therefore the sample size for the research is 410

The sampling technique employed was the purposive sampling method. Purposive sample, also known as judgmental sample, is a nonprobability sampling method, were the researcher (Palys, 2008). Using this sampling method allows the research target individuals among the population whose responses will be critical to the subject matter.

This research makes use of both Primary and secondary source of data. The primary sources of data include structured oral interviews and questionnaires. Oral data involves the technique of one-on-one interview with persons considered relevant to the elections including INEC officials that conducted the election, NYSC corps members used as ad hoc staff, party officials that participated in the election. The questionnaires on the other hand, involved a well-structured closed ended line of questions targeted at gathering relevant data as related to the election. Secondary sources of data for this research include books, journals, newspapers, unpublished thesis and the internet.

The five point Likert Scale questionnaire was adapted as the main instrument for data collection. The instrument was considered suitable for this research because previous users have made use of the type of questionnaire and found it suitable for carrying out their research (Nemoto and Beglar, 2014). The Five Point Likert Scale questionnaire ranging from Strongly Agree to Strong Disagree allows the respondent express their views in relations to the question asked. Structured oral interviews allows the researcher to ask question relevant to the research and prevents the interviewer target issues that are pertinent to the research and not deviate off the subject matter.

The Research used content validity to ensure the validity of the instrument. A content validity ensures that the research instrument accurately measures all aspects of what it was designed to measure (Kimberlin and Winterstein, 2008). This was done by subjecting it to the research supervisor who is grounded on the subject matter and other expertise in the field. A pilot test was also carried out to ensure that the questionnaire was clear to the respondent and that they understood the question asked. Twenty copies of the questionnaires were administered in Ado Ekiti to civil servants and private business owners which were not marked for the research but part of the population. The Cronbach's alpha was further used to ascertain the internal consistency of the instrument, taking into consideration the thumb rule of Crobach's alpha which states that 0.7 and above is good, 0.8 and above is better and 0.9 and above is best although, there is no universal minimally acceptable reliability value (Bonett and Wright, 2014). The reason for adopting the internal consistency reliability of the instrument was to enable the researcher know whether the item on the instrument were consistent with one another, in that they represent one dimension or area of interest (Bonett and Wright, 2014).

Table 3:3 Case Processing Summary of Pilot Research

		N	%
Cases	Valid	20	100%
	Excludeda	0	.0
	Total	20	100%

This shows that Twenty (20) copies of questionnaire were administered to respondents in Ado-Ekiti and used for the pilot research.

Table 3:4 Reliability Statistics of Vote Buying and Democratic Election Questionnaire

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	No of Items
.892	.888	20

Table 3:4 reveals that there is a high level of reliability, using the cronbach' alpha with a result of 0.89 which is above 0.7 that is assumed as the minimum required level of reliability. This indicates that the items of the instrument were consistent with one another and is reliable (Bonett and Wright, 2014).

Table 3:5 Item-Total Statistics

Variables	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Party agents give money to the electorates to buy their votes around the polling centres	32.90	81.042	.133	.894
Candidates use campaign materials such as food stuff, clothing materials and money as instrument for vote buying	32.80	71.958	.810	.879
Party agents gave youths groups and association money to influence their voting choice	32.10	81.147	.013	.898
Party agents required evidence of voting before payment were released	31.85	74.871	.502	.887
Traditional rulers were given money and food stuffs to influence their subject to vote for a particular party and candidate	32.00	74.737	.398	.891
Vote buying results in distrust for candidates	32.25	69.250	.701	.880
Some voters believe their votes did not count	32.05	69.103	.639	.883
Vote buying negates the principle of fairness	32.45	70.787	.802	.878
Vote buying promotes corruption	32.30	71.800	.666	.882
Some eligible candidates refused to participate in the election due to vote buying	31.80	72.905	.533	.886
High rate of poverty amongst the electorate encouraged vote buying	32.85	79.397	.390	.891
Lack of voters' education encouraged vote buying	32.80	71.958	.810	.879
Security agents turned blind eye to vote buying	32.35	74.450	.572	.885
The believe that candidates that buy votes are generous encouraged vote buying	31.80	73.747	.473	.888
Lack of trust in the promises of candidates encouraged vote buying	31.75	69.145	.647	.882
Vote buying should be added to the criminal code and long term sentence given to offenders	32.15	73.187	.499	.887
Voter education should be conducted before future elections	32.40	72.568	.474	.889
Ekiti State Government should embark on grass root poverty alleviation scheme to	31.95	73.629	.540	.886

prevent candidates from taking advantage of the poor electorates				
EFCC and ICPC should investigate party finances to curb vote buying	32.05	79.418	.132	.897
Candidates should be disqualified if found guilty of vote buying	32.45	76.682	.431	.889

The table above shows that all the variables indicated on the scale mean if item is deleted is above 31 which is statistical higher than valid level of 25. The total correlation of all the items is positive and the Cronbach's Alpha if any item is deleted is over 0.87. This means that the items in the research have over 87% level of reliability.

Method of Data Analysis

The research techniques used to analyze data is T-test (one single sample test). T-test is probability distribution similar to the Normal distribution. It is commonly used to test hypotheses involving numerical data. It is often used when the research intends to summarise the group with one statistic and when the underlying population data is normally distributed. In which the best summary statistic is the mean (Ugoni, and Walker, 1995). The justification for using this method of data analysis is that it aids the researcher to effectively compare statistical data derived from vote buying and that of the expectation of democratic election. The research adhered to a number of ethical consideration principles while the research was carried out for both the questionnaire administration and interview schedules. On meeting with the prospective participants (respondents) the researcher was formally introduced and then went ahead to explain what the research entailed and what role they were expected to play. Furthermore, the different respondents were informed that the information provided will be utilized strictly for research purposes and their information will be kept confidential. A contact number was provided on the cover letter attached to the questionnaire that was distributed to the respondent in their office, school and business location. The researcher allowed the respondent to fill the questionnaire at their convenience and return to the researcher at a later date. The researcher also returned to the respondent at a later date to collect the questionnaires distributed, that was not collected on the day it was shared. The interview sessions also took ethical considerations, the respondent were first informed that they were being recorded and only those who agreed, got recorded. The individuals who responded to the questionnaires and interviews were kept anonymous when the report of the research was being analysed and the findings presented as agreed by the researcher and the respondent.

Brief History of Ekiti State and its Political Leaders

Present day Ekiti State located in South West Nigeria, was created on October 1, 1996 by the administration of late General Sani Abacha. Ekiti State was formed out of old Ondo state as a result of the struggle by the people of present day Ekiti State for self-determination and development (Fasuan, 2002). The neighboring state surrounding Ekiti state includes Ondo State to the south, Kwara State to the North and Kogi State to the east. Agriculture is the most prominent occupation of the people of Ekiti which provides income and employment for more than 75% of the population. The Ekiti state population is estimated at 2,737,186 with a total land mass of 6,353 km² (2,453 sq mi). The Ekiti state endowed with both human and mineral resources which are yet to be effectively utilized

for the good of the country (Jadesola, 2017). The agitators for the creation of Ekiti state alongside the council in charge of the state creation project submitted a report to show the viability of the state and as such did not need the regular take-off grant given to most newly created state, which convinced the Abacha Administration that Ekiti state was a viable state which had no need for financial support from the central government. However, the expectation of the agitators were not a reality as no sooner after the state got created, Ekiti State became solely overdependence on allocation from federation account because of low internally generated revenue. The allocation gotten from the federal account has become the major source of income that caters for monthly the payment of salaries, wages and other bureaucratic and political expenses of the government (Fasuan, 2002; Adetoye, 2010). When Ekiti State got created in 1996; Lt. Col. Mohammed Bawa was made the military administrator from October 1996 to August 1998 and then Navy Captain Atanda Yusuf from August 1998 to May 1999. At the transition to Democracy in 1999, Niyi Adebayo became governor of Ekiti State a grassroots candidate of the Alliance for Democracy (AD). In 2003 Mr. Ayo Fayose of the People's Democratic Party (PDP) was elected as Governor of Ekiti state, This was part of the agenda of the PDP to sweep the whole of South west which was almost a success. Ayo Fayose was impeached by the State House of Assembly three years into tenure and his administration terminated. After the impeachment of Fayose's on October 16 by the State Assembly was briefly replaced by an Acting governor Friday Aderemi who was later declared illegal by Federal Government on October 18, 2006. The political tension built up to political crisis which made President Olusegun Obasanjo declare a state of emergency on Ekiti state and appointed General Tunji Olurin to be the administrator from 18th October, 2006- 27 April, 2007. Tope Ademiluyi replaced Tunji Olurin as Acting Governor from 27 April, 2007-29th May, 2007 (Jadesola, 2012). Segun Oni became Governor from 29th May, 2007-15th October, 2010 after the election of Oni was terminated by the court and Dr. Kayode Fayemi was declared the duly elected governor of Ekiti State. The 2014 election was an election which was furiously fought for by the PDP and the AD for the PDP it was the opportunity to win back Ekiti which it lost to AD and for the AD it was a fight to retain power however, for both Parties it will be an opportunity to break one term jinx by both parties. The 2014 election was however, won by Fayose of PDP (Adetoye, and Omilusi, 2016).

The 2018 Governorship election in ekiti state

Ayo Fayose of the PDP tenure as governor of Ekiti state was to end on 15th October, 2018 and according to the provision of section 178(1) and (2) of the 1999 constitution of the federal republic of Nigeria as amended and section 25(7) and (8) of the 2010 Electoral Act as amended. The earliest time for the election to hold was 19th May, 2018 and the latest was 15th September, 2018 (Adeseun, 2017). The Electoral Act also state that the commission which is INEC is expected to give notice about the election not later than 90 days before the election. The INEC calendar for the Governorship election in ekiti state is as follows

Notification of the Election	4th April, 2018
Commencement of Campaign Activities	15th April, 2018
Collection of Forms by Political Parties	16th April, 2018
Conducting Party Primaries	15th April-14th May, 2018
Last day for submission of forms	15th May, 2018

Date of the Election

14th July, 2018 (Adeseun, 2017).

Following the announcement and presentation of INEC electoral calendar, registered political parties qualified to contest for the Gubernatorial Election of Ekiti State were to conduct their primaries from the 15th April-14th of May, 2018. As part of the requirement of INEC political parties were required to inform INEC regarding information about their primaries such as time, date and venue for the conduct of the primaries and so on within 21 days. To ensure that the primaries meets up to the tenants of democracy, political parties were obligated to conduct their party primaries with through direct nominee selection by members of the political party or by indirect-nominee selected by delegates. In a report provided by YIAGA Africa which focused on some political parties primaries namely: Action Democratic Party (ADP), Mega Party (MP), All Progressives Congress (APC), Social Democratic Party (SDP) and The People's Democratic Party (PDP). It was observed that three of the parties focused on which were APC, PDP and Mega Party adopted the indirect primary system while AD and SDP adopted the direct nominee selection (YIAGA Africa, 2018). Most of the party primaries adopted an open secret ballot voting system; however the set-up of the voting booth had the tendency to undermine the secrecy of the ballot system. The party primaries were relatively peaceful expect the APC primaries which had an outbreak of violence which require a need for a new primaries (C.D.D, 2018).

The INEC timetable stipulated that the official campaign for the 2018 Governorship election in ekiti state was to begin on the 15th of April 2018, several political parties organized rallies and other campaign activities across the different Local Government Areas in Ekiti state. It was observed that the campaign rallies and activities was mostly from four political parties the (ADP) Action Democratic Party, (APC) All Progressives Congress, the (PDP) People's Democratic Party and the (SDP) Social Democratic Party .

In a report provided by YIAGA Africa it was observed that across the state 42% of individuals witnessed or heard a rally conducted by ADP in different Local Government Areas, 59% reported witnessing or hearing of APC rallies in different local government areas and 75% reported witnessing or hearing of rallies for the PDP in different Local Government Areas and only 17% reported hearing but not witnessing of rallies by the Social Democratic Party (SDP) (YIAGA Africa, 2018).

The election campaign was also joined with different evidence of vote buying These evidence included reports of buying and selling of voters' cards, distribution of money or gift items by candidates or their supports. In a report provided by YIAGA Africa it was observed that across the state 4% of individuals heard plausible reports of voters' cards being sold or bought and more than 54% either observed or witness distribution of money or gift items induced by politicians or their supporters in different locations (C.D&D, 2018; YIAGA Africa, 2018). On the 15th of July the Election Day, polling centers opened relatively on time with accreditations going smoothly in most polling centers at 10am except in Eleke which could start accreditation of voters as a result of faulty card readers which only got fixed at past 11am (Sahara reporters, 2018). The security agents and local observers were represented in almost all the polling center in the state. It was also observed that party supporters and agents were also very active and conversing for votes around the polling centers which was against the electoral laws which states that campaigning was to end 24 hours before the commencement of the election, most security agents initially gave the impression of trying to prevent party agents and supports from conversing or

influencing voter's choice but as soon as accreditation concluded and polling centers commenced allowing electorates to cast their votes for the different parties the security agents literally turned a blind eye towards individuals influencing voters before they got to cast their votes. Some media personals and observers identified different party agents and supporters discussing with different INEC officials, NYSC personal and buying drinks for the security agents. The 2018 Ekiti State Election was mostly peaceful with little or no major incidents of Electoral violence during the election except in Udi Ado Ekiti were a party agent was poured acid by an unidentified individual and some report of ballot box snatching at Ileje-Meje and Ward 3 Unit 4 in Ikole Ekiti (Sahara reporters, 2018). As the election was concluded and the counting began it was evident that the Ekiti governorship election was a straight contest between Olusola Eleka of the PDP and Kayode Fayemi of the APC below are the result based on different local government between PDP and APC Based on the above result from the Governorship election in ekiti state conducted on Saturday 15th July 2018. The All Progressive Congress (APC) candidate Dr. Kayode Fayemi was declared the winner defeating his closest rival and candidate of the People's Democratic Party (PDP), Prof Kolapo Olusola with 19,338 votes. Fayemi got 197,459 and Olusola, got 178,121 votes (Nseyen, 2018).

Data Presentation, Analysis and Interpretation

This chapter presents the data obtained from the field, 410 copies of questionnaire were administered. However, only 404 were retrieved. 389 were correctly filled, 15 were erroneously filled and 7 were not returned. The data were analyzed with the aid of a Number distribution table with the opinions of respondents arranged in Percentage and hypotheses were tested.

Distribution of Bio Data of Respondents

Table 4.1: Sex of Respondents

	Number	Percentage
Male	202	51.9
Female	187	48.1
Total	389	100%

The table indicates that 51.9% of the research respondents are men while 48.1% are women. This means that the largest percentages of the research respondents are men. This is because based on the 2006 general election the population of men is greater than the population of women in Ekiti State (City Population, 2017).

Table 4.2: Age of Respondents

	Number	Percentage
18-29	218	56.0
30-39	74	19.0
40-49	45	11.6
50-59	35	9.0
60-69	17	4.4
Total	389	100%

The table above reveals that 56% of the research respondents are within the age range of 18-29; 19% are from 30-39, 11.6% are within the age of 40-49, 9% of the research respondents are within the age range of 50-59 while 4.4% are within the age range of 60-69. This means that largest percentages of the research respondents which constitute 56% are within the age range of 18-29. This is because based on the 2006 census Ekiti State age range between 18-29 is the third highest age range in Ekiti state population with 464,898 and the highest voting age range.

Table 4.3: Marital Status of Respondents

	Number	Percentage
Single	239	61.4
Married	150	38.6
Total	389	100%

In table 4.3, it is evident that 61.4% of the research respondents are singles while 38.6% are married. This shows that there are more singles compared to the married people in the research. This because there are more single individuals than married individuals in Ekiti State

Table 4.4: Educational Qualification

	Number	Percentage
SSCE	107	27.5
OND	25	6.4
HND	45	11.6
BSc	146	37.5
MSc	45	11.6
PhD	21	5.4
Total	389	100%

This shows that 27.5% of the research respondents are holders of Senior School Certificate Examination (SSCE) 6.4% of the research respondents have Ordinary National Diploma (OND), 11.6% are Higher National Diploma (HND) holders, 37.5% have Bachelor of Science degree (BSc), 11.6% have Masters of Science degree while 5.4% have Doctor of Philosophy (PhD). With the results illustrated in this table it indicates that the level of education in Ekiti state is very high and thus it can be tagged an educationally advantage state with majority of the research respondents which constitute 37.5% having a first degree (Bachelor of Science degree). This however, aided the research because most of the population could read and write

Table 4.5: State of Origin

	Number	Percentage
Ekiti State	222	57.1
Non-Indigene of Ekiti State	167	42.9
Total	389	100%

The table above reveals that 57.1% of the research respondents are indigenes of Ekiti state, while 42.9% are non-Indigene of Ekiti State. There are more indigenes of Ekiti in the research because Ekiti state served as the research area.

Presentation and Interpretation of Questionnaire

Table 4.6: Party agents give money to the electorates to buy their votes around the polling centres.

	Number	Percentage
Strongly Agree	276	71.0
Agree	49	12.6
Undecided	26	6.7
Disagree	24	6.2
Strongly Disagree	14	3.6
Total	389	100%

The table above shows that 71% of the research respondents ticked strongly agreed that party agents give money to the electorates to buy their votes around the polling centres, 12.6% ticked agreed, 6.7% ticked undecided, 6.2% ticked disagreed while 3.6% of the research respondents ticked strongly disagreed. Based on this, it means that party agents actually give money to the electorates to buy their votes around the polling centres in order to enhance the winning chance of their candidates.

Table 4.7: Candidates use campaign materials such as food stuff, clothing materials and money as instrument for vote buying

	Number	Percentage
Strongly Agree	263	67.6
Agree	77	19.8
Undecided	17	4.4
Disagree	18	4.6
Strongly Disagree	14	3.6
Total	389	100%

The table above shows that 67.6% of the research respondents ticked strongly agreed, that candidates use campaign materials such as food stuff, clothing materials and money as instrument for vote buying, 19.8% of the research respondents ticked agreed, 4.4% ticked undecided while 4.6% ticked disagreed and 3.6% strongly ticked disagreed.

This means that political party candidates used materials to induce voters and solicit for their votes at polling units, in order to increase their winning chance in the governorship election in Ekiti State; this was wide spread across the polling units, wards and local governments of the state.

Table 4.8: Party agents gave youth groups and association money to influence their voting choice

	Number	Percentage
Strongly Agree	152	39.1
Agree	161	41.4
Undecided	50	12.9
Disagree	18	4.6
Strongly Disagree	8	2.1
Total	389	100%

The table above reveals that 39.1% of the research respondents ticked strongly agreed that Party agents gave youth groups and association money to influence their voting choice,

41.4% ticked agreed, 12.9% ticked undecided, 4.6% of the research respondents ticked disagreed, while 2.1% strongly ticked disagreed.

Table 4.9: Party agents required evidence of voting before payment were released

	Number	Percentage
Strongly Agree	116	29.8
Agree	137	35.2
Undecided	91	23.4
Disagree	31	8.0
Strongly Disagree	14	3.6
Total	389	100%

The table above shows that 29.8% of the research respondents ticked strongly agreed that party agents required evidence of voting before payment were released, 35.2% ticked agreed, 23.4% ticked undecided, 8% ticked disagreed while 3.6% of the research respondents ticked strongly disagreed. This means that party agents demand proof from the electorates to confirm they voted for their party before giving them money in return.

Table 4.10: Traditional rulers were given money and food stuffs to influence their subject to vote for a particular party and candidate

	Number	Percentage
Strongly Agree	112	28.8
Agree	140	36.0
Undecided	83	21.3
Disagree	37	9.5
Strongly Disagree	17	4.4
Total	389	100%

The table above indicates that 28.8% of the research respondents ticked strongly agreed to the fact that traditional rulers were given money and food stuffs to influence their subject to vote for a particular party and candidate, 36% of the research respondents ticked agreed, 21.3% ticked undecided, 9.5% ticked disagreed, while 4.4% of the research respondents ticked strongly disagreed. This means that royal fathers in Ekiti state were actually given money and food stuffs to influence their subject to vote for a particular party and candidate based on the data from the field.

Table 4.11: Vote buying results in distrust for candidates

	Number	Percentage
Strongly Agree	203	52.2
Agree	97	24.9
Undecided	54	13.9
Disagree	21	5.4
Strongly Disagree	14	3.6
Total	389	100%

The table above shows that 52.2% of the research respondents ticked strongly agreed that vote buying results in distrust for candidates, 24.9% ticked agreed, 13.9% ticked undecided, 5.4% of the research respondents disagreed and 3.6% of the research

respondents ticked strongly disagreed. This indicates that act of vote buying actually led to electorates distrust for candidates.

Table 4.12: Some voters believe their votes did not count

	Number	Percentage
Strongly Agree	190	48.8
Agree	132	33.9
Undecided	28	7.2
Disagree	24	6.2
Strongly Disagree	15	3.9
Total	389	100%

The table shows that 48.8% of the research respondents ticked strongly agreed that their votes did not count, 33.9% ticked agreed, 7.2% ticked undecided, 6.2% ticked disagreed, while 3.9% strongly disagreed. This implies that the respondents were of the view that there votes did not count as they were manipulated by the party agents and candidates especially with the act of voting buying and voters inducement. The rich party agents bought way to victory and power while others couldn't coast to victory based on fairness.

Table 4.13: Vote buying negates the principle of fairness

	Number	Percentage
Strongly Agree	216	55.5
Agree	122	31.4
Undecided	16	4.1
Disagree	21	5.4
Strongly Disagree	14	3.6
Total	389	100%

The table above indicates that 55.5% of the research respondents ticked strongly agreed that vote buying negates the principle of fairness, 31.4% ticked agreed, 4.1% ticked undecided, 5.4% ticked disagreed, while 3.6% ticked strongly disagreed. This implies that vote buying actually negated the principle of fairness at the 2018 Ekiti State governorship elections.

Table 4.14: Vote buying promotes corruption

	Number	Percentage
Strongly Agree	202	51.9
Agree	127	32.6
Undecided	34	8.7
Disagree	15	3.9
Strongly Disagree	11	2.8
Total	389	100%

The table above reveals that 51.9% of the research respondents ticked strongly agreed that vote buying promotes corruption, 32.6% ticked agreed, 8.7% ticked undecided, 3.9% ticked disagreed while 2.8% ticked strongly disagreed. Based on this, vote buying is seen as the factor that promotes corruption in this research.

Table 4.15: Some eligible candidates refused to participate in the election due to vote buying

	Number	Percentage
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Strongly Agree	136	35.0
Agree	133	34.2
Undecided	67	17.2
Disagree	36	9.3
Strongly Disagree	17	4.4
Total	389	100%

This table reveals that 35% of the research respondents ticked strongly agreed that some eligible candidates refused to participate in the election due to vote buying, 34.2% ticked agreed, 17.2% ticked undecided, 9.3% ticked disagreed while 4.4% of the research respondents ticked disagreed. This implies that certain persons felt that there was no need of participating in the voting process because the true choice of the people will not prevail. Rather it's the rich that wins all due to his economy power to induce voters.

Table 4.16: High rate of poverty amongst the electorate encouraged vote buying

	Number	Percentage
Strongly Agree	260	66.8
Agree	81	20.8
Undecided	25	6.4
Disagree	15	3.9
Strongly Disagree	8	2.1
Total	389	100%

It is evident in table 4.16, that 66.8% strongly agreed to high rate of poverty amongst the electorate as the factor that encouraged vote buying in 2018 Ekiti State governorship election, 20.8% ticked agreed, 6.4% ticked undecided, 3.9% ticked disagreed, while 2.1% strongly disagreed. This means that poverty actually made the electorates vulnerable to vote buying in order to survive.

Table 4.17: Lack of voters' education encouraged vote buying

	Number	Percentage
Strongly Agree	233	59.9
Agree	98	25.2
Undecided	26	6.7
Disagree	21	5.4
Strongly Disagree	11	2.8
Total	389	100%

The table above reveals that 59.9% of the research respondents ticked strongly agreed that lack of voters' education encouraged vote buying at the 2018 Ekiti State governorship, 25.2% ticked agreed, 6.7% ticked undecided, 5.4% ticked disagreed while 2.8% strongly disagreed. This means that lack of voters' education actually encouraged vote buying, because the voters were not properly sensitized by political parties and electoral officers prior to the election. The choice candidates by voters as a result of the foregoing were greatly influenced by vote buying.

Table 4.18: Security agents turned blind eye to vote buying

	Number	Percentage
Strongly Agree	197	50.6

Agree	116	29.8
Undecided	53	13.6
Disagree	12	3.1
Strongly Disagree	11	2.8
Total	389	100%

The table shows that 50.6% of the research respondents ticked strongly agreed that security agents turned blind eye to vote buying, 29.8% ticked agreed, 13.6% ticked undecided while 3.1% ticked disagreed, 2.8% strongly disagreed. This means that the security agents did not play any major role towards curbing vote buying in the 2018 Ekiti State governorship election.

Table 4.19: The believe that candidates that buy votes are generous encouraged vote buying

	Number	Percentage
Strongly Agree	160	41.1
Agree	125	32.1
Undecided	44	11.3
Disagree	36	9.3
Strongly Disagree	24	6.2
Total	389	100%

The table reveals that 41.1% of the research respondents ticked strongly agreed that candidates that buy votes are generous encouraged vote buying, 32.1% ticked agreed, 11.3% ticked undecided, 9.3% ticked disagreed while 6.2% strongly disagreed. This means that electorates were attracted to the cash flow from vote buying and went for the highest bidder because of generosity.

Table 4.20: Lack of trust in the promises of candidates encouraged vote buying

	Number	Percentage
Strongly Agree	183	47.0
Agree	115	29.6
Undecided	52	13.4
Disagree	25	6.4
Strongly Disagree	14	3.6
Total	389	100%

The table shows that 47% of the research respondents ticked strongly agreed that lack of trust in the promises of candidates encouraged vote buying, 29.6% ticked agreed, 13.4% ticked undecided, 6.4% ticked disagreed, while 3.6% strongly disagreed. This implies that the electorates used the election as an opportunity to get their own share of the national cake since the politicians always fail in their promises after elections.

Table 4.21: Vote buying should be added to the criminal code and long term sentence given to offenders

	Number	Percentage
Strongly Agree	201	51.7
Agree	97	24.9
Undecided	62	15.9
Disagree	18	4.6
Strongly Disagree	11	2.8
Total	389	100%

This table shows that 51.7% of the research respondents ticked strongly agreed that vote buying should be added to the criminal code and long term sentence given to offenders 24.9% ticked agreed, 15.9% ticked undecided, 4.6% ticked disagreed, while 2.8% strongly disagreed. Based on the data from the field majority of respondents believe that sanctions to be given to offenders of vote buying and the act should be added to the criminal code of Nigeria.

Table 4.22: Voter education should be conducted before future elections

	Number	Percentage
Strongly Agree	263	67.6
Agree	81	20.8
Undecided	16	4.1
Disagree	21	5.4
Strongly Disagree	8	2.1
Total	389	100%

The table reveals that 67.6% of the research respondents ticked strongly agreed that voter education should be conducted before future elections, 20.8% of the research respondents agreed, 4.1% ticked undecided, 5.4% disagree, while 2.1% strongly disagreed. This will acquaint the voters with the required knowledge about political parties, their symbol and their candidates, so they can make their choice and fall prey to vote buying on election day.

Table 23: Ekiti State Government should embark on grass root poverty alleviation scheme to prevent candidates from taking advantage of the poor electorates

	Number	Percentage
Strongly Agree	183	47.0
Agree	142	36.5
Undecided	34	8.7
Disagree	18	4.6
Strongly Disagree	12	3.1
Total	389	100%

The table reveals that 47% of the research respondents ticked agree that Ekiti State Government should embark on grass root poverty alleviation scheme to prevent candidates from taking advantage of the poor electorates, 36.5% ticked agreed, 8.7% ticked undecided, 4.6% ticked disagreed while 3.1% strongly disagreed. Based on this, it is clear that grass root sensitization is necessary to prevent electorates from being misled by party agents and candidates.

Table 4.24: EFCC and ICPC should investigate party finances to curb vote buying

	Number	Percentage
Strongly Agree	195	50.1
Agree	116	29.8
Undecided	55	14.1
Disagree	15	3.9
Strongly Disagree	8	2.1
Total	389	100%

The table shows that 50.1% strongly agreed that the EFCC and ICPC should investigate party finances to curb vote buying. 29.8% ticked agreed, 14.1% ticked undecided, 3.9% ticked disagreed, while 2.1% strongly disagreed.

Table 4.25: Candidates should be disqualified if found guilty of vote buying

	Number	Percentage
Strongly Agree	240	61.7
Agree	91	23.4
Undecided	28	7.2
Disagree	18	4.6
Strongly Disagree	12	3.1
Total	389	100%

In table 4.25, it is clear that 61.7% of the research respondents ticked strongly agreed , that candidates should be disqualified if found guilty of vote buying, 23.4% ticked agreed, 7.2% ticked undecided, 4.6% ticked disagreed, while 3.1% strongly disagreed. This specifies there will be sanity in the polity when candidates who are culpable of vote are disqualified.

Test of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: There were no manifestations of vote buying in the 2018 Governorship election in ekiti state

Table 4.26 One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 0						S.D	Standard Error
	T	DF	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference			
					Lower	Upper		
Party agents give money to the electorates to buy their votes around the polling centres	28.834	1	.000	1.589	1.48	1.70	.984	.066
Candidates use campaign materials such as food stuff, clothing materials and money as instrument for vote buying	30.256	1	.000	1.568	1.47	1.67	.958	.071
Party agents gave youths groups and association money to influence their voting choice	39.778	1	.000	1.892	1.80	1.99	.952	.061
Party agents required evidence of voting before payment were released	40.759	1	.000	2.203	2.10	2.31	.949	.062
Traditional rulers were given money and food stuffs to influence their subject to vote for a particular party and candidate	40.164	1	.000	2.247	2.14	2.36	.920	.062

SD (Standard Deviation), t (critical) Source: Researchers' field Survey (2019)

The hypothesis was tested using a T test, the table above shows that the t value for all the items which are 28.834, 30.256,39, 778,40.759 and 40.164 are all positive, the degree of freedom for all the items (DF) are 1, the P value for all the item is 0.00 which is less than

(<) 0.05 and is statistically significant. The Mean differences for all the items are 1.589, 1.568, 1.892, 2.203 and 2.247, all the standard deviation are .984, .958, .952, .949 and .920 which are all less than 1 meaning that there is a concentration of view in agreement to questions asked while the standard error is .066, .071, .061, .062, .062. This indicates that the P value 0.00 which is statistically significant and the t is positive. This reveals that there was actual manifestation of vote buying in the 2018 Governorship election in Ekiti State therefore, the hypothesis is rejected. This conclusion is in alignment with the claims of all individuals interviewed for the research concerning the presence and manifestation of vote buying in the 2018 governorship election in Ekiti State. All the interviewed respondent also agreed that vote buying was manifested around the vicinity of the polling center, during party rallies and that party agents required evidence of voting before payment were released. However, the male NYSC adhoc staff alone identified the use of youths and the tradition leaders towards influencing other to vote for a political party or candidate because of money as a manifestation of vote buying according to the questionnaire as well as electorates desire to determine who to vote for based on the highest bidders as other manifestation of vote buying not mentioned in the questionnaire

Hypothesis 2: Vote buying had no impact on the 2018 Governorship election in Ekiti state

Table 4.27 One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 0						S.D	Standard Error
	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference			
					Lower	Upper		
Vote buying results in distrust for candidates	33.341	1	.000	1.833	1.72	1.94	.984	.055
Some voters believe their votes did not count	33.882	1	.000	1.823	1.72	1.93	.961	.054
Vote buying negates the principle of fairness	32.755	1	.000	1.702	1.60	1.80	.925	.052
Vote buying promotes corruption	35.101	1	.000	1.730	1.63	1.83	.972	.049
Some eligible candidates refused to participate in the election due to vote buying	37.442	1	.000	2.139	2.03	2.25	.927	.057

SD (Standard Deviation), t (critical) Source: Researchers' field Survey (2019)

The table shows that t value for all the items are 33.341, 33.882, 32.755, 35.101 and 37.442 which is positive, the degree of freedom for all the items are 1, the P value for all the items are 0.00 which is less than (<) 0.05 and is statistically significant. The Mean difference for all the items are 1.833, 1.823, 1.702, 1.730 and 2.139 which is statistically significant, the standard deviation is .984, .961, .925, .972 and .927 which are all less than 1 meaning that there is a concentration of view in agreement to questions asked while the standard error for all the items are 0.55, .054, .052, .049 and .057. This indicates that P value of 0.00 which is statistically significant and the t is positive. This reveals that vote buying had impact on the 2018 Governorship election in Ekiti state, therefore the hypothesis is rejected. This conclusion is in alignment with the claims of all individuals interviewed for the research concerning the impact of vote buying on the 2018 governorship election in Ekiti State. All the interviewed respondent ticked agreed that vote buying made individuals

believe their votes does not count hence, a fall in turn out, vote buying promotes corruption and vote buying negates the principle of fairness which is in accordance to the question asked on the questionnaire. However, The Male INEC staff and Prof. Dele Adetoye identified vote buying as a breeder of distrust of the electorates on the leaders which is also included in the questionnaire as an impact of Vote Buying but further identified institutional fragility and unaccountability of leaders to the electorates as other impact of vote buying not mentioned in the questionnaire.

Hypothesis 3: There are no factors encouraging vote buying in 2018 Governorship election in ekiti states.

Table 4.28

One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 0						S.D	Standard Error
	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference			
					Lower	Upper		
High rate of poverty amongst the electorate encouraged vote buying	32.684	1	.000	1.535	1.44	1.63	.926	.047
Lack of voters' education encouraged vote buying	32.372	1	.000	1.661	1.56	1.76	1.012	.051
Security agents turned blind eye to vote buying	35.517	1	.000	1.776	1.68	1.87	.986	.050
The believe that candidates that buy votes are generous encouraged vote buying	33.956	1	.000	2.072	1.95	2.19	1.204	.061
Lack of trust in the promises of candidates encouraged vote buying	34.521	1	.000	1.900	1.79	2.01	.984	.055

SD (Standard Deviation), t (critical) Source: Researchers' field Survey (2019)

The result above reveals that t value for all the items are 32.684, 32.372, 35.517, 33.956 and 34.521 which are all positive, the degree of freedom for all the items are 1, the P value for all the items are 0.00 which is less than (<) 0.05 and is statistically significant. Mean difference for all the items are 1.535, 1.661, 1.776, 2.072 and 1.900 the standard deviation is .926, 1.012, .986, 1.204 and .984 meaning that there is a concentration of view in agreement to questions asked on poverty, security agents turning a blind eye to vote buying and the lack of trust in the promises of candidates as factors encouraging vote buying while a wider range of views about lack of voters education and the believe that individuals who buy votes are generous candidates the standard error is 0.47, .051, .050, .061 and .055. This indicates that P value of 0.00 which is statistically significant and the t is positive. This implies that there were factors that encouraged vote buying in 2018 Governorship election in ekiti states. Notable among them identified in the research includes High rate of poverty among electorates and low voter education showcased in table 4.1.16 and 4.1.17 respectively therefore, the hypothesis is rejected. This conclusion is in alignment with the claims of all individuals interviewed for the research concerning the factors that encouraged vote buying in the 2018 governorship election in Ekiti State. The entire interviewed respondent ticked agreed that poverty and lack of voter's education are major factors encouraging vote buying which is in alignment with the questions on the questionnaire. However, Prof Dele Adetoye and The Public Relations Secretary of the

(PPA) Ekiti Chapter agree that Security agents and view that voter buyers are generous candidates encourage vote buying in the 2018 governorship election in Ekiti state which is also captured in the questionnaires. Prof. Dele Adetoye identified other factors encouraging vote buying which include the NYSC corp. members, the INEC officials and the impatience of the Ekiti electorate to wait on the dividend of democracy are also factors encouraging vote buying

Hypothesis 4: Vote buying cannot be minimized in future election in Ekiti state.

Table 4.29 One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 0						S.D	Standard Error
	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference			
					Lower	Upper		
Vote buying should be added to the criminal code and long term sentence given to offenders	34.445	1	.000	1.820	1.72	1.92	1.042	.053
Voter education should be conducted before future elections	31.834	1	.000	1.535	1.44	1.63	.951	.048
Ekiti State Government should embark on grass root poverty alleviation scheme to prevent candidates from taking advantage of the poor electorates	35.831	1	.000	1.802	1.70	1.90	.992	.050
EFCC and ICPC should investigate party finances to curb vote buying	36.275	1	.000	1.779	1.68	1.88	.967	.049
Candidates should be disqualified if found guilty of vote buying	31.954	1	.000	1.640	1.54	1.74	1.012	.051

SD (Standard Deviation), t (critical) Source: Researchers' field Survey (2019)

The result above reveals that t value for all the items are 34.445, 31.834, 35.831, 36.275 and 31.954 which are positive, the degree of freedom for all the items are 1, the P value for all the items are 0.00 which is less than (<) 0.05 and is statistically significant. Mean difference for all the items are 1.820, 1.535, 1.802, 1.779 and 1.640. The standard deviations for all the items are 1.042, .951, .992, .967 and 1.012 meaning that the views of the respondent as it relates to voters education, provision of poverty alleviation programs and for the EFCC to investigate the accounts of political parties as mechanisms to minimize vote buying are concentrated while there is wider range of views about adding vote buying as a crime for capital punishment if found guilty and candidate been disqualified if found guilty as a mechanism to minimize vote buying. The standard error is 0.53. This indicates that P value of 0.00 which is statistically significant and the t is positive. This means that vote buying can be minimized in future elections in Ekiti state, with collaborative efforts of the electoral umpire and security agencies, to ensure that party agents and public office holders whom are culpable of such acts are prosecuted. Therefore the hypothesis is rejected. This is also in alignment with the suggestions of individuals who were interviewed that until the factors that encourage vote buying are tackled and punishment of this behavior dealt with the behavior of vote buying will keep on thriving.

Discussion of Finding

The analyses of the data in this study reveal that vote buying affects democratic election in general and 2018 Governorship election in Ekiti state in particular. The result presented in table 4.26 shows that a large concentration of respondent acknowledged that the activities of vote buying within the 2018 Governorship election in Ekiti state was visibility manifested. This finding also aided in giving spotlight on some of the factors that contributed to the outcome of the election and the potency of these methods of vote buying see and buy (vote buying at the polling centre) and vote buying during campaign rallies which is in line with the views of the interviewed persons and the argument of other scholars who carried out similar research (Vicente, and Wantchekon, L, 2009; Nwankwo, 2018; Onuoha, and Ojo, 2018). The result presented in table 4.27 to ascertain if the impact of vote buying on the 2018 gubernatorial election was analysed using the one sample T-test. Shows that there is a large concentration of respondent acknowledging the fact that vote buying had impact on the 2018 Governorship election in Ekiti state. It also aids to identify the pronounced impact of vote buying which includes corruption and lack of trust in the government, the structure and the institution presented in table 4.1.11 and 4.1.14 respectively. This results is however, in alignment with the contribution of different key informant interview and the works of others scholars such as (Bratton, 2008; Gonzalez-Ocantos et, al. 2012).

The result presented in table 4.28 to determine the factors encouraging vote buying in 2018 Governorship Election in Ekiti state was analysed using the one sample t-test. This shows that there is a large concentration of respondent acknowledging the fact that poverty, security agents turning a blind eye to vote buying and the lack of trust in the promises of candidates are factors encouraging vote buying while a wider range of views about lack of voters education and the believe that individuals who buy votes are generous candidates implies that there were several factors that encouraged vote buying in 2018 Governorship election in Ekiti states. Notable among them identified in the research includes High rate of poverty among electorates and low voter education showcased in table 4.1.16 and 4.1.17 respectively. This results is however, in alignment with the contribution of different key informant interview and the works of others scholars such as (Fredrick, and Andreas, 2005; Jensen, and Justesen, 2014). The result presented in table 4.29 to investigate ways in which of vote buying can be minimized future Ekiti state elections was analysed using the one sample T-test. This shows that there is a large concentration of the respondent as it relates to voters education, provision of poverty alleviation programs and for the EFCC to investigate the accounts of political parties as mechanisms to minimize vote buying are concentrated while there is wider range of views about adding vote buying as a crime for capital punishment if found guilty and candidate been disqualified if found guilty as a mechanism to minimize vote buying. This means that vote buying can be minimized in future elections in Ekiti state, with collaborative efforts of the electoral umpire and security agencies, to ensure that party agents and public office holders whom are culpable of such acts are prosecuted. The outcome of the finding aids identifying what mechanism in put in place will minimize the growth of vote buying in future elections this result is in tandem with the works of different scholars such as (Iyayi, 2005; Adetoye, and Omilusi, 2016; Adamu, A. Ocheni, and Ibrahim, 2016).

Summary, Recommendation And Conclusion

Summary

The main aim of this research was to place the spotlight on the manifestation of vote buying, impact of vote buying, catalyst of vote buying and how to minimize or curb the growth of vote buying in future Nigerian elections. The motivation for this research came out of the review of other literature such as (Bratton, 2008; Carreras, and Irepoglu, 2013; Jensen, and Justesen, 2014) which revealed that little literature had been done concerning depicting the impact of vote buying in new democracies and societies like that of Ekiti state which was further made necessary by the unconfirmed allegation of INEC about the magnitude of vote buying in Ekiti state (Oyenigbehin, 2018). The research shows that there was ample impact of vote buying on democratic elections in the 2018 Governorship election in Ekiti States. The impacts of vote buying on elections in Ekiti State have both immediate and delayed impacts. The immediate impact affect the fundamental principle of representative democracy were the true wishes and desires of the people are no longer represented through elections but are controlled through inducement of money by the different political candidates, resulting to unaccountable leaders. Vote buying further results in lack of trust in the system and institutional fragility which is ticking bomb for anarchy and increase in crime

Recommendations

In reality the braze acts of vote-buying cannot be eradicated totally however, specific mechanism should be put in place to reduce the growth and negative effort of vote buying on the electoral process and democracy such as partnership between The Independent National Electoral Commission and the anti-corruption agencies such as the Economic and Financial Crimes Commission while conducting elections and afterward culprits found in vote buying should be handed over to these agencies for investigation and prosecution.

Existing electoral legislation needs to be amended and stringent punishment attached in order to mitigate the advancement of vote buying such as the addition of Capital Punishment for offenders.

Increase in Voter Education were the government does not leave it to Non-governmental agencies but be involved by including voters education to school curriculum as part of social studies and civic education, organizing talk shows and workshops about the woes of vote buying.

Improved Poverty Alleviation Schemes need to be implemented so as to counter acts its effort as a catalyst for vote buying.

Disqualification of Guilty Candidates and prosecution of culprits of vote buying should be taken seriously as criminalized by sections 124 and 130 of the Electoral Act 2010, as amended.

Scrutinizing of Party Finances through mandatory compliance from the parties according to the Electoral Act 2010 concerning submission of account statement, expenditure of the party, an audit of the books of the party before and after an election must be enforced in order to trace suspicious transactions and action of vote buying

Contribution to Knowledge

The research contributes to the knowledge by increasing the wealth of literature on the subject of vote buying and democratic elections in Nigeria. This research contribution is significant because although a lot of literature has been written on vote buying as well as democratic election but very little has been done in showing how deep the behaviour of vote buying has dug into the fabric of democratic elections which is the hallmark of representative democracy especially to a growing democracy like Nigeria. The quantitative approach applied to the research aid to give quantifiable result of the nature of vote buying in Nigeria's election and a departure from the norm of accepting declarations from either pro or anti party members about vote buying in Nigerian election

This research also has theoretical, governmental and statistical contribution. Theoretical contribution, the research of vote buying and democratic election using Ekiti state as a case study expands on the already existing literature on vote buying and Democratic elections in Nigeria. As the present literature review shows that there are limited studies done in Nigeria such as Bratton (2008) who examines Vote buying and Violence in Nigerian election campaigns, Ovwasa (2012) who examines Money Politics and Vote Buying in Nigeria: As the Bane of Good Governance as well as the application of the theory of clientalism in relationship to understanding vote buying

Governmental contribution as the present mode of election engineering carried out by political candidate creates an impediment to democratic elections and her growing democracy. Hence, exploring the nature, extent and effectiveness of irregular campaign methods such as vote buying is germane to future elections. This research also throws light to who are the victims of vote buying in Nigeria with Ekiti state as a case study and what are the possible voter behaviors in responses to irregular campaign method like vote buying. Bratton (2008) explains that voter's behavior at the individual level when introduced to irregular campaign methods like vote buying can be classified into three possible course of action namely to refuse, to defect, or to comply. These three courses of actions are very important in understanding the outcome of the election in Ekiti state. The finding of the research offer valuable insight into how the government can tackle the issue of vote buying in future elections

Statistically, the research employs the T-test which is a great addition to previous studies both in Nigeria and other countries. Other studies have done relationship between electoral turnout and candidate popularity as a function of vote buying but the t-test exposes the degree at which the menace of vote buying has largely dogged into the fabrics of democratic elections in Nigeria

Limitation of the research

The challenges encountered in this research were mainly related to primary data gathering. The human factor which cannot be totally removed in form of biases, lack of total transparency and lack of willingness to release certain information that are vital to the research under the pretext classified information. Other issues include the scope of the research which is Governorship election in Ekiti state as a case and making assertions about Nigeria as a whole.

The research also suggest that more research should be carried to determine when vote buying fails and what were established by the government or the factors that contributed to the failure especially in the 2018 Anambra State Gubernatorial Election

Conclusion

Vote buying has great set back on the electoral process of Nigeria and is a threat to her democracy as it promotes corruption, poverty, decline in political participation and increase in crime. Some catalysts of vote buying include poverty, ignorance, ineffective sanction on culprits and distrust of the government. Vote buying isn't a new phenomenon but a practice that has been old as the Nigeria. Nevertheless it still remains an electoral offence therefore; culprits should be brought to book. Vote buying isn't done in isolation, however, for the system to work it is necessary that the perpetrators within the system be flushed out. This is because if a candidate decides to begin his/her political journey with corruption by paying for support, rather than competing for votes fair and square. It can be concluded that such candidates has no regard for democratic procedures and is open to using illegal means in his/her administration.

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THE IMPERATIVE OF COMMUNITY POLICING IN NIGERIA

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Abstract: *Across the world, the concern of governments to maintain public safety necessitated a reform for reorienting the police organisations to shift from conducting its functions through the incidence driven approach to community participation model. In Nigeria, the reactive model adopted appeared not effective in taming the internal insecurity across the country as crime upheaval is increasing daily. This paper examined the effects of community policing on police statutory functions in Nigeria. Data were collected from relevant textbooks, journals, newspapers and other official records. The data congregated were analysed through descriptive method. Espousing the broken window theory as theoretical framework, community policing is considered as a proactive crime and disorder reducing strategy as against the 'pursue and catch' reactive oriented. The paper found community policing as helpful to curbing internal security threats in Nigeria. It argued that the effectiveness of community policing is overturned by gamut of the police different operational agenda; inconsistency in policy; and resistance from some officers and rank and files. The paper recommended that the police statutory functions of curbing insecurity in Nigeria would remain a daydream without active community policing.*

Keywords: *Nigeria police, neighbourhood watch, intelligence sharing, problem solving, offence*

Introduction

Keeping peace and maintaining safety of citizens and property cannot be over emphasised for the progress and survival of any sovereign nation. It can be viewed as a precondition for good governance leading to socio-economic growth, political advancement, national peace building, human capital development, human freedom and proper functioning of things in a country. There will be no doubt therefore, that absence of internal security breeds disorder, increase insecurity, distorts freedom, reduce human value, and impoverish the citizens. In this case, no country jokes over internal security. This was demonstrated when section 14 (2) (b) of the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria assigned the task of internal security as the primary function of government. Beyond this, section 214 of the Constitution went further to establish the Nigeria police force to lead the internal security architecture for the country (FGN, 1999). As a lead internal security agency in Nigeria, the police can be described as the first line of defence in Nigeria. They are to provide peace and assure the safety of everyone to attract development and good order. This implies that the "A to Z" functions of the Nigeria police force revolved round protective and enforcement duties. In other words, the police are responsible for keeping peace and stability; maintaining law and order; guaranteeing good order and proper functioning of public affairs. To fully understand what the police are expected to do, section 4 of the Police Act and Regulations (2020) defined in a broad term that the police are employed to prevent and detect crime; apprehend and persecute

offenders; preserve law and order; protect life and property; enforce laws and regulations and perform such military duties within or outside Nigeria. In addition, the police are to solve crime and disorder related problems through police-community relations.

Abba (2014:3) observed the immensity of the Nigeria police functions and maintained that its statutory responsibilities require engagement in numerous activities that are concerned with crime control and prevention policies. These policies would be well framed and effectively implemented. Abba emphasised the need for a hearty intelligence-led gathering and visibility policing. These would involve vehicular and foot beat patrols; tactical point devices such as observation point, pin-down point, nipping point, hot-spot or vulnerable point, stop and search point among others. He concluded by saying that “police functions as at today have expanded and transcended the traditional surveillance function of walking the beat alone by police officers. Hence, a police officer on patrols is expected to engage in, and liaise with members of the public in problem solving” (Abba, 2014:3). The method of policing adopted earlier in Nigeria was the traditional incidence-driven model that does not encourage public participation. In all ramifications, the model has not been able to nip the gamut of awful crime and disorder in the bud. Many literatures supported this claim. For instance, Dickson (2007) documented that such manifestation is evidenced as no day passes without the national dailies in Nigeria carrying reports of one form of crime or another ranging from armed robbery, political motivated attack, gruesome murder, rape, bombing to burglary, stealing, corruption, fraud, ritual killings and so forth. Acknowledging the ineptness of the traditional police approach, Bello-Imam (2010:54) said that “members of the public see modern policing in Nigeria from the inception, as a profile of dissatisfaction that has lost public confidence.” Okolie & Ezirim (2020) also saw the recent “#EndSARS” protests in Nigeria as a reflection of public discontentment over the insufficient and inapt approach to policing in Nigeria.

But, the past and present governments with the police chiefs have made efforts to improve the police performance. The provision of section 14 (2) (c) of the 1999 Constitution that empowers citizens to participate in their government was being implemented. In this regards, police community relations committee (PCRC) was formed as a way of getting people from the local communities to involve in policing affairs through town-hall meeting. While the outcome is yet to achieve the expectation, Dawodu (2007) and Nwachukwu (2011) documented how the Federal Government and Police made further efforts towards ensuring a fruitful police system. According to Dawodu (2007:111), Dr Lee Patrick Brown of Houston in United States of America was contacted and he had series of discussions with President Olusegun Obasanjo in 2003 on how the idea of community policing would be useful for the police to curb the rising insecurity upheaval in Nigeria. In his opinion: “Community policing is about the police and the community jointly identifying problems, finding solutions to them, and raising combine resources to solve those problems. Everything about police has to start with the people at the neighbourhood level as each neighbourhood and community has different value system. There are many similarities than differences between policing in Nigeria and policing in United States of America and the Nigeria police officers are dedicated professionals who could do well if backed with adequate resources” (Dawodu, 2007:111).

Nwachukwu (2011:24) explained that the Inspector General of Police, Mustapha Adebayo Balogun led a five-policeman delegation to United State of America in 2003 to under-study how community policing can be applied in Nigeria. As he puts it, “the

organisations and operations of the police departments in Houston, Atlanta, and Chicago were studied. The results showed effective community based policing.” As they noted, field police officers in United States of America are deployed to work in their local communities. Besides, the police researchers saw that Houston with a population of two million has a total of nineteen thousand police personnel. This outcome spurred the Federal Government to approve in 2003 an annual recruitment of 40, 000 policemen to boost the working strength of 130,000 in Nigeria. As a follow-up, Chicago Community Policing Experts were invited to train some Police Officers on Community Policing duties in Nigeria. Thus, the Federal Government approved and launched the integration of Community Policing to the Nigeria Police system on 27th April, 2004.

This paper is designed to examine the effects of community policing on solving the unending internal security menaces in Nigeria. The paper is structured into seven parts. The first three parts dealt with introduction, theoretical, and conceptual issues while the last four sections focussed on the value of community policing; police-community participation in Nigeria; the community policing that is needed in Nigeria; and conclusion of the paper.

Theoretical Framework

In police studies, theoretical formulations are inter-connected and inter-related. At best, they are attempted by different intellectuals to make sense out of the extant multifaceted police crime administration. Hence, irrespective of perspicacity of any theory espoused, none can completely explain all the remote and immediate reasons for crime incidents and the best-fit approach of the police to deal with them. It is in line with the foregoing that this paper chooses the broken window theory as its theoretical basis. The theory was postulated by James Quinn Wilson and George Lee Kelling. It covers a wide range of issues, which are related to this paper. Among the main assumptions of the theory include the fact that unchecked minor visible signs of crime, civil disorder, and other trivial subversives or anti-social behaviours are direct causes of serious crime. It also perceived the unrepaired broken window as a sign that people are not paying close attention to safety issues. Hence, the repercussion of one unrepaired broken window of a building is an invitation for vandals to break more windows of the building. It is also an invitation for the vandals to make the vandalised building their hideout (Wilson & Kelling, 1982). Before its popularisation as a theory, Scott Fraser and Phillip George Zimbardo conducted experiment to ascertain the broken window effects on police security administration. They brought two cars and removed their identification plate numbers. One of the cars was parked in Bronx along campus road of New York University. The second car was abandoned at Palo Alto in California, along the road to Stanford University campus (Zimbardo, 1969). As Zimbardo (1969:287) reported it: “What happened in New York was unbelievable. Within ten minutes, the 1959 Oldsmobile received its auto strippers from a father, mother, and eight year old son. The mother appeared to be a lookout. The son aided the father’s search of the car, glove compartment, and the motor. He handed to his father the tools necessary to remove the battery and radiator.”

In the contrary, the car parked at Palo Alto in California was intact for over a week. As Zimbardo (1969:290) described it, “the Palo Alto car not only emerged untouched; but, when it began to rain, one of the passers-by lowered the hood so that the motor would not

get wet.” As the car remained untouched, Zimbardo took a sledge-hammer with Mike Bond and Ebbe Ebbesen, who were his graduate students to the scene to smash the car. They were accosted by the neighbourhood residents and handed over to the police. It was concluded that Palo Alto is not vulnerable to crime and criminality because the neighbourhood residents are mindful of security. In the contrary, the Bronx community in New York would be vulnerable to insecurity because the inhabitants are not cautious of internal security. This view supported why the incident that occurred in United States of America on 11th September, 2001 failed to be averted. Like what happened in Bronx, the Homeland police was challenged and tactically shifted from its traditional-based pattern to community-oriented policing after the United States of America experienced attack on September 11, 2001(IACP, 2005).

In Nigeria, extant literature showed that the worrisome internal security challenges arising from the terrible cases of armed robbery, boko haram terrorist, Fulani herdsmen assailants, kidnapping for ransom and other banditries emerged from unbridled minor crimes such as political thugs, tribal soppiness, and petty stealing. For example, Toromade (2018) cited Atiku saying that boko haram terrorists in Nigeria started as political thugs. Also, historical narrative of the first and second celebrated Nigerian notorious executed robbers - Ishola Oyelusi (aka Dr Rob and Kill) and Lawrence Nomanyangbon Anini (alias The Law - Ovigbo) were allegedly started from stealing of pencil, fowl, and pickpocket (Adeola, 1987). As used in this paper, the thrust of broken window emphasised the spirit of police-community teamwork in policing as experienced in Palo Alto in California. It is believed that opportunity for boko haram terrorist group to come from Maiduguri in Borno State to effectively bomb Gboko or massacre people in Makurdi in Benue State will be very difficult. Besides, it will be uncomfortable for Fulani herdsmen from Yobe State to invade Ijebu-Ode in Ogun State and kill hundreds of people and escape without challenge. In addition, there will be a narrowed opportunity for criminals to invade schools and successfully kidnap hundreds of students in Chibok or elsewhere in Nigeria. In other words, crimes are not tolerated in neighbourhood where the police and people work in team spirit.

Conceptual Issues

Conceptualising police and its related terms has a lot of problems just like conceptualising other concepts in public administration. For a logical and better comprehension of this paper, some concepts like the Nigeria police force, neighbourhood watch, intelligence sharing, problem solving, offence, and community were explained.

The Nigeria Police Force

As noted in Oikhala (2019:42), in attempt to locate the meaning of the Nigeria police force, “people generically clarified the subject differently. This is because each country adopts the type and name of police system it thinks fit.” For instance, in Ghana, it is called Ghana police service and it is referred to as the Royal Canadian Mounted Police in Canada. In line with this paper, the definition of the Nigeria police force is elucidated in accordance with the law and intellectual perspective. As defined in section 214 (1) of the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria as amended: “there shall be a police for Nigeria, which shall be known as the Nigeria police force, and subject to the provisions of this section, no other police force shall be established for the Federation or any part

thereof” (FGN, 1999). This is corroborated by Chapter P19, section 3 of the Police Act and Regulations (2020) when it said, “there shall be established for Nigeria a police to be known as the Nigeria police force” (The Nigeria Police Act and Regulations, 2020). The meaning of the Nigeria police force can also be located from its statutory functions. As documented in section 214 (2) (b) of the above quoted Nigerian Constitution, “the members of the Nigeria police shall have such powers and duties as maybe conferred upon them by law.” In line with the constitution, section 4 of the Police Act and Regulations (2020) defined the general duties of the Nigeria police force as the prevention and detection of crime; apprehension of offenders; preservation of law and order; protection of life and property; and enforcement of laws and regulations; and performance of military duties within or outside Nigeria as may be required of them by law. In addition, the Nigeria police force is to collaborate with other security agencies to provide assistance to any person in distress, victims of road accidents, fire disaster, earthquakes, and flood. It is the of the Nigeria police force to clear obstruction and facilitate the free passage and movement on the highways, roads, and streets open to the public and to adopt community partnership in policing among others (The Police Act and Regulations, 2020).

The 2015 Administration of Criminal Justice Act (ACJA) affirmed the statutory functions of the Nigeria police force as prevention and detection of crimes. Its sections 50-51 are relevant in this sense. As stated in section 50 of the ACJA, “prevention of offences and security for good behaviour shall be the purpose of the Nigeria police force.” Furthermore, the ACJA provided that a police officer may intervene for the purpose of preventing crimes and shall to the best of his ability prevent the commission of an offence; prevent an injury attempted to be committed to any public property whether movable or immovable. Section 51 emphasised the covert crime information function of the Nigeria police force and how to manage the crime information for positive offence prevention outcomes. As further prescribed in section 51 of the ACJA, a police officer receiving information of a design to commit any offence “shall communicate the information to the officer to whom he is subordinate, and to any other officer whose duty is to prevent the offence, or take cognisance of the commission of the crime” (ACJA, 2015).

The angle of intellectual discourse is also looked at in attempt to locate the meaning of the Nigeria police force in this paper. As noted in Tobi & Oikhala (2018:86), “establishment of the Nigeria police force was premised on the needs to promote internal security and socio-political order.” It was on this note, Shaw (2002:32) has rightly argued that “the ABC of the police stands for the protection of life and property; prevention of crime and disorder.” In his contribution, Dawodu (2007:13) described the Nigeria police force as “one of the most visible and ubiquitous agents of Nigeria that presumably needs no formal introduction and definition beyond the obvious fact that it is the agent of the state, which is saddled with the responsibility for maintenance of law and order, detection and prevention of crime, protection of lives and property, and prosecution of offenders.” Considered in a more formal way, Farm House Dialogue (1994:6) said it is “a civil force of the state.” It is established by law, responsible for the maintenance of law and order through the protection of lives and detection of crime, enforcement of the laws of the land and the performance of other ancillary services (such as rescue operations) as determined by the state based on the peculiar needs, and the historical evolution of the state itself.

Drawing from the foregoing, it is obvious that the Nigeria police force is a critical agency of Nigerian state. It occupies first line of defence in Nigeria. To put it differently,

the Nigeria police force is established by law to among others, keep peace and provide security; maintain law and order; promote good order and serenity to prevent any form of disorder against good governance and proper functioning of things in Nigeria. To this end, the Nigeria police force has to do everything that is necessary to protect life and property; prevent and detect crime. Therefore, the Nigeria police force are meant to conduct search, recover any stolen item, arrest, detain, investigate, arraign and prosecute offenders in court; preserve and enforce all laws; settle conflict through alternative dispute resolution; synergise with other security agencies to assist any person in distress or victim of accident and management of traffic issues just to mention only few of them.

The puzzling question however, is; with the suffocating insecurity upheaval in Nigeria at all levels, can the Nigeria police force be said to have reasonably performed the aforementioned duties? There is no gainsaying the fact that the manner in which minor crimes continues to develop into high profile or ferocious crimes daily suggested proper paradigm shift by the Nigeria police force to be more effective. As scholars documented, instances in which the efforts of the Nigeria police force appeared not good enough in enforcing law, keeping peace, and protecting life and property include the electoral violence of 1964-1965 and 1983; the religious confrontations in Kano, 1987 and 1991; Bauchi, 1991; Zango-Kataf in 1992 up to the outburst of dreadful Boko-Haram sect terrorist in 2009 and Fulani herdsmen banditry in 2014 (Toromade, 2018). This has ascended to insecurity of school children where kidnapping has turned into daily ritual. Just to mention only few, over 276 students of Government Girls Secondary School were kidnapped in Chibok on 24th April 2014; more than 110 students of Government Girls Science and Technical College were kidnapped in Dapchi on 19th February, 2018 while about 800 students of Government Science Boys Secondary School were allegedly kidnapped in Kankara on 11th December, 2020 among others. Most of these atrocities were all linked to the terrorist activities of boko haram that have grown from a mere political thug into terrorist group and kidnapper (Toromade, 2018; and Akinwotu, 2020). The big question will be where is the peace and security for establishing the Nigeria police force?

Neighbourhood Watch

The concept of neighbourhood watch means different things to different people. This makes it difficult for one best fit definition. For some thinkers, neighbourhood watch is the same as community police model. For instance, Sykes (1978:394) defined neighbourhood watch as community policing where the police and community members established “citizen advisory committees that would open up channels of communication between police officers and the community.” In this sense, neighbourhood watch is used to mean the several ways in which community policing system is organised. There are some other thinkers in Nigeria who used the neighbourhood watch as same with vigilantism and community policing. In this case, the neighbourhood watch is being presented as territorial defence groups across Nigeria like the Amotekun of the Southwest and the Odua Peoples’ Congress (OPC) of the Yoruba decent; the Bakassi of Ibo land; the Egbesu of Ijaw tribe; the Patari Soja in Tiv land; the Yan-banga of the Hausa extraction and many others (Chukwuma, 2003; Dickson, 2007; & Yakubu, 2019). Drawing from the characteristics of some of these aforementioned outfits, they are considered as ethnic militias in this paper. Rather than a volunteer service, some of the outfits are not only recruited and equipped with lather weapon; they also received stipend from their local or

state government. This makes them to be labelled as paramilitary. Hence, they can be used to fight a tribal or territorial war. The way and manner in which community policing operates does not contradict the operational framework of the neighbourhood watch. It is in the light of the above claim that Chukwuma (2003) described the neighbourhood watch as groups of people within a confinement of a village, city, urban, town, or rural locale who volunteered to guard the major entry or exit of community at night; patrol the streets while people are indoors and sleeping in order to protect their people from the threats of crime and criminals.

Unlike the ethnic militias or vigilantisms that use lather weapon, receive salaries, and kitted by most state governments, the neighbourhood watches captured in this paper do not enjoy such incentives. Instead of lather weapon, whistles are their major instruments to awaken the inhabitants when suspected unwholesome guests are perceived. Shaw (2000) argued against generalisation of vigilantism as neighbourhood watch as those groups labelled as National Vigilante Groups of Nigeria are groups of ex-servicemen. Apart from the nomination of certain categories of street members to carry out neighbourhood watch services such as the street surveys, night guards or patrols; the neighbourhood watch members are drawn from artisan, age grade, masquerade cult, hunter group, youth wing, trader association, scavenger unit, and palm-wine tipper group. The neighbourhood watch members also include the minister of hospitality or usher, boys' brigade, ambassador group, protocols or security committees in churches and mosques. Others are hisbah, sharia guards, daugeri, emanda, iwegua, body-guards, and ode, eso, ndichie-eze or palace guards for the traditional faith (Chukwuma, 2003). As said earlier, these volunteer groups are drawn from the various critical stakeholders of the community. If the police actively work in partnership with all these interests groups in conjunction with the community development association, the challenge of insecurity and the terrible crime threats in Nigeria ought to be abated.

Intelligence Sharing

Intelligence sharing, which is critical in active practice of community policing is marred with a problem of one-best-fit definition. This is probably due to the fact that there seems to be no fixed or unique way for the gathering and sharing of intelligence information in policing. Hence, some people choose to adopt a definition, which they considered would serve their interest and beneficial to the subject matter. As observed in the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP) (2005:3), "information is not intelligence. Intelligence is not what is collected. It is what is produced after the collected data are evaluated and analysed." Some thinkers and most police practitioners defined intelligence as exchanging security information between the police and the other security agencies. But, defining intelligence sharing in this manner would negate the aim of this paper. Aside from alienating the public from security business, it will also mean that the police have left out some critical elements in their information gathering and sharing. Hence, this lacuna limits the neighborhood contributions to police crime prevention and detection efforts. IACP (2005:11) noted that intelligence sharing as critical for decision making, planning, strategic aiming, and crime prevention. As it defined it, "intelligence sharing is a formal process of taking information and turning it into knowledge while ensuring that the information is collected, stored, and disseminated appropriately." Using intelligence from previous crimes in local and other jurisdictions, indicators can be created

and shared among law enforcement agencies. “Comparing the indicators with local neighborhoods, analysts can anticipate crime trends and security agencies can take preventive measures to intervene.” From the forgoing, intelligence sharing is a useful element in community policing. It allows the police and members of community to exchange information on issues relating to crimes or social disorder. Thus, it is clarified as information plus analysis and fair distribution of the outcome by the Nigeria police to necessary stakeholders to curb, control, or manage crime and criminality. It is a helpful process to limit the opportunity for crimes and genocides being committed by the boko haram terrorist group, kidnappers, Fulani herdsmen and other armed banditries in Nigeria.

Problem-Solving Policing

The concept of problem-solving policing defied a unanimous definition. But, attempt to locate the meaning of the subject-matter is focused on the objectives set for this paper. Thus, only related definitions were captured and discussed. Dawodu (2007:106) defined it as “a new era of policing in Nigeria, which was celebrated as a philosophy of paradigm shift to problem solving” He buttressed his opinion when he quoted IGP Ehindero saying, “I came on board with a vision and a mission that have been developed over the years; a vision about the sort of police force of my dream” (Dawodu, 2007:112). As noted in Goldstein (1990), the opportunity for kidnappers, terrorists, and other bandits to commit crimes are mired and neighborhood enjoys freedom from threats to lives and properties when the police are preoccupied with crime prevention management on means over ends. This implies that police should develop a method, which would watch out for those elements that promote crime related issues and prevent them from translating into actual crime through teamwork spirit between the police and the neighborhood.

Adopting this perspective simply means that the traditional culture of incidence-driven and preclusion of public participation in policing is being shifted to police-community teamwork for addressing crime related or socio-economic problems (Goldstein, 1977). As crime issues have shared relationship between socio-economic problems and socio-economic controls, the new approach is expected to engage the Nigeria police on interacting with the various government agencies assigned to provide these services to trash out the identified crime related issues. To say the least, most of the crimes committed in Nigeria are almost impossible if the spirit of problem-solving policing is active. The police are to engage the stakeholders in constant town-hall meetings to identify crime related issues. These include welfare issues such as unemployment, poverty, ethno-religious intolerance, economic downturn, and policy summersault among others. According to Edo adage, “a hungry man is an angry man,” this suggests that there may be little or nothing the police can do to prevent a man who is hungry from looking for food to eat. The situation in Nigeria got deteriorated that the country has been listed among the eight hungriest nations of the world (Soni, 2019). This is probably why the rate of crime and criminality are growing high on daily basis as most Nigerians are now pushed to the status of perpetual famish. In this regards, it is not unlikely that when the socio-economic continue to depress and most Nigerians are languishing, people would be tempted to pursue stomach infrastructure adventure anyhow. Arase (2016) also supported problem solving model as he enjoined police officers to embrace it and to engage in holding town hall meetings with members of the community they are serving to jointly identify, discuss, and solve crime related issues to prevent them from translating into actual crime.

Offence

The concept of offence is interchangeably used as a crime. It is often used to refer to any act of wrongdoing, which makes a person doing such act to be sanctioned. Crime is a Latin word 'crimen,' meaning 'accusation' or 'fault.' When the words accusation and fault are married together, it would mean "a suspected offender." Adopting this clarification would digress a bit from the goal of this paper. This is because, in Nigeria situation; what is often recognised as a fault or wrongdoing in the North may be viewed as a mere moral act instead of wrongful act. Sections 387 and 388 of the Penal Code Act, 1960 defined adultery as a punishable wrongful act for a woman and a man in the North. In the contrary, the Criminal Code Act did not recognise such act as an offence in the Southern part of the same country. Some levels of inequalities are noticed in the award of punishment to offenders in the North and Southern parts of Nigeria. As contained in section 390 of the Criminal Code Act, 2004 that is used in the South, "any person who steals anything capable of being stolen is guilty of a felony, and is liable, if no other punishment is provided, to imprisonment for three years." In the case of the North, section 287 of the Penal Code Act, 1960 prescribed for a similar felonious offence as: "whoever commits theft shall be punished with imprisonment for a term which may extend to five years, or with fine, or with both." So, attempt to locate the meaning of an offence in Nigeria has always faced with a challenge of one acceptable definition. Notwithstanding the inconsistencies of the law, this paper adopted the definition of crime provided especially by the Criminal Code Act (2004).

Sections 2, 3, 7, 11, and 22 of the Criminal Code Act (2004) defined offence and described kinds of offence, the parties to offence with liability and ignorance of law. According to section 2 of the aforesaid law, "an act or omission, which renders the person doing the act or making the omission liable to punishment under any Act or law, is called an offence." Section 11 reinforced the meaning of offence when it stated that "a person shall not be punished for doing an act or omitting to do an act unless the act or omission constituted an offence under the law in force when it occurred." This suggests that except an act or omission is defined by law or any Act as an offence and punishment is prescribed, such an act is not actionable and no one can be arrested of doing such act or omitting to do such act. Section 3 named three kinds of offences as "felony, misdemeanour, and simple offence." It defined a felony as any offence, which is declared by law to be a felony, or is punishable, without proof of previous conviction, with death or with imprisonment for three years or more. A misdemeanour was defined by the Criminal Code as "any offence which is declared by law to be misdemeanour or is punishable by imprisonment for not less than six months but less than three years." As defined by the above law, "all offences, other than felonies and misdemeanours, are simple offences."

Going by the provision of section 7, "when an offence is committed, each of the following persons is deemed to have taken part in committing the offence and to be guilty of the offence; and may be charged with actually committing it." This is to say:

- (a) Every person who actually does the act or makes the omission, which constitutes the offence.
- (b) Every person who does or omits to do any act for the purpose of enabling or aiding another person to commit the offence.
- (c) Every person who aids another person in committing the offence.

(d) Any person who conceals or procures any other person to commit the offence (Criminal Code Act, 2004).

Furthermore, the law prescribed that “in the fourth case, he may be charged either with himself committing the offence, concealing, or procuring its commission. A conviction of concealing or procuring the commission of an offence entails the same consequences in all respects as a conviction of committing the offence,” (Criminal Code Act, 2004). In addition, the law held that any person who procures another to do or omit to do any of such act that if he had himself done the act or made the omission, the act or omission would have constituted an offence on his part, is guilty of an offence of the same kind, and is liable to the same punishment, as if he had himself done the act or made the omission; and he may be charged with himself for doing the act or making the omission (Criminal Code Act, 2004). Section 22 made clarification of claims of ignorance of law. As provided by law, ignorance of law does not afford any excuse for any act or omission, which would otherwise, constitutes an offence unless the knowledge of law by the offender is expressly declared to be an element of the offence (Criminal Code Act, 2004). This implies that the doctrine of “*ignorantia legis non excusat*” (ignorance of law is not an excuse) will hold in such offence.

From the above proceeding, an offence is used to mean crime. It is an illegal act that renders the offender liable for punishment as prescribed by law. With exception of the parties known to law, the police in their attempt to unravel the author of a crime are not expected to harass, interrogate, or apprehend any parent, relative, or guidance of ward who allegedly committed an offence. The influence of ethical imbalance and territorial value interests implicated the adoption of Criminal Code Act for Southern Nigeria and Penal Code Act for Northern Nigeria.

When there is no doubt that in a country that adopted two or more separate laws will experience unequal offence definition based on territorial value system. This is where the tenet of community policing favoured police deployment particularly of Inspectors and Rank and Files to their locality. Hence, it will be illogical for a rank and file police officer who is an indigene of Effik in Akwa Ibom State or Biu in Borno State to be deployed to protect people in Ago-Iwoye of Ogun State where such police officer is a complete stranger. The Ekti State Commissioner of Police, Tunde Mobayo supported this claim when he said that the police constables newly recruited into the Nigeria police force are to be posted to serve in the areas they come from and this will certainly reduce crime incidence and improve police performance (Oluwole, 2020).

Community

The term community has a common definitional challenge. In attempt to find its meaning, scholars chose to define it from their individual perspectives and the object of their interests. For instance, Igbo & Anugwon (2001:20) defined community as a “population, which occupies a given area and shares similar system of rules and regulations controlling relationship with each other.” As Umeban (2008:75) puts it, “community means “a social group occupying a defined geographical area and whose members share common interest, historical background, cultural value, economic activities as well as basic social institutions.” According to Dawodu (2007:106), Wilkins saw community as “the actual population, which occupies a given area bound to each other by a shared system of rules and regulations, which control their relationships with each other.” This definition is

similar to the one given by Igbo & Anugwon (2001). Relying on the above definitions, the term community has to do with people living together; sharing common value system; belonging to common locality and lineage as well as pursuing common social-economic activities for their life fulfilments. It is in this stance, that Gordner (2014) traced the root of community policing to active collaboration between the police and the neighbourhood residents that share common invested interests and exercising team-spirit policing to keep peace through crime prevention, and rediscovery of foot patrol activities to guarantee their welfare. Without community involvement in policing system, the assurance of police operative for timely crime related information and their knowledge about criminal behaviour would always be nominal and a foretelling adventure. This simply suggests that ability of the Nigeria police to obtain timely intelligence information from the community residents depend on building robust teamwork spirit with the neighbourhood inhabitants. Importantly, it implies that the police must not isolate the people. The police must build trust and reassure keeping peace and providing safety for them. How would community dwellers that are being molested by some overzealous police officers willing to give genuine intelligence information to the police?

The Imperative of Community Policing

The philosophical breadth of community policing varies. In line with its divergence scales of coverage, some thinkers argued that community policing is not an answer to all the police problems. To fully understand the importance of community model in policing industry, the view of Gordner (2014:1) is cited. As he puts it: “Community policing is an answer to some problems facing modern policing. Very few agencies can claim that they have fully adopted the entire gamut of community policing. Community policing is more serious about reducing crime and disorder than the superficial brand of incidence-oriented. There is neither ironclad precise definition of community policing nor a set of specific activities that must always be included. A set of universally applicable principles and elements can be identified, but exactly how they are implemented should and must vary from place to place, because, jurisdictions and police agencies have differing needs and circumstances.” The issue of geographical factor in conducting police business is emphasised from the above discourse. Apart from the fact that community policing is well underscored in Sir Robert Peel’s nine principles of police of 1829 as noted in Gordner (2014), the police ability to discharge their duties are hinged on public support. Hence, the police are being referred to as the public and the public as the police. In this sense, community policing is presented as transcendent method for keeping public peace, maintaining good order, preventing and deterring crime and disorder through police-public joint efforts (Dawodu, 2007 & Gordner, 2014). The application of community policing set principles is often determined by crime history, societal behaviour and value system. This is where situational crime prevention is favoured to reflect societal variance. From the above, community engagement, organisational transformation, problem solving, and organisational change among others are common tenets that would reflect the significance of community policing.

Supporting, Dawodu (2007:116) cited IGP Sunday Ehindero saying that “a paradigm shift to police-public partnership is a solution to police inability to solve the challenge of internal insecurity in Nigeria.” This indicated that there will be a hard

opportunity for criminals to commit crime and escape in any locality that practised active police-community engagement and collaboration in policing. For Onovo (2009), the Nigeria police force will continue to focus on building safer and stronger communities through the instrumentality of community policing. He noted that what matters to law-abiding citizens is ability of the police to respond to their security needs through police-public partnership. As documented by Ibrahim (2017), the former Inspector General of Police, Solomon Arase expressed dismay that Nigeria has lacked a proper policy for internal security since her independence. Speaking as guest lecturer at a conference on policing the Nigerian federation organised by the National Institute for Policy and Strategic Studies (NIPSS), tagged “towards integrating community policing in Nigeria’s security architecture,” IGP Arase identified community policing as viable model to fight against crime upheaval and maintain effective law and order in Nigeria. Buttressing his claim, he noted that in Nigeria, community policing was tested in twelve states and the outcome was positive.

From the discourse above, the activities involve in community policing are not just broad and vary from place to place; but, it has a wider span of elements loaded with array of activities. Parts of them are creating, maintaining, and strengthening synergies with avenues. These are meant to enhance police active participation in local sporting events including recreational and other relaxation or indoor affairs for building active police-public partnership; activating robust synergies with other security agencies to guarantee effective intelligence gathering and sharing; holding of regular town-hall meetings. This is concerned with all stakeholders such as the community development association with its allied units of other civil society groups consisting of the transport workers unions; unions of artisan, medical, teacher, journalist, student, labour, ethno-religious bodies, community leaders, private enterprises, market and traders association among others. Apart from rebranding and redefining the mission and vision of the police to bring the police and members of the public together for teamwork policing in Nigeria, it helps to keep peace, maintain good order; increase police performance; reassure public safety and rebuild public trust on police. It was noted that despite the fact that community policing is being suffocated with large activities and expanses, it is not about creating or recruiting ethnic militias or parallel military defence for territorial or maintaining local uniform police parallel outfit such as the Amotekun allegedly formed and kitted by the South-west Governments. Community policing is not about advocacy for state police system. It is about the police partnering with neighbourhood residents to fight, prevent, and control crime together in order to keep peace and provide safety.

The police and community participation in Nigeria

Nwanguma (2012) documented that the official integration of community policing model in Nigeria police system was launched by the Federal Government on 27th April, 2004 in which Enugu State Police Command was used as a trial. The evaluation report of the trial showed that within the period, Enugu state had impressive reduction in quite numbers of cases. Some of these cases are affray, burglary, murder, stealing, rape, bank robbery, highway robbery, human-trafficking, communal clash or tribal crisis among others. It also showed tremendous improvement on the mundane relationship between the police and members of the community. As Nwanguma (2012:54) rightly puts it, “the

outcome encouraged the police authority to include other eleven state police commands, which included Benue, Kano, Osun, Borno, Ogun, Abia, Anambra, Kaduna, Nasarawa, Edo, and Rivers that had history of high rates of crime.” According to Nigeria Police Force Report (2011), integration of community policing has not only assisted to reduce the threats associated with the rising crime and disorder in all the pilot state police commands including reduction in the daily occurrences of boko haram terrorism, Fulani herdsmen banditry, and other serious crimes in Benue, Borno, and Kano states; it has helped to reduce the rampant incidences of kidnapping, bank robbery, and other heinous crimes cases in Osun, Edo, Ogun, and Rivers states. Beyond this, Nwanguma (2012:118) observed “significance reduction of reported cases of police extortions, and extra-judicial killings” (The Dawn Newspaper, 2011; & Nwanguma, 2012). Emphasising the efficacy of the police-public teamwork, Alemika (2012) argued that the changing nature of communities and the shifting characteristics of crime like kidnapping for ransom, bank robbery, terrorism, corruption, ritual killings, and child-stealing among other violent crimes and public disorders are compelling reasons why the philosophy of community engagement in police system should not be ignored in Nigeria. This is also in tandem with what was observed in Bureau of Justice Assistance (1994) that innovative practice in which people are made to participate in policing within their localities will assist in curbing the eruption of violent-crimes and insecurity within many communities.

Dawodu, (2007:21) supported the above views when he said that “effective and efficient policing need the co-operation of the public within which the police operate.” It is probably, in this sense that Abba as quoted in the Nigeria Police Force Order (2014:1) issued the celebrated “Force Order 464” to re-educate the Nigeria police personnel on the need to focus on patrol activity as one of the primary police functions for effective crime prevention; familiarising themselves with members of the public; rebuilding public confidence and trust in them; and fostering community co-operation with the police among others. IGP Solomon Arase as cited in Ibrahim (2017:7) said there is no debate about the efficacy of community policing model for keeping peace and providing safety; security management and control. As he said, “even among police personnel themselves, a research carried out in 14 states discovered that if community policing strategy is adopted, it could assist to eradicate most of the challenges attributed to the traditional reactive police culture.” Yakubu (2019:1) equally documented that at the 11th National Development Summit of Traditional Rulers held in the Shehu Musa Yar’Adua Centre, Abuja held on 15th October, 2019, the Vice President Professor Yemi Osinbajo said that “a meticulous implementation of community policing would reduce internal insecurity and bring about peace and harmonious co-existence among Nigerians across the country.” This simply suggested that the integration of community policing into the Nigeria police force by the Federal Government on 27th April, 2004 has implementation challenge. Not contradicting the usefulness of community policing in Nigeria police system, Dandison (2007) held that police methods and technologies, such as motorised patrols and the use of rapid crime response techniques created greater rift between the police and members of the community. As he saw it, because the police officers no longer patrol their beats, they have difficulty to know the neighbourhood residents they are meant to serve and protect. This made the police to have less awareness and involvement in the problem of the community that they serve.

Abba (2014:1) pitched tent from his understanding of the tenets of community policing to re-orient the police personnel and re-activate the Nigeria police patrol system. As he puts it, “Patrol is the backbone of crime prevention duties.” Supporting, Arase (2016) maintained that modern policing and beat patrol strategies have expanded the roles of police beyond the traditional surveillance function of walking the beat alone. This indicates that members of the public would always expect the Nigeria police to provide an active and highly visible presence in the community to reassure the people of providing their safety needs and keeping peace in the community. But, if the fight against boko haram criminality and terrorism, Fulani herdsmen banditry, kidnapping, ritual and political killings in Nigeria among others is to be achieved through the integration of community based policing? Then, it should be expected that the Nigeria police and the Federal Government would not be in dilemma on how to reform the police to cope with the tensed insecurity across Nigeria? While the Nigeria police continue to receive thrash for its inability to keep peace and maintain security in Nigeria, the colossal killings and wanton destruction of lives and properties are increasing on daily basis. If the outcome of the community policing launched on 27th April, 2004 by the Federal Government was reported helpful in the twelve trial Police State Commands in Nigeria why was it abandoned?

Table 1: The Nigeria Police Operational Agenda for Crime Prevention Management in from 29th May 1999 to 31st January, 2021

S/N	Name	Tenure	Agenda
1	IGP. M.A.K Smith	1999-2002	6-Points Agenda “Operation Redeeming the Lost Glory”
2	IGP. T.A. Balogun	2002-2005	8-Points Agenda “Operation Fire For Fire”
3	IGP. S.G. Ehindero	2005-2007	7-Points Agenda “The Paradigm shifts in Police - Operation to serve and to protect with Integrity.
4	IGP. M.M. Okiro	2007-2009	9-Ways Test Agenda
5	IGP. H. A. Ringim	2010-2012	5-Point Agenda “Operation taking the Force to Greater Heights”
6	IGP. H. A. Ringim	2010-2012	5-Point Agenda “Operation taking the Force to Greater Heights”
7	IGP.M.D. Abubakar	2012-2014	6-Points Agenda “Operation Restore Hope”
8	IGP. S. Abba	2014-2015	8-Points Agenda “Operation leading the Force to its Prime”
9	IGP. S.E. Arase	2015-2016	8-Strategic Policing Plans “A Wake-up Call to the Nigeria Police Force”
10	IGP. I.K. Idris	2016-2019	10-Points Agenda “Police Welfare/War against Crime.
11	IGP.A.M. Adamu	2019-2021	Welfare Agenda “Operation Restore the Lost Glory”

12	AG. IGP U.B. Alkali	Incumbent	12-Points Agenda "Operation Restore Public Confidence in the Force"
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Source: *The Nigeria Police Force, 'B' Department Operations, 2021*

The data presented in table 1 above, showed a significant disconnect with active community policing in Nigeria police system. It revealed desperate efforts of each Inspector General of Police launching different agenda to keep peace, provide safety, fight crime, enforce law and maintain order. The data portrayed some challenges inability to institutionalise a common operational framework for crime control and management in the Nigeria police force. The data from the table showed most of the agenda overlapped and it indicated a sign of mere repetition. Hence, Ikuteyijo and Rotimi (2010:24) describe it as "rhetoric ritual. One lesson that we have learnt is that when government talks about police reform or when every new Inspector General of Police waves the banner of reform, they do so merely as an attention grabbing gesture and as an opportunity to spend more money and award contracts and none of the reforms has positively improved the insecurity in Nigeria." Apart from the challenge of professionalism, the data from the table showed the inability of the Federal Government to pay regular salaries to serving police officers; provide kit and accoutrement to the police. If at this moment of the 21st century, an Inspector General is made to pursue "regular payment of police salaries and supply a two pair uniform and shoe in a year," it indicted the Federal Government for not given adequate attention to keeping peace and providing safety for Nigerians. Would it be possible for police to keep peace and provide Nigerian safety needs with empty stomach? Or would the police go to work naked? If it is difficult for Federal to pay police salaries and provide their mere working uniforms, how is possible for the Federal Government to provide the required modern operational gadgets to keep peace and provide good order for Nigeria? In all, the data presented in table 1 captured the need to activate community policing system where the police would spend less public fund as the police and members of the community would work in collaboration.

Yakubu (2019) documented how the Vice President, Professor Yemi Osinbajo re-affirmed the commitment of the Federal Government to fully implement community policing model when he pleaded for supports of the traditional rulers across the country. As Ordu & Nnam (2017:85) put it "traditional rulers have roles in making the operation of community policing successful in Nigeria." As noted, traditional rulers have organised structures in which they interact with their subjects on daily basis. Since, the cabinet members of the traditional rulers consist of all the various community leaders who are drawn from all the clans, villages, districts, towns, and all the existing unions or associations, and interest groups such as the age grade, scavenger, hunter group, dance group, women group, opinion leaders, community development association, other occupational groups, and other groups within their area of jurisdictions, it will be difficult to breed or hide any criminal or cover crime. There is no gainsaying the fact that most of the criminals are well known in their various communities and sometimes, some policemen knew them. Thus, the criminals are not spirits and they are not living in the spirit world. Therefore, the bulk of intelligence information needed by the police to provide security and keep peace in their areas of responsibility will be gathered and shared within the areas. This is in line with Yoruba adage that "Kokoro to nje efo, ara efo lowa," meaning the

insect that eats vegetable resides inside the vegetable.” As a process, community policing bonds police with residents of the neighbourhood. It gets the community directly involved in solving both criminal and civil disorder. When traditional rulers and their subjects are well involved in policing, there would be little or no opportunities for crime and criminality within the localities.

The manner in which the Nigeria police have embarked on community policing recruitment of interested and qualified applicants with effect from 2020 is another issue of discourse. The prescribed conditions for recruitment of the new community policing constables required interested applicant to be between the age of 17 and 25 years. Also, every applicant is expected to possess National Identity Number (NIN); a minimum of five O’Level credits in not more than two sittings including English Language and Mathematics. However, an applicant with knock knees, bow legs, or bent knees is not qualified. In addition, a pregnant female applicant is not eligible (The Nigeria Police Force, Department of Training, 2020/2021). From public commentary, the new community policing constables are still being trained by police instructors or facilitators with old traditional policing orientations. They are being deployed to their place of origins but are posted to field duties under the control of their superior in ranks. From the understanding of this paper, these police constables are being trained and deployed to field work under the tutelage of their superior in ranks having orientation of the traditional policing system. Hence, the Nigeria police force is yet to integrate the kind of community policing that would enhance its performance. One notable value of this policy at the moment is the employment opportunity for the thousands of unemployed Nigerian youths who were looking for job over a long time. It reduces the acute shortage of manpower in Nigeria police.

The community policing that is needed in Nigeria

Arase as documented in Ibrahim (2017) expressed optimism that integrating community policing would assist in the fight against crime and maintenance of law and order in Nigeria. Buttressing his view, Dr Solomon Arase who is a former Inspector General of Police argued that community policing is historically the rock upon which policing and internal security management can be improved in Nigeria. To him, the local communities have practised community policing effectively long before the colonial period. But, since Nigeria got independence; the country is yet to adopt a workable national policy on internal security. On how community policing would work well for Nigeria, the former police chief advocated for effective police-public partnership to fight and prevent crime. This suggests that community policing policy in Nigeria should have distinct principles and pathways to strengthening public trust and building partnership between police and the citizens. It is in this sense, that the needed national policy on internal security will define corridors for the achievement of community policing vision. When late President Umar Musa Yar’Adua unfolded seven points’ agenda on 29th May, 2007 for effective governance, which consisted of tackling internal security conundrum; Nigerians expected the sitting Inspector General of Police, Mr Mike Okiro to handle the internal security aspect of the federal government agenda. As expected, the Police Chief presented some creative ideas to transform the Nigeria police force through introduction of “A Nine Way Test Agenda.” It focuses on crime prevention through community policing; re-

training and development of personnel for human capacity building; improvement on police-public relations; intelligence-led policing using neighbourhood and inter-agency collaboration to wage war against corruption and crime among others among others (Okiro, 2007). As Okiro noted, community policing is rooted to a systematic connection with the police and the people they serve. Therefore, the police responsibilities are not limited to law enforcement but to tackle a wide range of community problems. To realise such obligations, the police must be part of, and not apart from the community they are meant to serve (Okiro, 2007; & The Dawn Newspaper, 2011). Ikuteyijo (2009:286) said community policing entails community partnership in creating a safe and secure environment for all. It is a kind of policing whereby the people take active part in their own affairs. With community policing, “the police are not seen as a stranger whose presence stands for danger and imminent hazard but as partners in development.”

Drawing from the above point of views, this paper is concerned with the way and manner in which community policing would improve service delivery of the Nigeria police force; effectively reduce crime and criminality in Nigeria. It is about how to improve the unfriendly police-community relationship and how to integrate workable police-community engagement in policing. The paper is bordered on how to profitably activate police-public relations to develop neighbourhood watch approach; and heighten problem solving process to collaborate in sharing police functions with neighbourhood residents in attempt to keep the peace and provide the needed safety for all. This paper is about having a police system that is reliable, dependable and which can be on the same page with members of the public. This is the basis of relevance of the broken window theory.

In fact, the strategy of the kind of community policing that is appropriate and would be useful in Nigerian factor must be aligned with or rooted to the halls of the broken window theory. If the spirit of the police-neighbourhood teamwork is supported and well implemented in which the traditional rulers with their subjects are actively involved, there will be a limited opportunity for criminal to plan and execute crime. Also, it will be difficult for criminal to successfully maintain a hideout within the neighbourhood. All these views supported Okeshola & Mudiare (2013:134) who argued that “the police must share power with the residents of a community while key decisions should be made along with the neighbourhood dwellers.” In a nutshell, the paper has identified with the elements like change management, community partnership, community engagement, organisational transformation, and self-help, which are expected to reflect in application of community policing in Nigerian situation.

Change Management

The change management canvassed in this paper is that the Inspector General of Police should re-design soft patterns of new orientation and flexible managerial innovation for the neighbourhood residents to be actively involved in policing their areas. With this, members of the community will see themselves as parts of policing process in their areas in which they share invested interests. Hence, it was argued that a wise man does not allow doom to befall his ancestral home for he has no place to run to (Arase, 2016). If the field police officers are re-educated to courteously work with the community members rather than dictating what they should do and police actions are made to reflect public interest, there will be a limited opportunity for crime and criminal to be tolerated in Nigerian communities. This is in tandem with Abba (2014:7) who said that “beat patrol and tactical

operation points are universally acknowledged as the most effective tools of crime prevention. Other than detecting crime and arresting offenders on the run, the strategy affords the police opportunity of establishing close contact with members of the public in community-based policing.” In this sense, the new management approach of the Nigeria police force has equipped with the required ability to operate an active community policing; involve in solving problems in the community; create avenue in building common interest and development values for everyone in the community (Kelling, 1988; Dandison, 2007).

Community Partnership

The policing process in Nigeria is required to empower neighbourhood citizens to engage in crime prevention. This is achieved through active cooperation between the police and members of the neighbourhood in attempt to gather and share intelligence information to solve crime related and disorder issues (Okeshola & Mudiare (2013). This conformed to Ikuteyijo (2009) who maintained that police-community partnerships formed in support of community crime prevention efforts shall always provide a framework for engaging citizens to assist the law enforcement agent in gaining wide and easy access into valuable community information. While the Nigeria police force is expected to employ adequate police personnel, police-community teamwork spirit is emphasised to unravel the grip of boko haram terrorist group, Fulani herdsmen banditry, kidnappers and other criminals in Nigeria who are expected to vanish like smoke when the police-community partnership is active.

Community Engagement

According to Okiro (2007), community engagement is inseparable from police-community partnership. It is a major point of departure from the incidence-based traditional policing in Nigeria to engage neighbourhood stakeholders for effective control and management crime and disorder. By engaging the neighbourhood residents, the police will not just have easy and timely access to covert crime related information; but, the police are able to engage the neighbourhood teamwork spirit to keep peace, maintain security and sustain build mutual relationship and public trust. This view is conformed to Kelling (1988) that the ability of community members to produce dynamic neighbourhood watch network and protect them against predators are stimulated by police. This was also the position of Zhao (2003) who posited that the police need to pay much attention to how communities mobilise and develop trust for engaging in police-public teamwork policing.

Organisational Transformation

How would the community policing fit into the Nigeria police system that was cultured and familiar with the traditional policing model that has always alienated neighbourhood residents from police functions; is what this paper is concerned with. This supported Kelling (1988) that the police would radically alter its reactive traditional policing model to suit the requirement of people-oriented police system. Similarly, Goldstein (1990) argued that the philosophy of community policing is at survival risk, if the police failed to change its old orientation and still get on with the traditional ways alongside with the community policing. Therefore, the stance of this paper is well acknowledged in Brown (2009) that organisational transformation is a driver of community engagement, self-help, problem solving, change management, and police-community

partnership in attempt to properly implement the ethos of community policing. Without re-orientation, the issue of integrating community policing would be unrealistic in the Nigeria police force.

Self-Help

As Arase (2016) remarked, the idea of community policing as a shift from the pre-colonial traditional policing perspective has a lot of charming things to bear. Most importantly, it hugs on ‘do-it-yourself’ way of control and management of crime. What this implies is for the Nigeria police force to genuinely allow members of the neighbourhood to participate in keeping peace, securing and protecting their own areas. The paper aligned with Arase (2016) that community policing paves way for the neighbourhood dwellers to actively develop and implement ranges of self-help projects and activities that promote their shared interests and improve the quality of their living standard. It also identified with Abba (2014) that community policing is hinged on the belief that fellow citizens protect and serve themselves through ranges of self-initiated laudable programmes.

Conclusion

The paper assessed the relevance of community policing approach in Nigeria. As a theoretical model, community policing is focused on bringing the police and public together to engage and participate in policing in order to prevent crime and keep peace; maintain law and order; and guarantee safety and freedom to make life meaningful for everyone. It is contended that where the Nigeria police and residents of every community in Nigeria is encouraged to work together as a team, the chances of the alleged boko haram terrorist sect, Fulani herdsmen banditry, and other hoodlums to carry-out crime activities and escape undetected in any community are very constricted. With this in practice, the issue of threats arising from boko haram sect, farmers-herdsmen, ritualism, political assassin and thugs, kidnappers, or other banditries shall be surmounted and Nigeria will be a safer place for all.

The paper observed that community policing is yet to have positive effect on crime reduction and maintenance of peace in Nigeria. As the study noted, a feedback of the community policing integrated to the police system on 27th April 2004 showed an impressive outcome in the twelve selected pilot States (Dawodu, 2007; The Dawn Newspaper, 2011; Nwanguma, 2012; & Ibrahim, 2017). But, it failed to be sustained due to reasons of policy summersault and inability to discard the traditional policing system in the country.

Based on the constant stream of insecurity in Nigeria, the Federal Government re-introduced community policing system in 2020 and its implementation commenced with recruitment and training of community policing constables. However, these set of police officers were trained by police instructors with traditional police orientations and deployed to their place of origins to perform their police duties under the supervision of their superiors who are still traditional policing practitioners. Of truth, the recruitment exercise seems to be useful in strengthening the police manpower problem. Also, it has helped to reduce the stream of unemployed youths who have stayed idle in Nigeria streets. So, there is no gainsaying the fact that the kind of community policing presently adopted in Nigeria

was inappropriate and not good enough to achieve peace and maintain good order. Consequently, the level of crimes and criminalities has continued to grow worse daily in Nigeria while the unfriendly relationship between the police and members of the public continue to be deepened. This was manifested in the recent “#EndSARS” protests in Nigeria, which has destroyed colossal lives and valuable properties (Okolie & Ezirim, 2020). Also, Adeniji (2021:4) documented the worries of Professor Wole Soyinka over the daily killings and kidnappings of innocent people across Nigeria and allegedly told the Federal Government that “Youths should not serve as ritual offering on the altar of a failing state.” This is what Arase (2016:5) referred to as “a wake-up call” for the Nigeria police to embrace an active community engagement in policing Nigeria.

Therefore, the paper concluded that community policing model, which brings police and members of the neighbourhood together for teamwork would have positive effects on crime reduction; promoting peace and order; ensuring freedom; enhancing police-public friendly relations and trust; making Nigeria safer, comfortable and habitable place for everyone when it is properly maintained and implemented. The paper advised that any government or police effort to abate the stream of insecurity and venoms of disorder in Nigeria without sincerity and active police-community engagement would remain an act of building a castle on the air. This should not be misconstrued because; when most Nigerians believed that government is unfair; when most Nigerians lost trust on security agencies; when most Nigerians perceived the police as their worst enemies; when most Nigerians concealed criminal and crime; and when the philosophy that fosters the police-public teamwork for solving problems together in the community is blatantly ignored? Except all the aforementioned are well corrected, then, any government or police agenda to keep peace and enforce law to enhance a safer, habitable, and comfortable Nigeria will at best be a transitory daydream.

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THE STATE OF POLITICS, GOVERNANCE AND DEMOCRACY IN NIGERIA

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Abstract: *Over the decades, there has been a recurrent and sustained argument that the Nigerian State, like its counterpart in African and other countries of the developing world, under performs due to lack of state capacity to deal with the contemporary complexities of governance. This paper examines the state of politics, governance and democracy in Nigeria and asserted the factors militating against, the promotion of public goods and effective service delivery in Nigeria. As government is about service delivery in continuity and contingency not negating the pivotal state and the cardinal force of politics as the contraption of both elements birth or gives an expressive definition to the institution of a state as a human entity or society. The article draws data from secondary and primary sources, which include the author's close observations of events in Nigeria Governance, politics and political parties while secondary sources entails journal articles, textbook, newspapers including published and unpublished text. The study observed in Nigeria that politics have been driven by self interest and other primordial tendencies which take priority over that of public interest. As it is smiling to mention that democratic government is adduced to be the widely accepted system of government among other form of government; it is accepted because it gives political sovereignty to the people were their will, aspirations, needs and demand are supposed to be guarantee by the state which is the coordinating system that stand as the tool of instrument to encompass all interests within it. The study enunciated that the Nigeria state is challenged with multifaceted challenges such as crisis of governance, utility and deployment of state power, state and management of security among other attendant problems. The paper recommends state reform across the Nigeria; national interest should supersede individual one, emergence of young politicians who are enthusiastic and competent.*

Introduction

Nigeria has a country is regarded as the giant of the African continent with her large population as well as good land mass area laden with numerous natural resources. As a state that enjoys such pride among comity of nations within the continent, much is expected in her leadership role of maintaining and practicing the tenets of democracy to the letter, where there exist the indices of sustainable development, good governance, security and piquant government. However, despite are enjoyed position it is not mean to mention that the country is bedeviled with several strands of attribute that keep receding the system which posit that there is mileage between its vantage position and the empirical reality. This again has consistently caused a reminiscent in the mind of people, country and nations within the continent on the causative factors that continue to put the country in sorry state even after over fifty years of independence as a sovereign state in the world.

The concept of state

The concept of state could be traced to the two main traditions, the Weberian (Weber, 1964, and the Marxist (Marx and Engels 1852/1958). For Max Weber, a state is a human community that successfully claims the monopoly of the legitimate use of physical force in a given territory. The emphasis here is on the claim to the monopoly of the use of force indeed, Weber saw the state as institution existing to safeguard and regulate the society Marxist reject the position of the liberal theory that the state is basically neutral and stand aside to mediate the contradiction inherent in the society (Best, 1990). The state is however, regarded as a product of social system characterized by class contradictions, struggles and class domination. It is a specific modality of class domination as mentioned in (Ake, 1995). In the communist manifesto, the state are construed as an agent of the bourgeoisie, thus the executive of the modern state is a committee for managing the common affairs of the bourgeoisie. The state as a human institution is identified with other broader concepts such as:

Polity

This is known to be the biggest political entity with its own autonomy. In a polity there is government created and entrusted with the legal recognition and power to rule over the terrain and populace under its control. In its operation there exist hierarchy and administrative control (Paul, 2014).

Polis

The term polis is said to be political entity that is typical to the ancient and classical Greek civilization during the fourth to the eight centuries which is connected to the community of humanity in a determinate geographical jurisdiction. The polis in this sense was not just a society out was attributed and affiliated with transgenic rational lastingness and a trans-family identity, where members of the community feel a sense of solidity transcending among all ties of blood (Akpatu 20210)

Polity

Polity is known to be the biggest political space with his own autonomy. In a polity, there is a government created and entrusted with the legal recognition and power to rule over the terrain and populace under its control (Oweii, 2016). It has operational etymological indices such as hierarchical echelons and control of administrative structures that are measured or observed.

Empire

The term empire can be described as a group of states that are widely governed by a monarch, oligarchy or a powerful sovereign state. An empire is formed when one powerful state is able to extend power beyond its boundaries to govern other states who in this case are not autonomous in their one (Okpetu, 2017). Here, the governed states are regulated by the policies of the superior state. The superior state becomes a hegemony that has the capacity and ability to widen it hegemonic measures over the America space (Ayala, 2015).

Government

This refers to a group of people that form an administrative and managerial bureaucracy for the purpose of controlling state apparatus in a particular point time (Onokpauna, 2018). A state exists or is well galvanized through the formation of a government. It becomes an institution responsible for the continuous succession of diverse government or regime.

Nation and national state

A nation is a population of people who are bound together by common culture, history, religion or tradition and atypically concentrated within a specified geographical reality or religion. However, a nation-state is basically bound together by a culture that is common among its nation (Israel, 2010).

Statehood, stateness and sovereignty

According to Zaytsew (2016) a state is a polity typology which is basically categorized by two fiscal parameters namely statehood and stateness. Statehood refers to the scenario where individual states are being recognized as unit or its own on the global scene while stateness refers to the concert of nations. Examples of such concert are united nations organization, European nations and many more (Okpula, 2019) However, sovereignty refers to its ability to maintain itself without external control or mastery. It is unsurprising when Ari, 2010 refers to it as the source of liberties and rights to its people.

Bureaucracy

The state apparatus is run by a bureaucracy of officials. It is a social mechanism that maximizes efficiency in the administration of benefits in the state in terms of merit (Power, 2014).

Geographical location

A state can occupy any place be it an Island, Peninsula or an entire continent (Agbafe, 2001)

The concept of politics

The changing nature of politics makes, it intricate, complex and more difficult than the physical sciences. This is due to the changing nature and the complexities of man. However, the noun word politics is derived from a Greek word polis which means city-state. The inhabitants of the city state are naturally citizens (kepedi, 2013). No wonder politics is essentially a struggle a battle and an attempt to establish order and justice it is in this light that politics can be seen from the subjective idealism or an ideal philosophical concept and existential which is the view from the point of reality. This connect that, politics cannot be separated from the real political world. In the word of a Danish philosopher popularized by Sarte (1905) it is an indifferent and hostile world. This statement was corroborated by Aristotle (384-322 Bi) when he observed that man by nature is a Political animal and by this he meant that the essence of social existence is politics and that two or more men interacting with one another are invariably involved in a political

relationship. This is so because man from time immemorial prefers social companionship to isolation. Several proponents conceptualized the term of politics as follows.

Harold Laeswell (1937) in his famous book politics defines it as being concerned with that get what, when and how. He attempt to expand the horizon of the enquire to look for politics in many other social settings other than formal public government. It helps underline the fact that politics is about decisions made by people concerning certain objectives which they considered desirable. Harold Laeswell in his definition lays emphasis on, the role of power in the distribution of scarce resources.

According to David Easton in his political system (1953) surmises politics as a process through which binding decisions on the distribution of scarce values are made for a society in a world of change. It is in this light that he views politics as the authoritative allocation of values in an organized society thus, Easton examines the relationship between what goes into the system as demand and what comes out as decisions. In the understanding of Ola (1995) it is dealing with power, to him it is the management and administration of power within an existing nation state and community which is an aggregate of people with shared boundaries, values and some mutual interests, feelings and behavior. From a pluralist perspective, politics involves competitiveness between a variety of interest group each pressing for its own advantage. Since no one group is seen to be dominant politics is therefore a business of bargaining and compromise. However the liberal and Marxist view of politics shall be extricated in the works in relation to their biography.

The liberal view on politics

The leading exponent of the liberal view of politics is max weber the German sociologist and social historian. Weber was born in 1864. His father who came from a family of textile manufactures in western Germany who was a well-to-do Lawyer and national liberal Parliamentarian in the Germany of Bismarck (Agbefe 2001). His mother was a woman of culture and piety whose humanitarian and religious interest were not shared by her husband, He spent most of His life in his present home a meeting place for both prominent liberal Politicians and celebrated Professors from the university of Berlin. After completing school in 1882, he attended the University of Heidelberg as a law Student. A year later at the age of nineteen he went to Strasbourg to save his year of military training and returned to the army for brief period of military exercise in 1885, 1887 and 1888. After two more years at the universities of Berlin and hottingen, he took his examination in-law in 1886 while continuing his studies at Berlin .His independent academic work began in the fields of law and legal history. After completing his dissertation he started the in-service training required for the German bench or bar. During this training he became acquainted first hand with the social and political problems of the agrarian society in the east province of the Elbe river. At the same time he began a study of legal institutions which was formally to qualify him as an instructor in law at the University of Berlin (Arthur, 1930). However, while completing this dissertation, he prepared himself for his duties as an privaldozent in Roman, German and commercial law at the university of Berlin. He also undertook an extensive investigation of rural labour in the German provinces east of Thelma, which led to the publication of 900 page volume in 1892, besides instigating the stock exchange. In 1852, besides investigating the stock exchange, In 1893 he married Marianne Schnitger and at least left his parents' home. In the fall of 1894 he became a full professor of economics at Frciburg University of Heldeberg. In the fall of 1897, when he was thirty

three, Weber fell ill and was forced to reduce and finally suspend his regular academic work. For four years, he suffered from an acute state of exhaustion and anxiety even small diversions proved too tasking to him at times and this apparently vigorous man would sit for hours at the window staring into space. After almost four years he seemed to recover gradually and resumed his habit of omnivorous reading. Some of it was concerned with the history, organization and economic activities of the medieval monasteries. In 1904, he accepted an invitation to visit the United States and participate in the congress of arts and sciences held in connection with the world's fair at St Louis. In the same year, the first results of his resumed scholarly activities were published such as. An Essay on methodology A discussion of Agrarian Policies in Eastern Germany, the protestant ethics and the spirit of capitalism In 1918 he became a consultant to the German Armistice commission in Versailles and to a commission charged with the responsibilities of drafting the Weimar constitution. In the summer of that year, he also taught at the University of Vienna and in 1919 he accepted an offer from the University of Munich. In June 1920, he died of Pneumonia at the age of fifty-six. Pointedly the Liberal view of politics is centered on power which they conceived as the manner in which people get what they want even in the face of opposition. Upon this fact that Max Weber (1920) defines power as the degree to which they conceived as the manner in which people get what they want even in the face of opposition. Upon this fact that Max Weber (1920) defines power as the degree to which people get their own way in a social relationship.

Here, power is a social relationship held in relation to others. So power drives politics, further more Weber gleaned power as the chance of a man or a number of men to realize their own will in a communal action even against the resistance of others who are participating in the action. From the Weberian preposition of power we can succinctly eulogize the tenets of the liberal view of politics as follows:

- Recognizes the importance of the economy but does not give it the deterministic role, rather a diverse interest roles were acknowledged
- Power Engineer politics: politics is human activities that are directed towards and indeed reflected in the process of acquiring, using and maintaining power.
- It is the sum totality of all these activities that are harvested toward determined public policies and the means of implementing such policies
- Politics are these interactions through which values are authoritatively allocated for the society
- Politics symbolize the acquisition and utilization of power

The Marxist view on politics

This school of thought has strong horizon to Karl Marx who was born at Treves in Germany in 1818. The son of a Jewish Lawyer who later became Christian, he got involved in political activities early in his life. In 1848 the year in which there was serious revolt in most of the kingdoms of Europe, Marx publicly urged the people of Cologne should not pay the taxes imposed upon them by the Prussian government for which he was tried for sedition but acquitted by the jury. Later he was expelled by the authorities when upon he came to England where he lived and still preoccupied himself with politics and wrote political writings until his death in 1883 (Marxist 1863 *Das Kapital*). In his work the communist manifesto (1848) with Engels they all concerned themselves exclusively with one or another aspect of what was called politics. Though Marx spent all his life in political

activity, for him economic was the basic factor or drive to politics. So, human history exists in the principle of class and exploitation. The Marxism understanding of politics is hinged on his sense and visions on society and the individual. For him:

- Economic Drives Politics
- Politics is a secondary affair due to his believes that its revolution is determined by economics. Economics governs everything such as religion, morality and politics.
- Politics is an activity that is very secondary to the fundamental necessities of living to wring personal security from scare resources. Politics is a conflict of interest arising from difference in the orientations and attitudes from political struggle which arise from conflict among classes and social change.
- Political conflict will only cease with the elimination of the market and of classes in the society.

Politics of the Nigeria State: A Phisique

The Nigeria State as an entity can be traced to the colonial administration of the Northern and Southern protectorate in 1914 where both entity were contrapted as a simple while for the purpose of administrative convenience and rulership to the 400 of the indirect rule in 1900 (Eregha, 2008). This period witness the fragmentation of Nigerian into certain Sub-divisions which involves the crown colony in the place of Lagos and Calabar and the protectorate referring to other region s of the country. The institutionalization of imperialism principle was used by the British to protect their Metro-politan interest (Toyo, 2002). However, the period of nationalist movement witnessed intense class struggle between the dominant indigenous social class and the metropolitan bourgeoisie which entails the battle for the control of state apparatus. Thus after independence the character of the of the nationalist leader began to show in them particularly when they began to assume position, no wonder Fandakinte (2010) opined that they appear not to bother themselves about the abject conditions of their people and the inherent injustice which colonialism has created in the societies. The petty bourgeoisie now in position of political authority focused more on relations of distribution and were more desirous of imbibing the life style and priviledges of colonialism than in abolishing in justice and oppression of the Nigerian State (Ekekwe 1986). Thus at independence the common enemy was eliminated and the masses were confronted with an indigenous ruling class which was content to inherit the colonial economy with no aim of re forming it.

Also, at independence Nigeria began to evolve a political class that was made up of those who took over from the colonial state hierarchy. Members of the class were made up of western capital agents who came to power to execute policies that were necessarily geared towards promoting the interest of the metropolitan bourgeoisie. This gave rise to the capitalist forces (Drake, 2010) This is led to a crisis of nation-building characterized by hegemonic struggles for access to power at the center and the birth of the 1979 constitution which was a watershed experience in Nigeria's constitutional development, the subsequent party politics that emerged was not much different from what existed in post- independent Nigeria. Political parties were formed along ethnic lines, while the political class politicized the ethnic divides. Invariably what ensued from the symptoms of in competence, ignorance and corruption was politics of bitterness and winner takes all rather than politics of tolerance. The Nigeria State witness further crisis relating to revenue

allocation, state creation, civil war, power-sharing and coup d'état that almost led to the disintegration of the political entity (Omoyibo2020). Since then, Nigeria has been bedeviled by claims of marginalization, separatist agitations, resource control, inter-communal conflicts and insurgency. Terrorist attacks and rejection of the Nigerian state have become new threat to the co-operate existence of the country. It was perhaps the need to arrest some of these crises, promote national unity and command loyalty of all that led to the Federal character principle and the quota system as affirmative action to ensure a sense of belonging and loyalty to the federation. Thus, the Federal character principle demands that government activities and institutions must, reflect the diverse ethnic groupings that constitute the geographic expression called Nigeria (section 14, 1999 constitution) unfortunately, the reason for enacting this principle was defeated as the dominant and ruling classes distorted its, use for selfish ends. The principle enabled them to sponsor candidates to high political positions, increasing their influence and undermining the spirit of the principle. According to Eze (2009) invariably, policies, programmes, ascendancy to position of power and influence, wealth and security were determined by a few individuals that re-cycled themselves or their relations and children into power and position of authority in a patron-client relationship as government business and activities became personalized, laws became personified and dissent opposition to policies and power then became suicidal as the Nigeria state became privatized (Ivie,2020). That the character of the Nigeria state is worrisome is not in doubt as over fifty years of political independence the country is still reeling from vociferous and sometimes violent challenges to its power and hegemony in various parts of the country particularly in the East, the Niger Delta, the west, the middle belt and the North East where insurgency and terrorism is ranting led by Boko-haram. After over fifty years, the country today is more insecure, less stable and less confidence than it was at independence in spite of the billions of dollars earned from the sale of crude oil and gas. The citizens are on a daily basis assaulted, maimed or killed by either the police or armed robbers and assassins visited with sectarian crisis that the state appears incapable of resolving decimated by the scourge of poverty and ravaged by bribery and corruption is low and high places. The citizen's agony is compounded by the lack of basis infrastructure such as motor able roads, electricity and portable water as well as other basic amenities which are taken for granted in many other countries (Vanguard Newspaper, 2020)

Political Parties and Democratic governance in Nigeria

The character of the state and its polities is core to understanding the performance of the leadership of political parties and democratic governance in Nigeria. Democratic governance in the first republic was largely plague by political corruption, kleptocracy and nepotism democratic governance by political parties was characterized by the sacrifice of governance and nation building on the altar of ethnic, parochial and personal interest (Aliu, 2013:39). The conspicuous mobilization and manipulation of ethno-religious sentiment to acquire and consolidate state power and ensure economic control were major attributes of political parties and politicians of the first republic (Selotu, 2005). This development, partly resulted in the unhealthy rivalry and tension among Nigerians and the dangerous conflagrations that enveloped the first republic as exemplified by the 1902 and 1963 census crisis (Omodia, 2013). Thus, democratic governance as steered by political parties in the

second republic started October 1, 1979 and marked the termination of the January 15, 1966 military intervention in Nigeria in politics. The failure of democratic governance to enhance the delivery of public goods and services and promote societal peace and stability dominated national discourse copiously, Nigeria has to cope with the problems of ineptitude on the part of the political leadership, widespread political corruption, identity based politics, massive electoral malpractices as well as apolitically motivated violence until the overthrow of the second republic by the military (Ogundiya, 2009). Thus, the annulment of the June 12, 1993 presidential elections caused another setback to the whims and caprices of democracy in Nigeria because it could have cemented the smooth transition to legitimate governance.

Upon the emergence of democratic governance in 1999 there were great expectations of hope, accountability, transparency, popular participation and improved economic wellbeing of the people (Aliu, 2013:39). The high hopes expressed by most Nigerians were borne out of the recognition that in the previous republic, democratic governance was mismanaged by political parties and the ruling elite with a great blight on the quality of governance, economic development and welfare of the people. In this republic the media, civil organizations seem to enjoy greater freedom and liberties. The legislature as the bastion was highly regarded (Fashgbeya, 2010). This experience gave room to some degree of checks and balances in governance (Ibe, 2014), it is smiling to mention that the spectacular regime of Olusegun Obasanjo led to the wide use of the global system for mobile communication, new salary scale for civil servant and the debt rules secured for the country. Other attendant successes are the passage of freedom of information bill, respect for the rule of law, establishment of nine federal universities and the deregulation of the downstream sector by preceding administrations (Igba, 2021). Despite these cardinal achievements, political parties and leadership are still fraught with weaknesses which evolve from persistent shortage of food, employment, security, portable water, accessible healthcare, road. The widespread manifestation of insecurity in the form of armed robbery, kidnapping, banditry and insurgency explain the precarious state of the country (Omtola, 2008). It is of this view that Ikelegbe (2020) enunciated some of the visible problems of Nigeria governance in Nigeria which entails:

Crisis of governance

The Federal government approach to governance in recent times has been described as slow, inactive and reactive. For example, herders attacks and associated atrocities have not had concerted state response, as the perpetrators are hardly arrested and prosecuted. There is a sense of Federal government tolerance, inaction and inattention which have been reinforcing impunity and expansiveness with which the crimes are conducted without any form of punishment. Freedom house report (2020) on freedom and democratic trends in the world rank Nigeria as partly free but is one of the seven countries in Africa that have experienced notable decline in democratic governance and respect for human rights.

Utility and Development of State Power

Governance is increasingly concentrated in a few aides to the president popularly known as cabals whose composition, interest and goals seem to be narrow and identity based. Federal character, balance quota-system and equity have been thrown to the wind.

The State and the Management of Security

Conflict, violence and criminality have been in the rise and increasingly households are becoming exposed to violent incidences including crime, cultism, resources dispute, communal and religious conflict and terrorism (World Bank & NBS 2018)

Conclusion

Nigeria as a country is faced with national identity crisis where her citizens are like orphans that are left to the fate of the society. These challenges have leadership crisis as its main precursor. And a state that cannot perform its primary responsibility of security to its people has lost her internal and external sovereignty where citizens are naturally forced to return to brute force in the place of civility.

Recommendations

- There should be state reforms across the Niger. Reformation should begin from the basic cradle of leadership to the apex.
- National interest should supersede individual interest
- There should be an emergence of the young ones who are patriotic and competent that may be able to champion national and populist courses.
- There should be sincere conceptualization of leadership and development in Nigeria
- The character and values for modesty should be recapitulated in every hook and cranny of the nation.

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FINANCE

THE ROLE OF LOCAL GOVERNMENTS IN MANAGING EU STRUCTURAL FUNDS FOR ENTREPRENEURIAL DEVELOPMENT

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Abstract: *The EU provides financial support to promote economic development, but the results of development policies are affected by different of actors, among which public administration is particularly important. The goal of this paper is to investigate both the role of local authorities in the management of European structural funds intended for entrepreneurial development, and the role of other users of these funds. Applying the GLS method on a sample composed by the 116 Italian provincial capitals and considering the period 2014-2017 (n. 464 observations), our findings show that local governments produced higher positive impact, than other actors, in managing EU structural funds for local entrepreneurial development. Finally, we suggest policy making and managerial implications arising from the research findings.*

Keywords: *public management; local government; EU structural funds; entrepreneurial development*

Introduction

The EU provides financial support to promote economic development and social inclusion through the so called structural funds (Zerbinati, 2012). They are aimed at increasing long-term growth facing economic crisis in order to face and reduce its negative effects. Therefore, structural funds are particularly relevant in times like the one the world is going through, characterized by a pandemic that creates profound health and economic difficulties (Arbolino and Di Cairo, 2021). European structural funds can be a supporting element for economic development (Murzyn, 2020) related to both profit and non-profit organizations (Potluka et al., 2017).

Specifically, in this paper the entrepreneurial level (in terms of difference between registered companies and deceased companies in a fiscal year) is considered as an indicator of economic development (Namise et al. 2019): in effect, it is an important source of the gross domestic product that is widely used as an indicator of economic development. The

hypothetical success or failure of development policies is affected by a variety of supporting factors that are interconnected and involve a plurality of actors (Casula, 2020). Among these, it must be considered that the theme of economic development includes the role of a key player in programming and implementing economic development policies represented by public administrations (Calcagnini and Perugini, 2019). This is a particularly topical theme considering the Sustainable Development Goal n. 8 of the U.N. 2030 Agenda. In effect, it states: “Promote development-oriented policies that support productive activities, decent job creation, entrepreneurship, creativity and innovation, and encourage the formalization and growth of micro-, small- and medium-sized enterprises, including through access to financial services.”

From these aspects the object of the paper arises. It is to investigate the role of local governments in managing EU structural funds addressed to economic development and to compare it to the role of other players. In order to achieve the stated objective, the article is structured as follows. Section 2 analyzes literature contributions on the relevance of the European structural funds for the economic development highlighting the role played by public sector organizations in implementing economic development policies. This allows us to define the research hypothesis that drive the paper. Section 3 describes the sample, the dependent/independent variables and their sources and the descriptive statistics. Section 4 is focused on research methodology, analysis and its results. Section 5 summarizes discussion on the results and finally, section 6 contains some concluding remarks and further research opportunities.

Theoretical framework and research question

From a theoretical point of view, market imperfections such as other reasons can justify public intervention. A particular type of public intervention is represented by financial supports that, in the European area, can specifically assume importance in terms of structural funds. They are aimed at increasing long-term growth in backwards areas supporting sustainability and, since 2008, the EU Commission encouraged using the funds to tackle the negative effects of the economic crisis. A huge amount of money is addressed to regional cohesion policy by the European Union that allocates to this aim about one-third of its budget for each programming period (Dall’Erba and Fang, 2017). Since their inception and until more recent times, European structural funds have been analyzed by scholars both in terms of their contribution to economic development (Nurse and Fulton, 2017) and in terms of reducing the economic gap between different regions (Czudec et al., 2019).

Entrepreneurship has a relevant role as a driver of worldwide economic and social growth considering that a large part of economic growth comes from entrepreneurial activities (Reynolds et al., 2000). In effect, entrepreneurship has enabled innovations that have positive impacts on quality of life, poverty and unemployment reduction, and opportunities for economic and social mobility (Yusuf, 2010). This mention of the importance of entrepreneurship for the economic development, allow us to put in evidence the issue of the effectiveness of European Union structural funds for entrepreneurship. These funds should face entrepreneurial vulnerability, especially in the start-up phase, reducing high failure rates. Starting and managing a business requires many different skills and resources. Entrepreneurs need the right mix of capital (ranging from human and social

capital to physical capital) to succeed in a sustainable way. When unable to achieve the right combination of resources, entrepreneurs need external support to fill the gap. At the same time, public administration can be considered a key actor in supporting economic development (Calcagnini and Perugini, 2019) and, therefore, entrepreneurship. In particular, sub-national players (Dabrowsky, 2013), as local authorities, take on particular relevance in view of both their "proximity" to the economic fabric and their institutional role in governing the territory.

The impact of structural funds, in effect, is also studied in terms of effect on domestic policy actor, using the concept of Europeanization (Mendez et al., 2008; Ferry, 2007; Leonardi, 2005). Some authors find that structural funds can positively affect economic growth (e.g.: Garcia-Solanes & Maria-Dolores, 2002; Lolos, 2009), while other authors do not show significant findings (Dall'erba and Le Gallo, 2008; Esposti and Bussoletti, 2008).

On the basis of the above literature premises, we aim to contribute to the scientific debate on the role of local authorities in the management of European structural funds intended for entrepreneurial development. In particular, this is done in order to verify the existence of a link between the European funds received and used by local authorities following the presentation of projects for economic development, and the entrepreneurial turnaround in the local area.

From this, the first research hypothesis arises:

HP1: "EU structural funds received by local governments have a positive impact on local entrepreneurship".

In order to be able to deepen the analysis, we also consider European structural funds intended for entrepreneurship and managed in the municipal area by entities other than local governments (Dabrowsky, 2013). Therefore, in formulating the second research hypothesis, even in the case of other users, we consider what the literature highlights about the positive impact of European funds on economic development (e.g. Faina et al., 2020). In fact, the potential success or failure of policies addressed to economic development is influenced by a plurality of interacting actors (Casula, 2020). Consequently, it is interesting to investigate the impact on economic development of the European structural funds when they are managed by players other than local governments.

Following, the second research hypothesis:

HP2: "EU structural funds received by other than local governments have a positive impact on local entrepreneurship".

This will allow us a comparative analysis between the role of local governments and the role of other users of European structural funds aimed at entrepreneurial development. An additional element of novelty of the present work is represented by the fact that literature often utilizes the amount of structural funds which are programmed or committed (Aiello and Pupo, 2012), while we use the actual payments.

Sample, data and descriptive statistics

The sample analyzed is composed by the 116 Italian provincial capitals for which we considered both the amounts of EU structural funds addressed to the municipal territory and the entrepreneurial turnaround (that is the difference between registered companies and deceased companies). Following the availability of data, we considered the 2007-2013 European funds programming cycle using the euros of European funds disbursed and allocated to those destinations most directly concerned the economic development that have a greater link to entrepreneurial turnaround. To this end, we took in consideration secondary data (OpenCoesione data set, an online open government initiative on cohesion policies in Italy) and, in particular, we selected the amounts addressed to several sectors for the period 2007-2013 (see following Table I).

With reference to entrepreneurial turnaround, the period taken into account was 2014-2017, immediately following years of the 2007-2013 European funds programming cycle. This allowed the analysis to focus on the impact of EU funds on entrepreneurial turnaround. In the 2007-2013 cycle, the projects monitored were 952.931 for a public cost of €95.9 billion and payments of €66.5 billion. For the empirical analysis, the dependent variable was the entrepreneurial turnaround (*turn_it*) and the data source of this variable was the CCIAA (Chamber of Commerce, Industry, Crafts and Agriculture).

The independent variables were the amount of European funds gained by each municipality divided in the main sectors related to entrepreneurial development. We used the following sectors on the basis of the OpenCoesione classification: transport, research and innovation, employment, culture and tourism, company competitiveness, digital agenda and public administration reinforcement. In addition to the variables related to the aforementioned sectors, we also used the number of projects managed in the territory of the municipality as an independent variable. On the OpenCoesione website, many data were available: programmed resources and expenses, locations, thematic areas, programmers and actuators, implementation times and payments of individual projects.

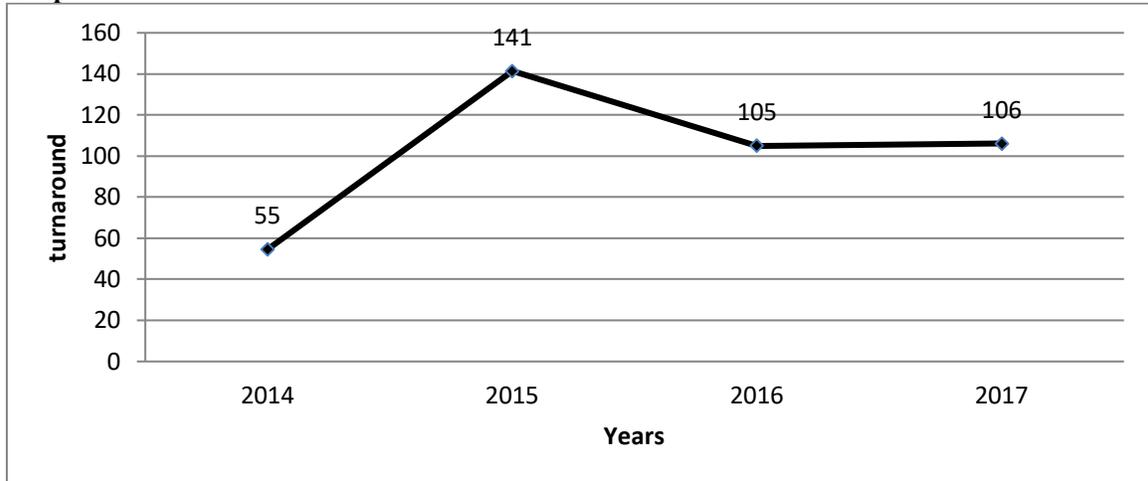
The independent variables are illustrated in the following table:

Table 1 Independent variables definition

Code	Variable	Source
<i>transp_{it}</i>	Transport	OPENCOESIONE
<i>ri_{it}</i>	Research and innovation	OPENCOESIONE
<i>emp_{it}</i>	Employment	OPENCOESIONE
<i>ct_{it}</i>	Culture and Tourism	OPENCOESIONE
<i>cc_{it}</i>	Companies competitiveness	OPENCOESIONE
<i>da_{it}</i>	Digital Agenda	OPENCOESIONE
<i>par_{it}</i>	Public administration reinforcement	OPENCOESIONE
<i>npm_{it}</i>	Number of projects managed	OPENCOESIONE

With this sample, we created a balanced data panel (for local district i ($i=1, \dots, n$) at the time t ($t=2014, \dots, 2017$)), which we used to estimate our models (Hsiao, 2003). Following, descriptive statistics are presented. First of all, the trend of the variable “turnaround”, that was calculated as the mean per each year (2014-2017). We obtained the followings graphic:

Graphic 1 Trend of the turnaround



In the graphic I, the variable has an initial increasing trend, followed by a decline in 2016 and 2017. The followings table illustrates the most significant statistics of the dependent variable “turnaround”.

Table 2 Statistics of number of turnarounds

Year	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Max	Min
2014	55	2	342	2089	-755
2015	141	40	480	3288	-72
2016	105	48	425	2824	-400
2017	106	65	390	2397	-862

Source CCIAA – own elaborations

From what results we can imagine a high variability, than the average over the years. To verify this is sufficient to note that the standard deviation has the high values.

Model, analysis and results

The focus of this research is to analyse the turnaround of the local district. We suppose that this variable depend to:

- transport;
- research and innovation;
- employment;
- culture and tourism;
- companies competitiveness;
- digital agenda;
- public administration reinforcement;
- number of projects managed.

We developed a model, which the dependent variable “turnaround” (for local district i ($i=1,\dots,n$) at the time t ($t=2014,\dots,2017$)) and all previous variables like independent variables (for local district i at the time t):

$$turn_{it} = k + transp_{it} + ri_{it} + emp_{it} + ct_{it} + cc_{it} + da_{it} + par_{it} + npm_{it} + u_{it}$$

Where:

$turn_{it}$ is turnaround; $transp_{it}$ is the transport; ri_{it} is the research and innovation; emp_{it} is the employment;

ct_{it} is the culture and tourism; cc_{it} is the companies competitiveness; da_{it} is the digital agenda;

par_{it} is the public administration reinforcement; npm_{it} is the number of projects managed.

The methodology that we adopted to estimate the previous panel is the GLS (General Least Square) method. First of all, we can use this method because we haven't a lagged dependent variable. Then, our units of observation, local districts, differ in many significant ways (e.g. the size) and this is a common source of heteroscedasticity, which is a strong assumption that may not hold in applied problems like the one we are dealing with where the units of observation have an important spatial component. Some relatively recent contributions, such as Anselin and Lozano-Gracia (2008) or Baltagi et al. (2008), are typical examples of empirical applications that require the use of spatial heteroscedasticity and autocorrelation consistent estimators. Therefore, we can use to estimate the OLS (Ordinary Least Squares) method (Baulager-Coll et al, 2016). But we choose the GLS method because we have, also, random effect over the individuals (local districts). For this reason, we assume that the heterogeneity is distributed as a random variable with mean zero and variance σ^2 . This last hypothesis takes, obviously, effect on the variance-covariance matrix of the error term that will not be diagonal. Therefore, to obtain estimate correct and efficient we must use the OLS method transformed, the GLS method, in which make a "almost" differentiation that is we subtracted to each observation to its mean over time.

In our model we inserted the temporal dummy variables (τ), through which we can capture the cyclical variations of the periods. Then:

$$turn_{it} = \beta_0 + \tau_t + \beta_1 transp_{it} + \beta_2 ri_{it} + \beta_3 emp_{it} + \beta_4 ct_{it} + \beta_5 cc_{it} + \beta_6 da_{it} \\ + \beta_7 par_{it} + \beta_8 npm_{it} + u_{it}$$

At this point we proceeded with the estimation of this model. It should be emphasized that the data related to the independent variables (transp, ri, emp, ct, cc, da, par and npm) that we used in the regression were different. In fact, we estimated our model twice with two regressions that use, as independent variables, the values financed by the European Union related to projects won and implemented in the municipal area directly by the local government, on the one hand, and by implementers (both public and private) other than the local government, on the other hand. This allows us a comparison between the impact of the management of local governments and the impact of the management of other subjects. To do the regressions we used the econometric program STATA and we obtained the results contained in the following table:

Table 3 Estimation

Variable	Municipality as actuator body (Regression I)	Another actuator body (Regression II)
Const	-18.28 (33.70)	21.59 (27.69)
tau2014	-51.32 (32.17)	-51.32 (32.41)
tau2015	35.49 (32.17)	35.49 (32.41)
tau2016	-1.21 (32.17)	-1.21 (32.41)
tau2017		
transp	-4.34*** (1.25)	-3.95 (3.84)
ri	-7.64 (7.42)	1.17 (2.36)
emp	31.60*** (10.90)	-1.41*** (3.89)
ct	2.48 (1.87)	3.33*** (2.72)
cc	134.00*** (17.20)	-6.41*** (1.49)
da	10.30 (10.80)	2.66 (5.25)
par	23.50* (15.10)	2.02* (1.04)
npm	2397.48*** (908.38)	18.17*** (14.03)

Notes: standard errors (in bracket). *** denotes a level of significance at 1%, ** denotes a level of significance at 5%, * denotes a level of significance at 10%.

Discussion

The first (second) regression evidences the relationship between European funds received and used by local governments (other actuator bodies) following the presentation of projects for economic development, on the one hand, and the entrepreneurial turnaround in the local area, on the other hand. As regard the first regression, some of the most statistically significant (p-value < 1%) variables (projects on “employment”, and “company competitiveness”) have a positive and high association with “turnaround”, whilst the “transport” variable (p-value < 1%) is characterized by a weak (negative) relationship.

In the second regression, two of these variables (“employment”, and “company competitiveness”) are statistically significant (p-value < 1%), but having weak (and negative) association with local entrepreneurship. The transport variable is not significant. Moreover, in the second model we registered a positive and statistically significant association between projects on “culture and tourism” and local entrepreneurship, but the relationship is weak.

Both models are characterized by a strong positive association between the “number of projects managed” and the economic development, but the local governments role is more important than the one of the other actuators. It should be emphasized that in

the first model, there is a high positive association between projects aimed at “public administration reinforcement” and “turnaround”, but the association is less statistically significant (p -value $< 10\%$), than the previous independent variables in the same model. In the second model, projects on “public administration reinforcement” produce lower impact.

Finally, in both models, some independent variables (“research and innovation”, and “digital agenda”), and all the control variables (temporal dummy ones) are not significant.

Findings indicated that the two hypotheses were confirmed, even if local governments produced higher positive impact, than other actors, in managing EU structural funds for local entrepreneurial development. Therefore, local authorities played a key role, in the four-year period analyzed (2014-2017). Particular mention should be given to “employment” and “companies’ competitiveness” projects, together with initiatives for the “reinforcement of public administrations”.

Conclusion

The EU provides financial support to promote economic development and social inclusion through the so called structural funds (Zerbinati, 2012). Specifically, in this paper the entrepreneurial level (in terms of difference between registered companies and deceased companies in a fiscal year) is considered as an indicator of economic development (Namise et al. 2019). Development policies are affected by different factors and a plurality of actors (Casula, 2020). Among these, public administrations are key players in programming and implementing economic development policies (Calcagnini and Perugini, 2019). From this, the goal of this paper arises: it is to investigate both the role of local authorities in the management of European structural funds intended for entrepreneurial development (HP1) and the role of other users of European structural funds aimed at entrepreneurial development. Findings indicated that the two hypotheses were confirmed, even if local governments produced higher positive impact, than other actors, in managing EU structural funds for local entrepreneurial development.

As regards the role of public administrations on economic development, it should be underlined that “public administrations” represents one of the most important “pillars” of countries economic competitiveness, according to the World Economic Forum report on “global competitiveness index” . The last report 2020 focuses the analysis on global priorities to overcome pandemic crisis, and emphasizes public sector key role on “reviving and transforming the enabling environment”. More precisely, one of the global priorities for the next 1-2 years after pandemic crisis, is “improving the long-term thinking capacity within governments and mechanisms to deliver public services and supporting policy interventions digitally”, whereas in the next 3-5 years it is paramount “ensuring public institutions embed strong governance principles and a long-term vision and building trust by serving their citizens”. Sub-national players (Dabrowsky, 2013), as local authorities, take on particular relevance in view of both their "proximity" to citizens and their institutional role in governing the territory. According to public management literature (Kickert, Klijn and Koppenjan, 1997; Agranoff, McGuire, 2003; Meneguzzo, Cepiku, 2008; Provan, Kenis, 2008; Bianchi, Trimigno, 2019), the attitude of local governments to create, manage or participate to policy or public service networks could be paramount for

economic development. In fact, networking might give local governments the access to essential material (financial) and immaterial (know how) resources, which otherwise would be prevented to them. The presentation of EU structural funds projects could be a chance for local governments to create and manage network of private and public actors to improve economic development and produce positive impact on local entrepreneurship.

Considering the findings of this analysis in terms of positive impact of the EU structural funds managed by local governments on the entrepreneurial turnaround, we develop some policy making and managerial implications:

- policy-makers (especially considering that in this work reference is made to local governments) should maintain a constant relationship with the local business fabric in order to know and interpret its needs. In this way, policy-makers could define the most effective local development policies and intercept the most appropriate European funding opportunities for the defined policy goals;
- public management should develop adequate competences (internal or external to the municipality) for the drafting of economic development projects allowing access to European funding.

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CASH OR CARD? A SHORT INSIGHT ON THE CHANGES CAUSED BY COVID-19 PANDEMIC

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Abstract: *The world changed and, together with it, all its constitutive systems. Either it is about the economic system or the social one, the recent events showed that change is possible, and even very rapidly. COVID-19 pandemic substantially changed the way the people trade. The somewhat forced digitalization of all sectors brought with itself a "revolution" of the traditional thinking, a road of no return, a one-way road. Even without a solid infrastructure, the people demonstrated how quickly they could adapt themselves. Because the people who "tasted" the comfort of digitalisation will no longer want to go back to the previous comfort zone. In the financial and banking system, the card is not something new, but its use has known, during this period, an expansion without precedent. Similarly, the online transfer of money, through the applications offered by the banks.*

Keywords: *pandemic, payment system, bank card, digitalization*

Introduction

The economic and social environment of the year 2020 reached a turning point at international level, caused by the sanitary crisis which destabilized the economic situation. The world was caught by surprise by the severe shock, and the reactions came very soon. Nevertheless, the situations was successfully exceeded in most of the sectors; there are losses, by the positive news regarding the covid-19 vaccine and, then, its production, together with a firm answer from the monetary and fiscal policies, brought their contribution to stabilizing the economic activity. But, as Mircea Coșea stated, the changes caused by the pandemic represent long-term tendencies of a new paradigm of functioning. In Romania, in March 2020, a national quarantine was established, which severely affected especially some sectors of activity, like, for example, tourism and HoReCa industry. The economic impact of the pandemic varies from one industrial sector to the other, all the sectors being affected in a certain measure.

It is interesting to notice the fact that, following the taken measures, the transactions with Visa cards in restaurants increased with 524%, in food stores with 147% and in pharmacies with 64%. Also, another consequence is the increase with 51% of card payments, compared to March 2019 (www.ceccarbusinessmagazine).

Regarding the number of card transactions and average value of each payment, there are significant differences between the countries of the European Union – according

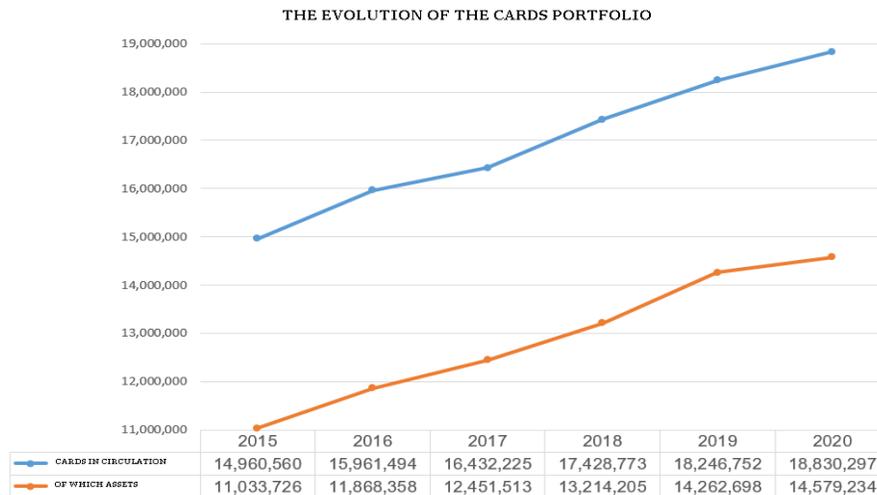
to statistical data. Although the number of cards increased from March 2018 to December 2020 with more than 2 million cards, the reality is that Romania has less than one bank card per capita, this being one of the lowest values in the European Union member states, as a consequence of the predilection to pay cash

Evolution of card portfolio in Romania

The evolution of card portfolio in Romania has an increasing tendency beginning with 2015. Our supposition, based on statistical data, shows the fact that the transition to non-cash would have taken place anyway, but in a much slower rhythm. It would have taken place in time, together with the new generations, with those who appreciate the comfort offered by “a click” and feel safe when they use it. Thus, the COVID-19 pandemic made us accelerate the change.

As it follows, it is presented the way the card portfolio evolved in Romania:

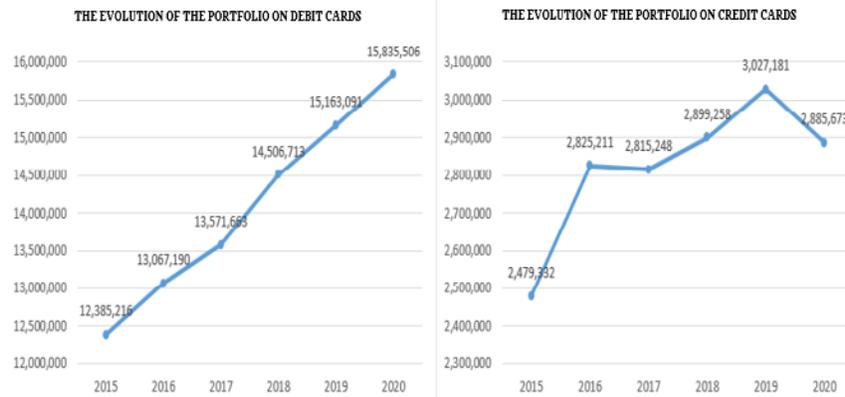
Figure 1. Evolution of card portfolio in Romania



Source: BNR

In 2020, Romania closed the year 2020 with about 19 million valid cards in circulation, registering an increase of 580,000 units compared to the month of December of the previous year. The annual rhythm of growth of card portfolio in 2020 was of 3.2% compared to 2019, a slow rhythm, but anyway, higher than the one registered in 2017, when it was registered an increase of only 470,000 units compared to 2016, thus a rhythm of growth of +2.9%. One of the strange situations on card market is represented by their activation degree. From some reasons, which do not make the object of study of this article, there is a large number of cards which were issued, but they are not used (one out of five cards is not activated), reaching in 2020 a record level of 4.25 million of unused units (22.6%). In 2020, the number of inactive card increased with 316,000 units compared to the previous year, though a reduced increase, compared to the year 2019. It is important to mention the fact that the increase of card portfolio in 2020, in Romania, is due exclusively to debit cards (graph 2).

Figure 2. Evolution of debit cards, respectively credit cards in Romania



Source: BNR

The future of payments belongs to the digital solutions. Nowadays, we enjoy the benefits of technology, we can no longer imagine our life without a digital relation, its influence can be noticed in all sectors of activity. The representative of Mastercard in Romania and Croatia stated, in an interview, that the future belongs to digital solutions, to which the entire banking system will adapt to. The material the cards are made of, that is plastic, will disappear, step by step, from our wallets and will be replaced by Digital First Card, a service launched for the moment only in the United States, but it will get soon in Europe too.

Methodology

As method of research we used the focus group, that is an interview of a group of 8 persons, focused on the theme of changes regarding the payments caused by the pandemic. According to Richard Krueger's opinion, we carefully prepared the interview, so that the information we get reveal what we planned to show. We took into account the fact that the response time varies depending the theme and the characteristics of the group, it being smaller than in the case of individual interviews because the groups of discussion do not last too much time. When choosing the method we took into consideration its advantages, firstly, the fact that the speakers stimulate each other in taking part to the discussion, and secondly, the experiences, ideas, opinions are simultaneously collected. Also, the participants were chosen on some homogeneous criteria, all holding a bachelor degree in finance and banking, working in the sector they were trained for. All the participants were aware of the fact that they were present to take part to a research and they would be present for about 1-2 hours. Also, in order to make the participants get familiar to one another, the session was preceded by a pre-session of about 10 minutes. They were all informed they would be registered, but, for their safety feeling, the registrations would be deleted 24 hours later, time necessary to register their answers.

The discussion focused on the main theme: the COVID-19 pandemic did change or did not change the habits of Romanian consumers regarding the way the payments are made and on some particular aspects:

- the use of cards makes us spend more compared to using cash;
- for how long most of Romanian have hold a card;

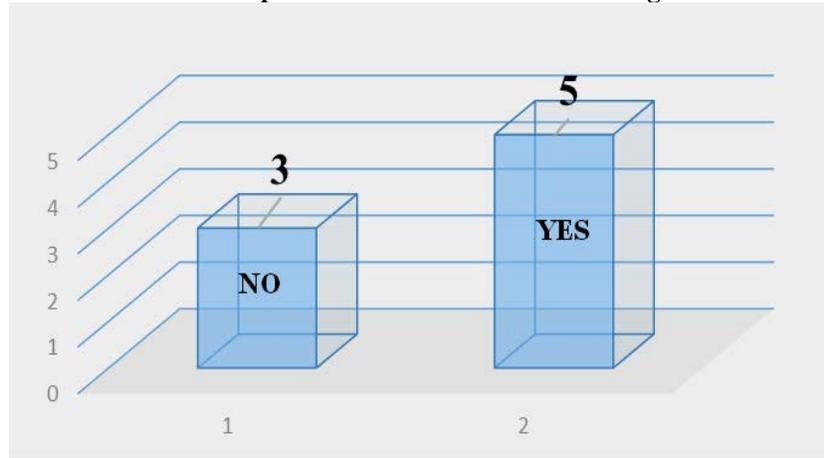
- on what goal Romanian consumers use most their card;
- how often Romanian consumers use the card;
- to what extent is considered to be accessible the card payment;
- which are the main difficulties encountered when using the card.

After presenting the general theme, we invited the participants to express their opinions. As an observation, because at the beginning no one wanted to start the discussion, we invited one of the subjects to be the first who answers.

Following the discussions, we resumed the following:

- 5 of the focus specialists consider that the use of card influences us to spend more than in the case of using cash, explaining that, from their own experience, but also from what other people said, there have no qualms of conscience when they spend large sum of money from the card, they not being used to consider the card as a banknote. Nevertheless, it was showed that the banking applications which send a sms after each transaction, have the role of making us aware of the payments just like when we pay cash, fact which makes us more and more make no difference between cash and card;

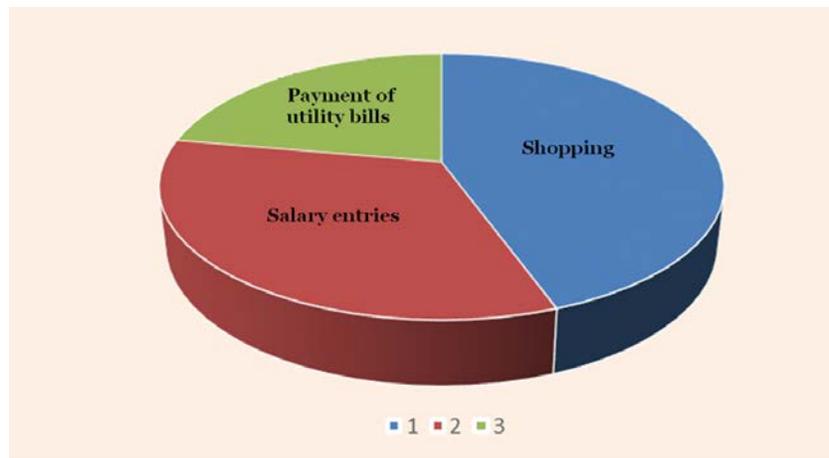
Figure 3. The use of card makes us spend more than in the case of using cash



Source: Own processing

- the participants to the focus group stated that, according to the data they held, only about half of the Romanian citizens have held a card for more than 5 years, thus noticing more requests in the period 2020-2021 compared to other years;
- regarding the most frequent use of the card, 6 out of 8 participants to the focus group stated that, at least during the last year, from the data they held, most of the people used the card for shopping. On the second place would be the use of debit card for receiving the wage. Also, during the last year – the participants stated – the number of card payments for utilities invoices increased.

Figure 4. The most frequent use of bank card in Romania



Source: Own processing

The participants concluded that the difficulties encountered when using the bank card are the following:

- the ATM ran out of money;
- the ATM did not work;
- some ATMs do not have the appropriate light and the display can be hardly seen;
- the card may get blocked in the ATM.

As a consequence, the difficulties related to the card are rather related to the ATM functioning.

Conclusions

The COVID-19 pandemic caused important changes in various aspects: one of them is the change of the way the payment is made when selling and buying. Some researchers consider that the old models got a break from which, when they would go out, they would remain unchanged. We consider that the change is irreversible. The use of cash as payment method is more and more replaced by the card and the online transfer of money. The people reoriented themselves to payments methods and means considered safer and more effective, when one of the measures taken during the pandemic was to self-isolate. Cash or card, in 2021? We incline to say card, as a variant for the payments. The lesson the pandemic taught us all is that by uniting our efforts, the world survives, adapts itself, and becomes an intelligent “system”. Nowadays, the change ratio is increasing, the education is no longer linear and demands the help of digitalization, the tendencies are to dematerialize, it is needed to reorient on all plans: professional, social, day to day life.

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WAYS OF MAINTAINING THE QUALITY OF FINANCIAL AUDIT IN THE CONTEXT OF VALIDATING FINANCIAL STATEMENTS

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Abstract: *It is well known that an economic and social entity, which keeps an accounting record in accordance with the provisions of the International Accounting Standards, carries out a credible and correct activity. The aim of the regular check of the activity of an enterprise by a professional in the field, who has adequate professional and moral qualities is that of generating trust in the accounting information provided by the entity. The importance of financial audit lies in the confirmation and increase of the credibility of the information found in the financial statements, indispensable for the future decisions of their users. The fact that the information was obtained and presented in accordance with generally accepted accounting standards and principles makes it more plausible.*

Keywords: *accounting, financial audit, quality, accurate image, financial statements*

Introduction

In today's world, of globalized capitalism, the pace of change has shifted to the production of information and knowledge. Accounting has aligned itself with the new requirements through its product, the accounting information, by trying to suggest some solutions and strategies that economic actors need to follow. During our research, we noticed that changes in accounting standards, norms and regulations have had an effect on the entire set of users, leading to gains or losses for each party involved. The field of accounting is undoubtedly one of the most strictly regulated activities. However, the complexity and diversity of practical cases that may arise make it impossible for these regulations to cover any scenario. This leaves room for professional reasoning and allows it to intervene where the rule fails to distinguish. Thus, based on the experience gained over time, the accountant must record transactions and events, taking into account both his/her own judgment and the general principles of accounting.

Professor Ion Ionașcu believes that "Science begins with speculation, that is, with philosophy, and flows into philosophy as well, the adventure of knowledge being endless" (Ionașcu, 1997). Accounting is a science of order and balance in economics and it has followed the path from philosophy to concreteness, but without reaching a final or ultimate form. The dynamics of the science of accounts is demonstrated both by the continuous scientific activity around it and by the normative instrument that is in a permanent change and evolution. Even if the tendency of normalization of the profession is obvious, the conventions depend to a large extent on the national specificity. Despite all the differences between financial reporting systems, users appreciate the rigor of accounting information,

with all its inherent limitations. We know that there is no absolute truth, but only a sum of relative truths.

The role of accounting and auditing in ensuring the quality of financial information

The importance of accounting is underlined by its definition as a formalized language of communication in the business world. The phenomenon of capital migration from more developed to developing countries, including the expansion of transnational companies in a globalized environment has accelerated the normalization of accounting standards and rules. The rules governing accounting and financial reporting are based on the theories of drawing up, drafting, provision and use of accounting information. The role of accounting is to provide accurate and transparent data about the financial position and performance of an entity, which enables managers to make the right decisions in the best interests of shareholders. For this reason, accounting information must be characterized by credibility and social validation, features that ensure the understanding and trust of users. By supporting quality financial reporting and ensuring a credible financial environment with a low degree of uncertainty, the professional accountant participates in the development of international markets and reduction of their volatility.

In our opinion, facilitating access to information, including effective communication thereof, represents "vehicles" that sets the global market in motion, stimulating investment and promoting efficient decision-making. The investment policy of an enterprise depends on the degree of understanding of the information provided by the accounting, as well as on the correctness of the other partners. Consequently, the integration of goods and services on the world market ultimately also depends on the quality of the accounting information supply.

The need to inform users requires the achievement of the accounting performance objective, namely the achievement of a true, clear and complete picture of the economic resources controlled by the company, of the financial situation and the result of the year. We can see how the professional accountant must make every effort to reflect the reality in a unitary way, as the financial auditor certifies the faithful representation of this reality. As fundamental step in the accounting profession, the financial audit must check, analyse, test and certify the results and information provided by the accounting, so that, subsequently, they can play the supporting role in decision-making. Because the number of users of financial and accounting information is very high and their needs differ greatly, it is difficult to achieve an objective assessment of their quality. However, we mention that in the case of information provided by accounting, quantity matters, but especially quality. This element is the essence of any information, not just of accounting, and is, thanks to international harmonization and convergence, in a continuous process of improvement. Practice has shown that professional judgment is responsible for ensuring the balance between the qualitative characteristics of information, so that it meets the objective of the financial statements. The quality of the information and the professional standards enable the obtainment of the faithful image, validated through the financial audit.

In our opinion, accounting information is the most important product circulating between companies and it must be able to identify, evaluate, measure and clarify all events and transactions that take place in a company. Also, most of the decisions taken by management on behalf of stakeholders are based on it. In short, the information must be of

quality, a product of the responsible activity of the account professionals. Precisely because the information is ubiquitous and access to it is easy, its certification through financial audit has become indispensable.

Accounting harmonization has been and is a promoter of transparency in the business world but free access to information makes it difficult to distinguish between true and false. For these reasons, in all countries of the world, the financial audit appeared and developed, which took over the role of external control, independent and objective, enforced by professionals in the field who carry out their activity under the law. Through their approach, financial auditors support the users, guaranteeing through the audit report and opinion the sincerity and the faithful representation of the financial statements. The audit gives the accounting information the character of neutrality, namely the reasonable assurance that it does not favour a particular interested party. Research literature, but especially the practical life has shown us many cases, including at the highest level, of fraud and bankruptcy based on falsification of accounting data. So, here is an additional argument for the audit due to its function of external and objective control of accounting reporting.

Quality criteria in the financial audit

Following the research of the specialized literature and the practice of the field of accounting and financial audit, we believe that there is a direct connection between the independence and competence of the professional, on the one hand, and the quality of the audit mission, on the other hand. The consequences of this link are visible in relation to the users' trust, which underlie their decisions on the faithful image and accounting truth certified by audit. We are aware that the lack of competence and dysfunctional behaviours negatively influence the quality of the audit, but also the general perception of the profession. In an interesting study of the elements that may be associated with the auditor's lack of competence, with a direct effect on audit quality, McNair summarizes the following (McNair, 1991):

- reducing the working time assigned to the audit mission;
- acquiring the improbable and inadmissible explanations offered by management;
- brief check of the supporting documents that represented the basis of the accounting record;
- incorrect establishment and evaluation of the questions contained in a questionnaire.

The most common cause of these inappropriate behaviours of audit team members is the practice of superficial quality control within the audit firm or office. Performance evaluation methods must represent the basis for the hierarchical promotion of staff and the influence of leadership should be a decisive component for the quality of the audit. By applying a rigorous performance-oriented business model, experienced partners in the audit firm are likely to improve the quality of the activity of validating the faithful image and accounting truth contained in the financial statements. In our opinion, the improvement of these shortcomings, inherent in most audit companies, is achieved, first of all, by placing the criterion of independence at the centre of the activity. This enables the reporting in time of the errors and omissions identified by the auditor in carrying out its checks. Independence is an explanatory criterion of the quality of the audit, being in fact a mental

state through which the auditor does not feel constrained or subordinated to the internal and external influences of the company he/she works for or pressured by possible conflicts of interest.

We emphasize that, as in the case of valuation or bookkeeping, independence nevertheless obliges the professional to respect and apply the standards, based on professional reasoning, in order to provide a certification of the quality of the mission, identifying all significant errors and omissions. In short, independence does not allow deviation from the rules. The role of independence is to test the resilience of the auditor to the pressures exerted by the environment, whether we are referring to those from the client or those exerted by superiors. The drafting and development of audit standards aims, first of all, to provide a clear picture, through the audit report, of compliance with all the rules relevant to the financial statements of a company, in conditions of independence. Their application supports the auditor, precisely because it does not have to choose between a sincere opinion and the pursuit of its own interest.

In the opinion of the author dit Hauret, independence in the audit is divided in independence of spirit and the appearance of independence, the two being cumulative conditions for achieving the quality desideratum (dit Hauret, 2003). In a similar way, Richard divides the concept of independence into independence in deeds and independence in appearance (Richard, 2006). We consider the opinion of the two authors as a valid and totally justified one, because we are in the business world, where trust is key and independence in deeds is not enough. The others' perception about a person's degree of independence is extremely important and the auditor must visibly demonstrate this. This is evidenced by the widespread trend of multinational companies to rely strictly on the services of large audit firms which, in addition to the competence and independence demonstrated in most cases, their success is largely guaranteed by the apparent independence they experience.

Independence alone cannot ensure the quality of the audit. We identified the concepts of expertise, responsibility and efficiency, as fundamental criteria that form the professional behaviour and the technical dimension of the audit activity. The latter is made up of all the knowledge specific to the field that a professional has and that is necessary for him in the successful accomplishment of his mission.

The qualities of the auditor are not limited to knowledge of auditing standards, rules and procedures. They also require a significant economic culture, information on the client's field of activity and experience in running a business. If we add the experience in the field, these types of knowledge make up the auditor's expertise, or in other words, his ability to adapt to the specifics of each company and solve complex problems, while ensuring the quality of the audit and guaranteeing the accurate image of the accounting information. in the financial statements. Professional behaviour refers to the concepts of responsibility and efficiency stated above. From the mentioned statements we deduce that responsibility is a complementary criterion to independence. Even if all the criteria are met, the auditor's independence is guaranteed only by its attitude towards its responsibilities. His approach in relation to possible conflicts of interest and the observance of professional deontology are related to the ability to assume responsibility in connection with the activity performed. Regarding the efficiency of the audit, the link between it and quality is highlighted by means of the studies carried out by Elitzur and Falk (1996) and Trombetta (2003).

Significant misstatements of the financial statements

Discussions regarding major financial scandals or economic crises are dominated by the role of inappropriate government policies, investor greed, capital market speculation and growing deficits. Few studies focus on other related causes such as lack of a responsible organizational culture, business ethics and failure to assume liability. The values that underpin sustainable development and healthy economic growth have been forgotten, putting selfish desires and interests in a place of honour. Unfortunately, this totally incorrect attitude was also displayed by some professional accountants or auditors. Under such conditions, instead of rigorous observance of professional deontology, compromise and deliberate ignorance of the norms of ethics and morality appeared. The responsibility for preventing and detecting errors and fraud lies within the area of liability of contractors, but also of the management. In their work, financial auditors must take into account the risk of material misstatement in the financial statements as a result of errors and even fraud. Even if the auditor is responsible for the planning of the audit, the collection of evidence, compliance with norms and standards, the estimation and observance of the materiality threshold, it does not have the role of detecting all the misstatements contained in the financial statements. Moreover, it is important to note that the auditor cannot provide absolute assurance because the audit evidence is obtained by sampling and testing and cannot always be perfectly conclusive. Much of the information is based on estimates by the accounting department in relation to a number of uncertainties and fraud is difficult to disclose if management is involved in covering it. For this reason, when determining the nature, duration and scope of the audit assignment, the auditor should be professionally skeptical in relation to any statement, transaction or event of the audited entity.

Assigning a professional to carry out the financial audit does not relieve the management of the company of its responsibility in drafting and drawing up financial statements, or of internal control for preventing and detecting errors and omissions. The total elimination of the risk of fraud remains a goal, an ideal unattainable until now. The role of internal audit and control systems at the level of a company is to reduce to an acceptable level the possibility of fraud, but we must not ignore the repetitive nature of small errors that can result into massive fraud.

From our point of view, studying the subject from an accounting perspective, it is worth noting that the main elements involved in detecting fraud and other components that adversely affect the faithful image and accounting truth are: internal control, internal audit and risk management. As a result of studies carried out by audit and consulting firms, the business community can more easily understand the effects of fraud on the business world, may develop improved risk assessment models and look for additional methods to prevent crime. By performing a deeper analysis of the causes of these adverse events in the economy, we identify, almost every time, the failure of professional accountants or auditors to assume responsibility. If the actors involved had carried out their activity responsibly, in accordance with ethics and deontology, many of these would not have taken place.

The carrying out of economic activity has always had as its objective the achievement of profit, a basic condition that has demonstrated its social utility. All the peculiarities of economic life are organized and managed by the human factor whose aim, in many cases, is that of obtaining gains and benefits, in any form and by any method. This is where the need to regulate by means of law, norms and standards of any human activity

comes from, while the check of compliance with those in the economic area is the responsibility of the financial audit. As long as economic and accounting science considers the faithful image reflected by the financial statements as the most important element and consider it a basic condition for the smooth running of the economy, the role of financial audit as a function of validating accounting truth is adamant.

It is important to note that behind the audit report and opinion lies a complex activity of a highly trained professional body, assisted by experts who come to cover those areas that intersect with the audit and that the auditor does not know in depth. In our opinion, the work of the auditor is a filter that is interposed between the producers of accounting information and its users. The latter consider the audit report as a "warranty certificate" issued for the audited financial statements and the assurance that they represent a faithful and fair view of the economic and financial activity of the company.

We must also consider the observance of the Codes of Ethics and of the profession deontology, which is, first of all, a moral obligation for any practitioner. When it comes to accounting practitioners, be they accountants or auditors, liability is a fundamental and mandatory principle as they operate in a sector that has the power to influence the general state of the economy. Integrity cannot be imposed through documents, but can be promoted and acquired through a healthy educational culture and maintained through rigorous professional training.

Challenges for accountants and auditors

The mission of the professionals in the field of accounting is to operate and function in the public interest, namely of the society as a whole, because all social actors are, either directly or indirectly, affected by the accounting activity. The public places their trust and capital in the hands of a management that they consider honest and efficient and to ensure this, they turn to accountants and auditors. Accounting has undoubtedly brought a certain rigor and discipline to economic life, promoting confidence in the business world. But challenges exist at all times and the subject of accounting must prove ability to adapt to the ever-increasing and diverse requirements. At all times, financial decisions are made based on the relevance and objectivity of the information presented by the accounting and for this reason, the criterion of faithful image is of utmost importance, both for information producers (accountants) and for those who validate it (auditors). Ensuring the production and certification of a faithful image becomes a challenge for professionals due to fiscal, legal or customary changes. In the work of auditors and accountants, the quality of services provided is paramount. The qualitative characteristics of information are the product of personal judgment, influenced by a combination of factors. We take into account the studies carried out, the professional training and the qualification, up to the work experience, the availability of continuous documentation and the degree of freedom in decision making. The shortcomings found in keeping or auditing the accounts are, most of the time, deficiencies of professional reasoning, manifested by insufficient knowledge, low level of training or lack of experience.

Both accounting and financial auditing must respond to the constant changes in the economic landscape and support the business environment in order to adapt to them. One of the challenges is taxation, as repeated legislative changes create fiscal instability,

generated by the need to harmonize with European legislation and by the lack of long-term strategies (Holt and Hein, 2001).

Another challenge for the accounting profession is the ability of information to keep its relevance over time. Research literature shows the opinion of some institutions and practitioners who consider that in the current economic context, given the increasingly complex operations and the current financial reporting system considered unsustainable, the information loses its relevance. Relevance is also threatened if there is a delay in reporting information. Even if it maintains its credibility, it is of little use to users as it is possible that they have already made economic decisions before they have all the data at their disposal. That is why it is essential to have a balance between relevance and credibility that supports the decision-making process. The activity of today's professional accountant is not limited to the chronological recording of financial operations, as he must show that he has a critical, analytical thinking, must show logic, education, planning and have an ethical attitude. Thus, the knowledge acquired during academic studies alone is sufficient and he must participate in vocational training programmes, be aware of legislative changes and know the standards so that his abilities are acknowledged. The learning process is life-long, so that he may have the qualities necessary to carry out a quality accounting activity. The financial auditor faces the same challenges.

Another challenge is represented by the shift of entities to IFRS reporting, which involves a number of specific risks arising from differences in both reporting manner and company size, the complexity of operations or the effect the reporting framework change on accounting. Maintaining independence is a major challenge, especially for financial auditors. The financial scandals of the last two decades have affected the reputation of the profession, in some cases the integrity of auditors being called into question when they offered favourable audit opinions to companies that soon went bankrupt. That is why, as we have pointed out before, maintaining trust is paramount for the audit activity and this can only be achieved by maintaining independence.

The possibility for the financial auditor not to identify all errors in the financial statements, regardless of the rigor of checks, of obtaining audit evidence and applying standards is specific to the audit activity. For this reason, the beneficiary of the report should be aware that the auditor cannot provide absolute assurance, as there are inherent limitations (especially in the case of internal control) that affect the ability of the audit to recognize all significant misstatements.

Conclusions

Accounting is the product of the evolution of economic practice over time. The improvement of economic conditions and the enhancement of the business activity are based on the most advanced knowledge possible of the events and phenomena governing processes of this type, quantified and recorded in accounting language. The concept of performance of accounting information is given by the faithful image and the extent to which it manages to present an objective, accurate and complete reality of economic facts, as well as by the degree of validation of accounting truth achieved through auditing.

We conclude that in the current economic and political context, the need to validate the financial information provided to users but also the quality of accounting activity and audit missions has gained a prominent place. The drawing up and dissemination of

information by a company is an act of will, a product of human reasoning, namely a social phenomenon. Thus, this activity must be characterized by quality information, obtained from a responsible approach, by ensuring a high level of transparency.

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BMW GROUP ECONOMIC POSITION ANALYSIS IN THE SITUATION CREATED BY COVID-19 PANDEMIC

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Abstract: *In 2020, the coronavirus crisis caused the global economy to slump on a scale not seen since the Great Depression in the 1930s. Thus, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) estimates the contraction in global gross domestic product of 3.5%. Europe's economy too was hit strongly by the pandemic crisis, the eurozone contracted by 7.6% compared to the previous year. Significant losses were recorded in Germany (-5.0%), France (-8.3%), Italy (-9.0%), Spain (-11.0%). Several sectors of the economy were completely paralysed at times due to lockdowns lasting long periods of time; within this difficult context automotive industry was not spared by the problems generated by the pandemic context.*

Keywords: *pandemic, forecasts, results of operation, incomes, costs, sales, assets, equity, liabilities.*

Short global approach of the economic context created by the pandemic

Unemployment rates registered important increases in most of the states, despite the increases being at least partially held down by short-time work programmes. Governments of these states implemented extensive economic stimulus packages in order to support their own economies. The assistance programmes caused government spending to rise sharply in 2020, resulting in higher debt ratios. In USA, GDP decreased by 3.5% compared to the previous year. Due to the economic blockade and in the absence of short-term work programmes, the unemployment rate rose significantly. Exports registered an important decrease in some periods of the previous year. Moreover, corporate investment and industrial production suffered a significant decline. In this context, the US Federal Reserve (FED) lowered even more its benchmark interest rates in 2020. Although China was the only economy to expand in 2020, its growth rate of 2.3% significantly decreased compared to the previous year. Consumer demand almost completely collapsed during the lockdown of last spring. In spite all these, the demand strongly increased at the beginning of the summer and lasted through to the end of the year, thus helping the economy to recover. Japan, an export-reliant country, also suffered a considerable decline of economic production (-5.3%) due to the coronavirus pandemic related to the analysed period. The main factors were lower private consumption and the drop of exports.

After one of the most difficult years, global automotive industry tries to recover, the consumers coming back in showrooms, after the restrictions imposed during the pandemic, as it is shown in an analysis conducted by Bloomberg.

Comparison of BMW group's forecasts compared to the results of year 2020

Thus the table below presents the key performance indicators for developing the BMW Group as a whole, as well as the segments of services in automotive sector, motorcycles and the analysis of acquired financial services.

Within the context of the crisis generated by COVID-19 pandemic, in the first quarter of 2020, BMW Group partially revised their perspectives for this year, and the changes are presented as it follows. Detailed information on the Group's key performance indicators is presented in conjunction with the analysis of the Group's results of operations:

Table 1 Results of operations of the BMW Group

*in €million	2020	2019	Change in %
Revenues	98,990	104,210	- 5.0
Cost of sales	-85,408	- 86,147	0.9
Gross profit	13,582	18,063	- 24.8
Selling and administrative expenses	- 8,795	- 9,367	6.1
Other operating income and expenses	43	-1,285	-
Profit before financial result	4,830	7,411	- 34.8
Financial result	392	-293	-
Profit/loss before tax	5,222	7,118	-26.6
Income taxes	-1,365	-2,140	36.2
Profit from continuing operations	3,857	4,978	-22.5
Profit/loss from discontinued operations	-	44	-
Net profit	3,857	5,022	- 23.2
Earnings per share (common stock in €)	5.73	7.47	- 23.3
Earnings per share (preferred stock in €)	5.75	7.49	- 23.2

Source: www.bmwgroup.com/en.html

Specific analysis. Because of covid-19 pandemic, bmw Group revenues for the financial year under report were moderately down compared to the previous year. Negative currency effects caused by the unfavorable development of the US dollar, Russian rouble and Chinese currency also had a significant impact on incomes. It can be noticed a decrease of the net profit in 2020 compared to 2019 with a value of € 1,165 million due to the coronavirus pandemic.

The financial result in 2020 was positive compared to the previous year.

Table 2 BMW Group revenues by regions

in %	2020	2019
Europe	44.3	44.4
Asia	32.1	30.6
Americas	21.4	22.7
Other regions	2.2	2.3
Group	100.0	100.0

Source: www.bmwgroup.com/en.html

Specific analysis. The generating factors included product mix effects due to the less pronounced drop in the sale of vehicles, which generated high revenues, as well as a portfolio-related upturn in leasing revenues. Positive development on pre-owned vehicle markets were reflected in higher revenues generated from the sale of returned lease vehicles, particularly in the third and fourth quarters of the year 2020.

Table 3 The cost of sales registered by BMW Group

*in €million	2020	2019	Change in %
Manufacturing costs	46,878	48,776	- 3.9
Cost of sales relating to financial services business	27,114	25,828	5.0
Interest expense relating to financial services business	1,960	2,288	-14.3
Research and development expenses	5,689	5,952	4.4
Amortisation of capitalised development costs	1,710	1,667	2.6
Service contracts, telematics and roadside assistance	1,411	1,641	-14.0
Warranty expenses	2,971	2,566	15.8
Other cost of sales	1,345	1,384	-2.8
Cost of sales	85,408	86,147	-0.9

Source: www.bmwgroup.com/en.html

Specific analysis. As it can be easily noticed in the situation previously presented, BMW Group cost of sales in the year 2020 amounted to €85,408 million. Thus, higher risk-provisioning expenses, mainly arising in connection with the measurement of credit and residual value risks, were partially offset by reduced manufacturing costs due to lower production volumes. Cost of sales relating to Financial Services business went up as a result of the costs associated with the sale of returned lease vehicles, mirroring the impact on revenues. Furthermore, research and development expenses were slightly lower than in the previous year. By contrast, the amount assigned to amortisation of capitalised development costs increased in the analysed financial year. Depreciation and amortisation of tangible assets, equipment and intangible assets totalled €6,143 million. Selling and administrative expenses decreased year-on-year, influenced in particular by lower personnel expenses and a decrease in expenses for marketing and communication. Fixed cost management also contributed to a great extent to the reduction in selling and administrative expenses.

Table 4 BMW Group research and development expenditure

*in €million	2020	2019
Research and development expenses	5,689	5,952
Amortisation	-1,710	-1,667
New expenditure for capitalised development costs	2,300	2,134
Total research and development expenditure	6,279	6,419

Source: www.bmwgroup.com/en.html

Specific analysis. The net amount of other operating income and expenses significantly improved, registering an important annual increase which was attributable to the expense recognised in the first half of the previous financial year. Thus, profit before financial result dropped to €4,830 million compared to €7,411 million in year 2019, reflecting the various negative impacts on the gross profit of BMW Group. On the other side, the financial result of BMW Group significantly improved each year. The figure reported for 2020 benefited in particular from an increase to €1,212 million, compared to

€918 million, as it was registered in 2019, as a consequence of earnings generated by the Chinese joint venture BMW Brilliance Automotive Ltd., Shenyang, as well as from the gain of €105 million recorded by THERE HOLDING B. V. on the sale of shares in the card service provider HERE International B. V to Mitsubishi Corporation (MC), Nippon Telegraph and Telephone Corporation (NTT) during the first half of 2020. In the previous year, the financial result also included higher impairment losses recognised in connection with the strategic realignment of the YOUR NOW Group.

The profit of BMW Group before tax was of € 5,222 million which was significantly lower than the one registered in the previous year, in value of €7,118 million. Income tax expense for the year 2020 decreased to €1,365 million, compared to the level of 2,140 million EUR, in the year 2019, mainly due to the fact that the incomes of BMW Group decreased as a consequence of COVID-19 pandemic. The effective tax rate decreased to 26.1% in 2020, compared to the year 2019, when it was of 30.1%. In the previous financial year, the effective tax rate was raised due to the non-deductibility of items for tax purposes, namely the recognition of the provision relating to the EU Commission’s anti-trust proceedings and losses generated from decreasing the shares at YOUR NOW Group. The size of workforce at BMW Group slightly decreased to 120,726 employees in 2020, compared to 126,016 employees in 2019 (-4.2%).

Table 5 Assets of BMW Group

*in €million	2020	2019	change in %
ASSETS			
Intangible assets	12,342	11,729	5.2
Tangible assets	21,850	23,245	- 6.0
Leased products	41,995	42,609	-1.4
Investments accounted for using the equity method	3,585	3,199	12.1
Other investments	735	703	4.6
Receivables from sales financing	84,277	92,437	- 8.8
Financial assets	7,752	7,325	5.8
Deferred and current tax	3,065	3,403	- 9.9
Other assets	10,326	12,939	- 20.2
Inventories	14,896	15,891	- 6.3
Trade receivables	2,298	2,518	- 8.7
Cash and cash equivalents	13,537	12,036	12.5
Total assets	216,658	228,034	- 5.0

Source: www.bmwgroup.com/en.html

Specific analysis. Adjusted for currency effects, the BMW Group’s balance sheet total was slightly lower than at 31 December 2019. Tangible assets (adjusted for currency effects) were slightly down compared to the previous year, mainly due to the lower amount of capital expenditure in 2020. In the previous year, investments at the BMW plants in Spartanburg, USA and San Luis Potosí, Mexico had the effect of increasing tangible assets. Leased products (adjusted for currency effects) were slightly up compared to the previous year due to portfolio growth, mainly in Germany, Italy and Switzerland.

Receivables from sales financing (adjusted for currency effects) went down slightly compared to 31 December 2019, primarily due to the decrease in dealership financing, mainly in the USA, Germany, the UK and France. A total of 1,238,286 new credit financing

contracts were concluded with retail customers during the financial year 2020. The number of contracts in place with dealerships and retail customers decreased by 0.6 % compared to the previous year, registering at present 4,040,231 contracts.

Table 6 BMW Group equity and liabilities

*in €million	2020	2019	Schimbare în %
Equity and liabilities			
Equity	61,520	59,907	2.7
Pension provisions	3,693	3,335	10.7
Other provisions	13,982	13,209	5.9
Deferred and current tax	1,256	1,595	- 21.3
Service contracts, telematics and roadside assistance	1,411	1,641	-14.0
Financial liabilities	106,376	116,740	- 8.9
Trade payables	8,644	10,182	-15.1
Other liabilities	21,187	23,066	- 8.1
Total equity and liabilities	216,658	228,034	- 5.0

Source: www.bmwgroup.com/en.html

Specific analysis. Group equity rose slightly by €1,613 million to €61,520 million, driven primarily by the profit of €3,775 million attributable to shareholders of BMW AG. The dividend payment for the financial year 2019 amounted to €1,646 million, reducing equity accordingly. Financial liabilities decreased moderately in 2020, with repayments of maturing bonds exceeding new issues.

Conclusions regarding the analysis of BMW group economic position

From the above-mentioned information, despite the volatility caused by the outbreak of the coronavirus pandemic, the results of operations, financial position and net assets of the BMW Group remained stable throughout the financial year, thanks to a set of measures that were immediately implemented, including focused working capital management, strict investment and fixed cost management and targeted liquidity management. The value added statement shows the value of work performed by the BMW Group during the financial year, less the value of work bought in. Depreciation and amortisation, cost of materials, and other expenses are treated as bought-in costs in the value added calculation. Thus, net valued added by the BMW Group remained at a high level in the financial year 2020.

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WHAT MOTIVATES HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS IN CHOOSING A CAREER PATH IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY?

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Abstract: *The current study analyzed the ideal workplace attributes sought by high school youth. Students in 4 classes were randomly assigned to control and intervention groups. The intervention consisted in watching a video with a fictitious employer that presents the realities of a real job, in both negative and positive scenarios. Students exposed to positive intervention did not show significant differences in identifying ideal workplace values. Students exposed to negative intervention were, however, influenced, altering the list of values sought at the ideal workplace by comparison with the control group.*

Introduction

The teenagers enrolled in vocational training in Romania face various career decisions even prior to their graduation as several of them already work part time or as part of internships. Their definition of the ideal workplace seems to vary according to the literature. We examined 2 different paths as per literature review: on one hand we looked at the moral development as a key indicator of various moral choices, on the other hand we also reviewed other factors influencing the career path of adolescents.

Moral development in teenagers

In adolescence, the concept of fairness becomes more present and is widespread in various situations. However, adolescents are increasingly able to contextualize their moral judgment, in other words, to apply variations from one situation to another (Nucci, 2001).

In a study that looked at adolescents' moral choices (to help someone or not to hurt someone), Nucci and Turiel (2009) determined a migration as teenagers age from an importance given to equality to an importance given to equity. The difference between equality and equity must be perceived in the same spirit of contextualization, so equity is a contextualized equality. In other words, fairness involves taking into account the differences in needs and status, this is the meaning of the migration from equality to equity. The same study also reveals an interesting U-shape evolution of moral growth, in the sense that the frequency of moral choices is higher in younger children and older adolescents than in early adolescents. The transition of early adolescents involved the non-uniform application of moral criteria (Nucci and Turiel, 2009). Another interesting approach followed the religious implications, as it studied adolescents (10-16 years) from different religions (Catholics, Calvinists, Orthodox, Jews, etc.) and noticed that they prioritize moral choices without being conditioned by a command or divine rule (Nucci and Turiel, 1993). In addition, the adolescents studied denied the possibility of an excuse for immoral behavior due to divine commandments, so they applied moral rules to explain religious approaches and not the other way around.

What constitutes morality as mentioned in the studies of adolescent morality is a legitimate question in the literature, and the different approaches have been analyzed by Hart and Carlo (2005). They distinguish between a few large schools of thought. Two schools of thought though seem to be the most relevant: Kohlberg's (1984) aims to study adolescents' understanding of moral concepts such as rights and justice. Eisenberg-Berg (1979) analyzes prosocial attitudes and the emotional components of morality. There is an interesting conclusion of Weiss's (1982) study on understanding the processes involved in moral thinking. They concluded that those adolescents with the least understanding are also the ones who use morality the most in their decisions, thus suggesting that morality can be more effective when adopted without too deep a dissection.

Positive psychology school of thought lists, among other things, valuable moral experiences, in addition to happiness, two moral aspects: positive individual traits and "civic virtues and institutions that determine individuals to be better citizens." (Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi, 2014). McAdams (2015) states that morality, personality and self-identity are the most important 3 elements of the personal narrative created in late adolescence. Padilla Walker and Nelson (2017) exploit Erikson's ideas that the moral identity of late adolescents is the essential goal of both moral and identity development.

Career choices

There are a number of other factors besides the moral development influencing career choices in adolescents. One relevant study refers to their personality and their self esteem as key indicators of career choice but it also found that perceived social support does not influence the career indecision, but it influences self esteem which might play a role in career decision (Macionetti, 2014). In the same spirit, another research created a taxonomy of difficulties in career decision making. It split the decision making into 2 phases: (i) the one prior to the decision making when lack of readiness plays a central role and (ii) the one during the process of decision making itself when lack of information and inconsistent information plays a relevant role (Gati et al., 1996). Apparently, the motivation for a certain career choice is another key factor studied in the literature. One study found

that the lack of motivation decreases with age and the late teenagers are influenced by intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. The intrinsic motivations can be associated with positive emotions, creativity, academic implications or pleasure to read while the extrinsic relate to the environmental motivators (Panisoara et al., 2013)

Research Methodology

In line with previous research that looked at intrinsic or extrinsic motivational factors (Johnson and Monserud, 2010) that generally showed intrinsic motivations in youth choices, we decided to investigate how exposure to a positive or negative professional situation influences the assessment of the attributes of the ideal job. For students in rural areas, as they were the subject of our research, we know that they are more subject to reflection than those in privileged backgrounds to almost automatically take jobs corresponding to their social status (Laughland-Booy et al., 2014).

We formulated the following working hypotheses:

H01 There is no difference between the control group and the negative intervention group in terms of perception of the values of the ideal job;

H11 There is a difference between the control group and the negative intervention group in terms of perception of the values of the ideal job;

H02 There is no difference between the control group and the positive intervention group in terms of perception of the values of the ideal job;

H12 There is no difference between the control group and the positive intervention group in terms of perception of the values of the ideal job;

H03 The share of attributes categorized as moral values does not change between the control group and the negative intervention group;

H13 The share of attributes categorized as moral values does change between the control group and the negative intervention group;

H04 The share of attributes categorized as moral values does not change between the control group and the positive intervention group;

H14 The share of attributes categorized as moral values does change between the control group and the positive intervention group.

The research methodology was based on an experiment aimed at assessing the students' morality in terms of choosing a career path. In the first phase, the subjects were selected among 9th and 10th grades, from a Technical College in a mid-sized Romanian town. The age groups were 15-17 years, the classes are relatively uniform, high school, most students come from rural areas. The distribution of the subjects in the control group and in the experimental groups was done randomly. Random Lists software was used for randomization. Randomization was done using the multistage randomization method (indirect selection of the individuals that make up the sample through the selection of the groups to which they belong).

Following randomization, 4 control groups and 4 intervention groups resulted. In all the classes that were selected, before actually carrying out the experiment, the teacher explained to the students the purpose of the research, namely to find out the “professional wishes of the students from the technological schools” for which they will have to fill in a form. To collect the answers regarding the attributes of the “Ideal job” 4 types of forms with the same requirements were used: form C1 was distributed to classes X B and IX C for the control groups, form N1 for the intervention groups from the same classes, which were presented with a negative scenario (N stands for negative), form C2 was distributed in classes X A and IX A for the control groups, form P2 for the intervention groups from the same classes, which were presented with a positive scenario . The answers were collected on the basis of an electronic form. The content of the form was aimed at: class, gender (female or male) and the open-ended question "How do you imagine the ideal job for you?"

In the first stage, the control groups were asked to respond to the form received, namely to write about the attributes of the ideal job. Firstly, the control groups filled in the forms, afterwards before presenting the film to the students, the teacher informed the students about a scenario regarding the research team who interviewed a "potential employer". In the video to be watched it is his answer about his work environment and expectations from the "future employee". The teacher, based on the same scenario, explains to the students that he “omitted” the presentation of the film from the very beginning, in order to give the students the confidence that there is no difference between the two groups. In the negative scenario, Stelian Caraion, the manager of a restaurant in Galați, describes it as a mid- luxury one with an average of 400 customers per day. The restaurant currently has 10 chefs and 15 waiters. The salary conditions are motivating, above the average of similar positions în Galati. Due to the high workload, stress and pressure, negative motivation is the most used among employees. Although it is a pandemic, in the proposed scenario the restaurant aims to increase its team.

In the positive scenario, the restaurant is located in a mountainous area. It has an average of 200 customers per day, a mid range clientele, currently the manager Ionica Negresco has a team of 6 chefs and 10 waiters. Salary packages are within the market average, and the fundamental principle on which the restaurant bases its activity is "mutual respect" between employees, regardless of the situation. The aim is to increase the team, and the candidate must correspond to the team's profile.

At the end of the video, the teacher also asks the intervention groups to fill in the form. In the 10B grade, the experiment was performed face to face, due to the physical presence of students at school, out of a total of 25 students, there were 18 girls and 7 boys, the control group consisted of 13 students and the intervention group of 12 students, the groups being relatively homogeneous. Out of a total of 25 students recruited for the experiment, due to the pandemic situation in which the town was at the date of the experiment (March 30, 2021), namely the town was in a red code situation, the actual attendance at school was 18 students, of which 14 girls and 3 boys, 72% of the class. Out of the total number of students present, the response rate was 100%. The control group was represented by 11 students, of which 3 boys, and the intervention group of 7 students, of which 1 boy. For the 10A grade, the experiment was performed face to face, with the presence of students at school, out of a total of 21 students, the girls were 11 and the boys 10, the control group consisted of 11 students and the intervention one of 10 students, the

groups being relatively homogeneous. Out of a total of 21 students recruited for the experiment, on March 30, 2021, the date of the experiment, the actual attendance at school was 18 students, of which 8 girls and 10 boys, 86% of the class. Out of the total number of students present, the response rate was 100%. The control group was represented by 7 students, of which 4 boys, and the intervention group of 11 students, of which 6 boys. The intervention group was shown the film with a positive script. All responses collected were in electronic format.

In the 9C grade, the experiment was conducted online, on the Google Classroom platform, out of a total of 29 students, the girls were 16 and 13 boys, the control group consisted of 15 students and the intervention group of 14 students, the groups being relatively homogeneous. Out of a total of 29 students recruited for the experiment, on March 30, 2021, the date of the experiment, the attendance on the Google Classroom platform was 20 students, of which 12 girls and 8 boys, 69% of the class. Out of the total number of students present, the response rate was 100%. The control group consisted of 13 students, of which 6 boys, and the intervention group of 7 students, of which 2 boys. The intervention group watched the film with a negative script. All responses collected were in electronic format.

In the 9A grade, the experiment was conducted online, with the presence of students on the Google Classroom platform, out of a total of 25 students, the girls were 10 and the boys 15, the control group consisted of 13 students and the intervention one of 12 students, the groups being relatively homogeneous. Out of a total of 21 students recruited for the experiment, on March 31, 2021, the date of the experiment, the actual presence on the Google Classroom platform was 17 students, of which 7 girls and 10 boys, 68% of the class. Out of the total number of students present, the response rate was 100%. The control group consisted of 9 students, of which 6 boys, and the intervention group of 8 students, of which 4 boys. The intervention group was shown the film with a positive script. All responses collected were in electronic format.

It was found that all control groups, which did not watch any films, requested additional information on what should be included in the “ideal workplace”, and the intervention groups, who watched the films, regardless of whether they were positive. or negative, did not ask for other information, their responses were much more spontaneous, the waiting time for submitting the completed form was shorter. For almost half of the students targeted in the experiment, the classes took place online, the teacher involved in the experiment could not notice the students' reactions after watching the film, in the face-to-face classes, the reactions to watching the film with a positive script were visually imperceptible. watching the film with a negative script, the reactions of some students indicate a slight disapproval of the script presented.

Research results

First of all, the online answers, as well as the handwritten ones, were centralized and analyzed with the help of the atlas.ti qualitative analysis software. The coding activity was not based on predefined codes but these codes, which reflected the attributes of the studied variables, were defined as the coding was performed, depending on the open answers of the respondents. It is the in-vivo coding technique. The result was a number of 9 attributes searched for in relation to a job. We list them in the table below.

Figure 1. Codes corresponding to qualitative analysis for current research

		C1 □ 2 ☹ 51	C2 □ 1 ☹ 26	N1 □ 2 ☹ 19	P2 □ 1 ☹ 19
◇ colegialitate	☹ 35	10	5	8	12
◇ implicare si provocari profesionale	☹ 12	4	2	3	3
◇ integritate	☹ 1			1	
◇ invatare si dezvoltare profesionala	☹ 14	4	4	2	4
◇ mediu fizic placut	☹ 36	12	9	7	8
◇ recompense materiale	☹ 28	10	5	4	9
◇ relaxare & placere	☹ 41	15	14	6	6
◇ respect	☹ 14	5	1	3	5
◇ stabilitate	☹ 3	1	1		1
Totals		61	41	34	48

Translation from Romanian in the above order: collegiality, involvement and professional challenges, integrity, learning and professional development, pleasant physical environment, material rewards, relaxation & pleasure, respect and stability.

Of these, we grouped as attributes with moral resonances, the following 4: collegiality, learning and professional development, integrity and respect. For the analysis of the first set of hypotheses, we performed an analysis of variance (ANOVA) on the control group C1, respectively on the negative intervention group N1.

Table 1 Descriptive analysis of groups for C1 / N1

Groups	Count	Sum	Average	Variance
collegiality	2	18	9	2
involvement_professional_challenges	2	7	3.5	0.5
integrity	2	1	0.5	0.5
learning_personal_development	2	6	3	2
pleasant_physical_environment	2	19	9.5	12.5
material_rewards	2	14	7	18
relaxation	2	21	10.5	40.5
respect	2	8	4	2
stability	2	1	0.5	0.5

Table 2 Analysis of the variance between control group C1 and negative intervention group N1

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Between Groups	235.1111	8	29.38889	3.369427	0.044439	3.229583
Within Groups	78.5	9	8.722222			
Total	313.6111	17				

Given the classical statistical hypotheses and the significance threshold $\alpha = 0.05$ and the decision rule, if $\text{sig} > \alpha$ the hypothesis H01 is not rejected, and if $\text{sig} < \alpha$, then the hypothesis H01 is rejected. The value $\text{sig} = 0.04 < \alpha = 0.05$, in conclusion the hypothesis H0 is rejected. It can be stated with a probability of 95% that the hypothesis of equality of means on groups is rejected, so the characteristics resulting from the interview differ significantly between the people who were in control group 1 and the group who were negatively influenced. In the same way, we proceeded to the analysis of the second set of hypotheses (table 3). Here, having the classical statistical hypotheses, the significance threshold $\alpha = 0.05$ and the decision rule, if $\text{sig} > \alpha$ does not reject the hypothesis H01, and if $\text{sig} < \alpha$, then the hypothesis H02 is rejected. The value $\text{sig} = 0.15 > \alpha = 0.05$, in conclusion the hypothesis H0 is not rejected. It can be stated with a probability of 95% that the hypothesis of equality of means on groups is not rejected, so the characteristics resulting from the interview do not differ significantly between the people who were in control group 1 and the group who were positively influenced.

Table 3 Analysis of the variance between control group C2 and positive intervention group N2

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Between Groups	74.375	3	24.79167	3.051282	0.154664	6.591382
Within Groups	32.5	4	8.125			
Total	106.875	7				

For testing the following two sets of hypotheses, we considered the attributes with moral resonances, namely: collegiality, learning and professional development, integrity and respect. We determined from the frequency table the weight of each value from those mentioned above. We translated the percentage values into absolute values and the following table resulted.

Table 4 Percentage values translated into absolute values for variables connected with the moral attributes of a job

	C1	C2	N1	P2
○ colegialitate	16.39	12.2	23.53	25
○ integritate	0	0	2.94	0
○ invatare și dezvoltare profesionala	6.56	9.76	5.88	8.33
○ respect	8.2	2.44	8.82	10.42

Using the analysis of variance for the values corresponding to the control group and those corresponding to the negative intervention group, the following results were generated.

Table 5 Analysis of the variant for the values of the moral attributes of the control groups C1, respectively of the negative intervention N1

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Between Groups	369.5692	3	123.1897333	16.29763299	0.010448985	6.591382116
Within Groups	30.235	4	7.55875			
Total	399.8042	7				

The value $\text{sig} = 0.01 < \alpha = 0.05$, in conclusion the hypothesis H03 is rejected. It can be stated with a 95% probability that the hypothesis of equality of means by groups is rejected, so the characteristics resulting from the interview differ significantly between the people who were in control group 1 and the group who were negatively influenced, in terms of regarding the characteristics of morality in the workplace. For the last set of hypotheses, respectively the analysis of the variance for the values corresponding to the control group and those corresponding to the positive intervention group, the following results were generated.

Table 6 Analysis of the variant for the values of the moral attributes of the control groups C2, respectively of positive intervention P2

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Between Groups	357.6810375	3	119.2270125	4.154879244	0.101250913	6.591382116
Within Groups	114.78265	4	28.6956625			
Total	472.4636875	7				

The value $\text{sig} = 0.1 > \alpha = 0.05$, in conclusion the hypothesis H04 is accepted. It can be stated with a 95% probability that the hypothesis of equality of means by groups is not rejected, so the characteristics resulting from the interview do not differ significantly between the people who were in control group 1 and the group who were positively influenced, in terms of morality characteristics in the workplace.

Discussions and conclusions

Following the statistical analysis, performed with the Atlas.ti and SPSS programs, we followed the effect of the positive or negative intervention explained in the methodology. It was interesting to note that the influence on the respondents existed only in the case of negative intervention. Thus, the students who watched the video with the potential employer describing mostly unfavorable working conditions changed their assessment of the ideal job compared to the control group both in terms of total values taken into account and in terms of moral aspects.

Similarly, the analysis also revealed the lack of influence of young people's exposure to a positive scenario, with respondents not changing their general or moral values when exposed to a clip with an employer who described predominantly positive conditions at the workplace the work. The most relevant evolution in terms of general values associated with employment in the case of the negative intervention group was the increase in the importance of collegiality from 16.39% to 23.53% (table 7). It seems that a collegial, supportive environment is able to counterbalance a relatively hostile environment. Very interestingly, the relative importance of material rewards decreased (from 16.39% to 11.77%) and of relaxation and pleasure at work (from 24.59% to 17.65%).

Table 7 Evolution of the share of general values associated with the ideal job in the case of control group C1 and negative intervention group N1

	C1 Gr=51; GS=2	N1 Gr=19; GS=2
colegialitate	16.39%	23.53%
implicare și provocari profesionale	6.56%	8.82%
integritate	0.00%	2.94%
invatare și dezvoltare profesionala	6.56%	5.88%
mediu fizic placut	19.67%	20.59%
recompense materiale	16.39%	11.77%
relaxare & placere	24.59%	17.65%
respect	8.20%	8.82%
stabilitate	1.64%	0.00%
Totals	100.00%	100.00%

Regarding the moral values, here the evolution was significant for collegiality and integrity (from 52.63% to 57.14%, respectively from 0% to 7.14%) to the detriment of learning and professional development and respect. (Table 8)

Table 8 Evolution of the weight of moral values associated with the ideal job in the case of control group C1 and negative intervention group N1

	C1 Gr=51; GS=2	N1 Gr=19; GS=2
collegiality	52.63%	57.14%
integrity	0.00%	7.14%
learning and professional development	21.05%	14.29%
respect	26.32%	21.43%
Totals	100.00%	100.00%

Analyzing the Sankey diagram in figure 2, we could see that most students tend to be attracted by those values related to an easy and pleasant workplace such as relaxation, pleasant environment, collegiality but also the material rewards seem to be of crucial importance.

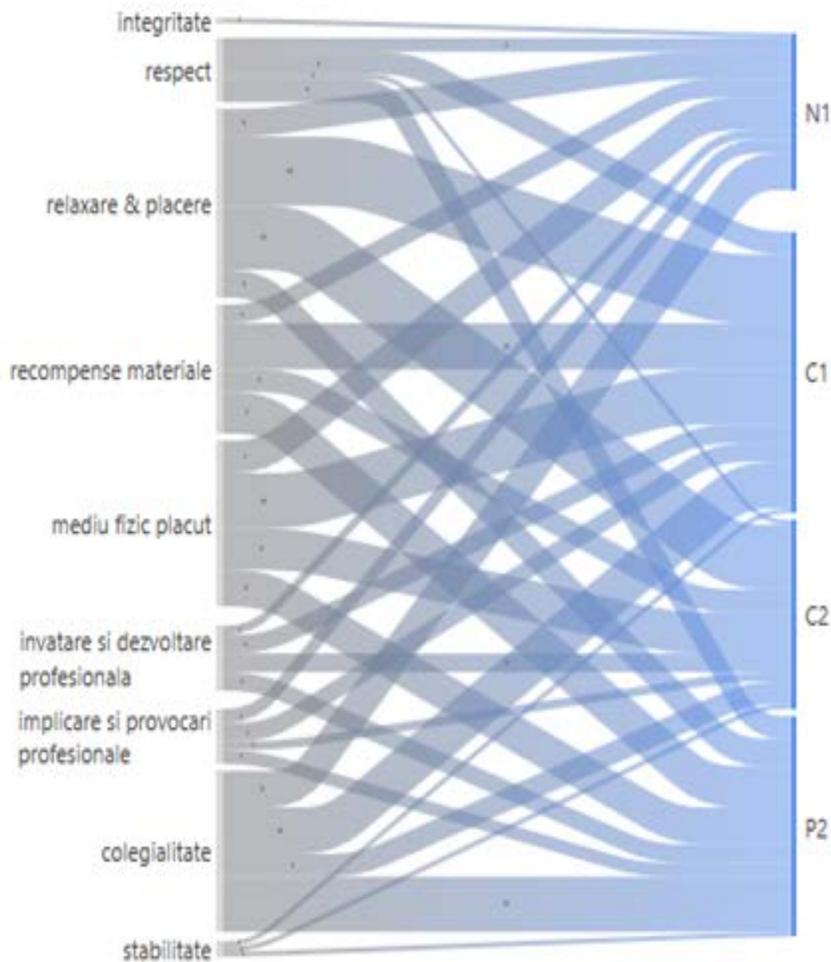


Figure 2 Sankey diagram of all cumulative values on all groups studied

Limitations and future research

The study had as its essential limit, the unexpected suspension of on site teaching dictated by the current pandemic context. Basically, it affected the response rate, interest, but also the random distribution of students in the control group, because everything was done in the last week of school, the participation and interest of students were minimal. Ideally, we would have preferred to randomly distribute respondents into a single control group, but being few in school and few classes available, we resorted to two control groups to ensure comparability: control and intervention groups being from the same classes. It would be interesting to resume the experiment by randomizing the entire school population, ensuring a uniform distribution by gender, but also by high school / vocational school. It may be interesting for a future study to find out from students how they see the future, in the context of artificial intelligence and automation taking over relevant parts of the hospitality industry. Scenarios such as delivering the menu by drone at home, or taking over the reception of a hotel by a robot Sofia, etc., will be fashionable. There are already branded hotel chains, where most hotel functions are delivered through robotics and artificial intelligence. In this context, it would be interesting to study how these students perceive this threat.

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DIGITAL LITERACY AND PRIMARY EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IN NIGERIA

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Abstract: *Despite the enormous potential of ICTs and digital literacy in the educational setup, most primary schools in Benin City are yet to fully implement and take advantage of its numerous benefits to the teaching and learning process. This study therefore examined the possibility of incorporating digital literacy at the primary school level as well as ascertains the extent to which electronic gadgets are available and accessible and the challenges militating against the implementation of digital literacy in private primary schools in Benin City. The research design adopted for this study is descriptive survey. Using the stratified random sampling technique, a total of 448 primary school teachers responded to the Digital Literacy Questionnaire in Primary School (DLPQS) that was developed by the researcher and used for data collection. The data analysis was done using simple tables of frequency counts and percentages. Findings from the study revealed that whilst 90.2% of the teachers possessed Personal Computers (PC) and other electronic gadgets and were relatively proficient with the use of said devices, computers and digital gadgets were not readily available and accessible as 52.7% of the teachers taught in schools that did not currently have a computer lab with 60.7% not having access to the lab. Where available, 69.4% of the teachers indicated that most of the computers were outdated and not functional and 79.5% reported that the number of computers were insufficient. Findings also showed that – lack of/ insufficient number of computers, poor internet connectivity and epileptic power supply were the major drawbacks in the use of digital literacy in the primary schools.*

Keywords: *Digital Literacy, Primary Schools, Educational System, Information and Communication Technology*

Introduction

The concept of digital literacy as a subject matter is very broad with a variety of definitions and a range of applications to virtually all walks of life. With regards to the educational system in general and primary school education in particular, digital literacy can be defined as the capacity of an individual to know when and how to use digital technology to access, process, evaluate, create and communicate information through writing and other media on various digital platforms (Rubble and Bailey, 2007). It is one of the numerous benefits of the 21st century breakthrough in Information and Communication Technology (ICT) that has led to the increased use of technological devices like computers, mobile phones, televisions and DVDs as well as the internet to create, manage and distribute information. This breakthrough in information and communication technology in recent years has had significant impact on the different sectors of the economy including education. The advancement in technology has led to the era where learning through the internet is a possibility. With respect to education, increased access to the internet and improved availability of learning materials and technological gadgets has led to the breaking of the restriction to a particular place and time for both

students and instructors before learning can occur that plagued the pre ICT era. This undeniable growth in the educational system due to the use of internet and the availability of digital outlets like audio and video CDs among others that has undoubtedly made the task of the teachers and students easier have mostly been implemented at the secondary and tertiary institutions with varying degrees of success dependent on peculiarities and challenges inherent at the geographical locations at which it has been implemented.

For countries in Europe and America, digital literacy is an integral part of their educational system with well structured digital innovations that have led to relative success in the use of internet and other digital literacy components. It has been of enormous benefits to their students in various learning institutions at different levels relative to Sub Saharan Africa in general and Nigeria in particular. For us here in Nigeria, our educational system is divided into primary (6 years), secondary (6 years) and tertiary (4 years) levels with the primary level of education designed as the foundation upon which higher levels of education are built. Despite the willingness and pledged commitment by the Nigerian government and relevant stake holders in educational planning and management to inculcate computer appreciation in our educational systems, Nigeria is yet to fully incorporate digital literacy into its curriculum and subsequently implement it at all levels (Achuonye 2012; Damkor et al., 2015). Findings from previous studies have shown that effective computer literacy skills and subsequent utilizations in Nigeria has been significantly hindered by factors such as availability and accessibility of computers to classrooms, teacher quality and teaching method, learning environment and learner characteristics. Most of the studies conducted by indigenous researchers (list 6 journal authors) have focused majorly on the application of the various forms of computer literacy and e-learning to different secondary and mostly tertiary institution. There appear to be a neglect of studies on the incorporation and subsequent evaluation of digital literacy among primary schools in Nigeria. This study is therefore set to conduct an in-depth research into digital literacy in primary schools in Nigeria.

Statement of the Problem

The primary education system in Nigeria is designed such that it is the foundation on which other levels of education are built. To achieve its aim of equipping pupils for further studies and adequately grooming them to function effectively in a continuously growing and fast paced digital driven world, it is imperative that the relevant stake holders in education incorporate the basic elements of digital literacy in the primary school curriculum and that teachers implement them accordingly. However, the adoption and utilization of computers and electronic gadgets by teachers, school administrators and pupils for teaching and learning as well as administrative purposes require that (i) teachers are competent (ii) these electronic gadgets are available and accessible (ii) the conditions are suitable for its use. Despite the enormous potentials of ICTs and digital literacy in the educational setup, the reality however is that most educational institutions in Nigeria particularly at the primary level are yet to fully implement and take advantage of its numerous benefits to the acquisition, processing, storing and dissemination of audio, video, textual, pictorial and numerical information necessary in the teaching and learning process (Ogundele and Etejere, 2013; Damkor et al, 2015). This is perhaps due to the peculiarities of the Nigerian educational setup and other challenges yet to be identified. Given the seeming shortage of literature on the subject matter in Nigeria, this research is therefore

saddled with the responsibility of examining the possibility of incorporating digital literacy at the primary school level, ascertaining the extent to which electronic gadgets are available and accessible as well as identify the challenges militating against the implementation of digital literacy in private primary schools in Benin City.

Aim and Objectives of the Study

This study seeks to examine the possibility of incorporating digital literacy at the primary school level for pupils attending private schools in Benin City, Edo state, Nigeria. The specific objectives of this study are to:

Evaluate the progress made with respect to the implementation of digital literacy in private primary schools in Benin City, Edo state, Nigeria.

Identify and investigate the challenges of implementing digital literacy in private primary schools in Benin City.

Provide useful insight necessary for the incorporation of digital literacy in private primary schools.

Significance of the Study

Given the fact that most studies on digital and computer literacy in Nigeria have focused on secondary and tertiary levels of education creating a significant gap in the literature of digital literacy at the primary educational level, it is our hope that this study will help fill that gap in Benin City by simultaneously providing useful insights necessary for the implementation of digital literacy at the primary school level in Benin City and acting as a wakeup call to both the teaching staff at the various primary schools in Benin City who are not currently proficient in the use of digital technologies for the delivery of their lessons and the relevant government authorities to step up efforts to increase availability and accessibility of computers and digital technology gadgets. It would also contribute significantly to the body of existing knowledge on digital literacy in Nigeria thereby providing academic researchers in the field of digital and information literacy skills the necessary background information relevant for their research. Primary school administrators could also find it useful in the planning, budgeting and provision of digital facilities and electronic gadgets.

Literature Review

The concept of digital literacy

The term “digital literacy” which was first introduced and defined by Gilster (1997) as “the ability to understand and use information in multiple formats from a wide range of sources when it is presented via computers” has since become an all-encompassing phrase that has enjoyed a range of uses in the ICT literature (Eshet-Alkalai, 2004). While Bruce and Peyton, (1999) and later Davies et. al., (2002) used the term “digital literacy” to describe the technical and operational skills required for optimal computer usage, other researchers further extended the definition to both include information literacy and highlight the higher-order cognitive aptitude required to access, analyze, and create information via the utilization of digital resources and technological gadgets (Tapscott, 1998; Van Laar et. al., 2017). Other researchers who have attempted to define the concept of digital literacy includes: Eshet-Alkalai, (2002); Eshet-Alkalai and Amichai-Hamburger,

(2004); Aviram and Eshet-Alkalai, (2006); Jones Kavalier and Flannigan, 2008). Beyond the ability to use software and operate digital devices properly, Eshet-Alkalai, (2002) defined Digital Literacy as a large variety of complex cognitive, motor, sociological, and emotional skills, which users need to function effectively in digital environments. Further research by Eshet-Alkali & Amichai-Hamburger, (2004) revealed that the concept of Digital Literacy which has become a basic and necessary survival skill in the technological era “comprises of a growing variety of cognitive skills that are extensively utilized while working intuitively in the execution of both simple and complex task in digital environments”. Digital literacy is therefore a combination of skills - technical, procedural, cognitive and social-emotional (Aviram & Eshet Alkali, 2006). As the interconnection of digital technologies and literacy becomes more elaborate, the need for the introduction of digital literacy into classroom activities for innovative classroom instructional practices significantly increases (Pacino and Nofle, 2011).

Components of Digital Literacy

Digital Literacy is a term that comprises of other elements of information and communication technology. To fully grasp the concept of digital literacy and adequately define it, a look at the various components of digital literacy is both necessary and essential. According to Payton and Hague, (2010); creativity, critical thinking and evaluation, cultural and social understanding, collaboration, ability to find and select information, effective communication, e-safety and functional skills are the eight components of digital literacy. Belshaw, (2011) opined that there are eight essential elements of digital literacy and that anyone seeking to fully harness their digital literacy skills ought to develop skills, attitudes and aptitudes in the eight areas which he identified as: cultural, cognitive, constructive, communicative, confidence, creative, critical and civic. Applying these essential elements to a particular context is essential to adequately defining “digital literacy”. Greene and Copeland, (2014) argues that the two critical aspects of Digital Literacy as it relates to the growing prominence of the internet as educational tools are: (1) the ability to effectively plan and monitor the efficacy of strategies used to search and manage wealth of information available online and (2) the knowledge to appropriately vet and integrate those information sources. Garcia and Weiss, (2017) referred to the components of digital literacy as a set of digital skills, knowledge and understanding that are required for digital participation and necessary to survive and be productive in the digital era. He opined that Photo-Visual literacy, Information literacy, Social-economic literacy, Reproduction literacy and branching literacy are the five basic components of digital literacy for which a potential digital literate should possess the requisite skills needed to be a relevant and informed digital participant. For effective preparation and subsequent delivery of lessons to pupils in primary school, there is need for primary school teachers to develop these basic components of digital literacy skills.

Digital Literacy and Primary School Education in Nigeria

The world has continued to advance at a rapid rate and events have continued to move to the electronic stage with technology permanently altering the way pupils and students learn. The recent outbreak of the novel coronal virus pandemic has further strengthened the case for the inclusion of virtual and e-learning which requires teachers and pupils to be digital literates. Beyond the basic ability to read, write, calculate,

communicate and comprehend, the demands of today's world require students who can embrace information technologies, artificial intelligence and their application (Breen, 2017). With regards to primary school education in Nigeria, a significant number of school children and their teachers still lack access to digital technologies and the requisite technical know-how to utilize them despite the fact that majority of the pupils were born into the internet enabled "always-connected life" (Kavanagh and O'Rourke, 2016) and at a time when computers and devices have become relatively cheaper and easier to use (Belshaw, 2011).

Due to poor funding of government owned primary schools and the resultant dilapidated buildings housing crowded classrooms, most Nigerian children attending those schools can only think of the nonexistent computers and other digital gadgets as luxuries. Where available, the ratio is always ridiculously unbalanced. For those whose parents can afford to pay the exorbitantly high tuition fees for decent private primary and secondary schools, the use of digital gadgets, computers and the internet is already an integral part of their daily life. Unfortunately, they are not familiar with or use technology for learning purposes (Waycott et. al., 2010). The majority of them employ the use of their mobile devices, computers and tablets for social and entertainment purposes rather than learning (Prior et al., 2016). As a result, studies by Gurung and Rutledge, (2014) are of the opinion that pupils in primary schools who are already exposed to the internet and other digitally enabled platforms (digital learners) need help to apply technology effectively for learning to prepare them for further education and help them develop skills for living, learning and working in a digital society now leaning towards artificial intelligence. Unfortunately, most of the primary school teachers who are supposed to teach and offer guidance do not possess those capabilities. If we are to achieve the UN's Sustainable Development Goal 4 target of equipping young people and adult with the relevant skills for decent employment and entrepreneurship by 2030 and prepare the next generation for the challenges of surviving in a continuously evolving digital age now leaning towards automation and artificial intelligence, then there is need for teachers to be made aware of how digital tools can be best used to enhance pupils and student's learning and engagement in the classroom.

Challenges in Digital Literacy Application in Nigerian Primary Educational System

Whilst the application and use of ICT and digital literacy by most European countries has led to transformational changes in their educational landscape at both the primary, secondary and tertiary levels particularly through the instructional process (Kosakowski, 1998) its impact in the Nigerian educational setup at all levels has been relatively minimal due to peculiar challenges that has plagued its integration and implementation process for years. Most primary and secondary educational institutions both private and government owned still carry out their teaching and learning process using chalk boards in physical classrooms devoid of computers or any other digital gadgets/equipments required for the preparation and delivery of digitally inclusive teaching and learning process (Achuoye, 2012). According to Aduwa-Ogiegbaen and Iyamu (2008), factors such as – high cost of computers, weak infrastructures resulting to both epileptic power supply and inadequate telecommunication facilities, lack of the requisite skills by teachers to fully utilize technology in curriculum implementation, lack of relevant soft ware's for content creation and effective teacher-student communication that is culturally suitable to the Nigerian educational system and limited access to the internet were

identified as some of the factors militating against the effective utilization of computers in Nigerian primary and secondary schools. This is in line with the thoughts of Damkor et al. (2015), who opined that other than poor computer literacy skills of secondary school teachers, efforts geared towards the integration and subsequent utilization of digital literacy for teaching purposes have not had much impact due to challenges such as lack of computers due to high cost and poor maintenance, lack of electricity and slow internet connectivity as well as increased moral degradation due to pornography and cyber bullying. Bada et al. (2009) noted that the challenges of computer and digital literacy in Nigerian primary and secondary schools are both educational and administrative. Prominent among the administrative problem is the high cost of installation, maintenance and replacement of computers, projectors and other digital gadgets, meager funding of education due to the depressed economic situation of Nigeria, resistance to change syndrome and dearth of instructional facilities.

Appraisal of Literature

The foregone discussion on the available relevant literatures relating to digital literacy as reviewed by the researcher revealed that although a lot of researches have been carried out on digital literacy in past and recent times, not many and specific studies have been conducted in relation to digital literacy and primary educational system in Benin City. Most of the researches carried out were based on foreign institutions with the few indigenous researchers focusing on digital literacy at the secondary and tertiary levels of education. It is against this background, and scarcity of research work on digital literacy at private primary school level that this study is set to evaluate the progress made with respect to the implementation of digital literacy in private primary schools in Benin City as well as identify and investigate the challenges of implementing digital literacy in private primary schools.

Research Methodology

Research Design

The research design adopted for this study is survey. A survey research method is a type of research in which information is obtained from a sample of respondents for the purpose of testing hypothesis or answering research questions concerning the states of a given problem (Sambo, 2005). Therefore, the use of survey research method will allow the researcher to measure the opinion, behavior, and experience of the private primary school teachers in Benin City (Population of the study) by studying a small sample from that group (teachers from the randomly selected schools in each LGA) given that it is impossible or impracticable to observe all members of the population; then generalizing back to the population. This therefore means that the method is efficient in getting information on the opinions, feelings and attitudes of the respondents, in this case, towards the availability, accessibility and use of digital literacy gadgets in private primary schools.

Population of the Study

The focus of this research is on digital literacy skills and implementation levels in the Nigerian educational system at the elementary school stage. The study covers all the private schools in the five local government areas in Benin City. The population - defined

as “the collection of individuals with similar characteristics where the sample is picked from in the belief that generalization can be made” (Babbie, 2010) of the study consist of the teachers and administrative staffs of all private primary schools in Benin City, the capital of Edo State, Nigeria. The research was conducted in Benin City, the capital of Edo State, Nigeria. There are five local governments in the city. Private primary schools will be chosen from each of the five Local Government Areas and used for the study.

Sample and Sampling Technique

The sampling procedure used in this study is the stratified random sampling. The decision to employ the stratified random sampling technique for this research was based on the need to give each private primary school teacher in Benin City an equal chance of being selected irrespective of the local government in which the school they teach is situated within the state. First, the private primary schools in Benin City were divided into five (5) strata corresponding to the five Local Government Areas in Benin City. The five local government areas which were used to represent each stratum are: Oredo, Egor, Ikpoba-Okha, Ovia-North-East and Umunwonde. From each of the five strata, ten (10) private schools were selected at random. This brought the total number of schools that was selected for the sampling exercise to fifty (50). Next, ten (10) teachers / management staff was selected from each school based on subject areas using simple random sampling method. This implies that for each strata, 100 staffs (10 teachers per school × 10 schools) were selected leading to an overall sample size of 500 teachers / management staff who were administered the research instrument.

Instrument for Data Collection

The instrument for data collection is the researcher’s self developed questionnaire tagged Digital Literacy Questionnaire in Primary Schools DLQPS (see Appendix). The use of the questionnaire was subject to approval from my academic supervisor after validation. The research instrument is made up of four parts. The first part is concerned with the demographic characteristics of the respondents. The focus of the second part is on the availability of ICT facilities for use among private primary schools in Benin City. Part 3 consists of 24 items bothering on the ICT proficiency levels among private primary school teachers. Part 4 samples questions targeted at revealing the challenges to digital literacy implementation. Part 4 also contain items addressing key questions necessary for actualizing the aims and objectives of the research. The questionnaire is on a four point scale in which primary school teachers are expected to tick their responses to the under listed statement in each part. In response to the items in the research instrument (questionnaire) to be administered to the participants of this study, the following keys were used: Key: Yes (Y); No (N); Strongly Agree (SA); Agree (A); Disagree (D); Strongly Disagree (SD); Beginner (B); Intermediate (I); Advance (AD); Expert (E); True (T); False (F).

Validity and Reliability of Research Instrument

Validity is the measurement of how well a research instrument examines what it is supposed to examine. It is the extent to which a concept, conclusion or measurement is well founded, accurately reflecting the meaning of the concepts under study (Osuala, 2005; Babbie, 2010). In line with standard research practice, validation of the research instrument

to ensure that the DLQPS is well founded and adequately measures the various components of digital literacy among private primary school teachers in Benin City, the researcher has therefore (i) made the questions in the instrument relevant, clear and unambiguous (ii) ensured that the questions cover as much as possible, all the dimensions of digital literacy variables (iii) submitted the questionnaire to my academic supervisor for critical evaluation and scrutiny of content relevance, coverage and clarity (iv) make necessary amendments based on the suggestions from my supervisor. Furthermore, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was employed to ascertain and ensure the reliability of the research instrument. A reliable study produces a consistent, precise, and accurate variable that does not fluctuate over time when repeatedly measured (Ojebode et al., 2010). A research instrument with a Cronbach's value of 0.7 or above is reliable (Ary et. al., 2006).

Method of Data Collection

To obtain the data for use in this study, the researcher personally administered the questionnaire to the teachers in each of the selected schools to ensure that the target population received and filled the questionnaire. This was done to increase the response rate and ensure an increased level of accuracy. Due to the geographical distance between the primary schools in each of the different local government, the time for administering and retrieval of the research instrument was ten working days. This implied that the researcher spent two (2) working days in each of the five (5) Local Government Areas where the randomly selected schools were located.

Method of Data Presentation and Analysis

To carry out the data analysis, information obtained from the research instrument that was administered to and retrieved from the respondents will be interpreted in order for the information to be readable, accessible and understandable. This process will involve tabulating, editing, and coding the data in order to determine the extent to which digital literacy gadgets are available and accessible in primary schools as well as the digital literacy proficiency level of primary school teachers and their level of application of computer and digital equipments to the preparation and delivery of their lessons. Quantitative data collected from respondents through questionnaire will be analyzed using descriptive statistics (frequency counts, percentages, mean and maybe standard deviation) and presented in simple tables and charts based on the objectives of the study.

Data Presentation, Analysis and Interpretation

The presentation and analysis of data is done in stages under carefully crafted subheadings for the actualization of the study objectives. The first section of this chapter is a review of the demographic characteristics of the respondents. This is followed by an examination of the data with a view to finding answers to the three research questions that this study seeks to answer. Thereafter, a recap of the study's key results and findings is presented. Five hundred (500) copies of the questionnaire were administered and four hundred and forty-eight (448) were retrieved. This resulted in a response rate of 89.6%.

Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Tables 1 – 4 below are a summary of the demographic characteristics of the participants based on gender, age, teaching experience and academic qualifications.

Table 1: Distribution of Respondents by Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	198	44.2
Female	250	55.8
Total	448	100

Source: Researcher’s survey, 2021

The statistics from Table 1 shows that 198 respondents from the selected private primary schools which represent 44.2% are males while 250 of the respondents which represent 55.8% of the study participants were female teachers.

Table 2: Distribution of Respondents by Age Range

Age Range (years)	Frequency	Percentage
Below 30	238	53.1
30 – 50	194	43.3
Above 50	16	3.6
Total	448	100

Source: Researcher’s survey, 2021

With 53.1% of the respondents below the age 30, Table 2 clearly shows that a greater percentage of the respondents were young adults with respondents between the age brackets of (30 – 50) years accounting for 43.3%. Only sixteen respondents (3.6%) were above the age of 50 years.

Table 3: Distribution of Respondents by Teaching Experience

Teaching Experience (years)	Frequency	Percentage
1 – 3	214	47.8
4 – 10	180	40.2
Above 10	54	12.0
Total	448	100

Source: Researcher’s survey, 2021

Table 3 reveals that a larger percentage of the respondents (47.8%) had less than five years teaching experience. This is hardly surprising giving that over fifty percent of them were less than 30 years of age. Only 54 of the respondents (12%) had more than 10 years teaching experience.

Table 4: Distribution of Respondents based on Academic Qualification

Academic Qualification	Frequency	Percentage
NCE	160	35.7
B.Sc. / B.Ed.	192	42.9
M.Sc. / M.Ed.	28	6.3
Others	68	15.1

Total	448	100
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Source: Researcher's survey, 2021

Table 4 above shows that 160 study participants (35.7%) held a National Certificate in Education NCE while 42.9% of the respondents were Bachelor's degree holders with only 28 teachers (6.3%) possessing a master's degree.

Assessment of the Availability of Digital Gadgets

Table 5 displays the level of availability and accessibility of technological devices such as computers, handheld devices, television, DVD's and digital cameras in response to the first research question "To what extent are technological devices and electronic gadgets available and accessible for classroom instructors in private primary schools in Benin City?" using information obtained from section A of the research instrument.

Table 5: Availability and Accessibility of Digital Gadgets

S/N	ITEMS	YES		NO	
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%
1	Availability of Digital Gadgets Do you have a personal computer or handheld device?	404	90.2	44	9.8
2	Does your school have a computer lab?	212	47.3	236	52.7
3	Do you have access to the computer room?	176	39.3	272	60.7
4	Do you have any official electronic device given to you for the preparation and delivery of your lesson plans?	124	27.7	324	72.3
5	Does your school have a website or e-learning platform?	208	46.4	240	53.6
6	Does your school have Wi-Fi or any other form of internet connectivity?	152	33.9	296	66.1

Source: Researcher's survey, 2021

With regards to the research question on the availability and accessibility of computers and other digital gadgets, Table 5 shows that although 90.2% of the respondents possessed Personal Computers (PC) and other handheld devices, only 212 respondents (47.3) indicated that there was a computer lab in the school where they taught. Where available, only 39.3% of the respondents had access to the computer labs with over 60% not having access to the computer room. This indicates that to a large extent, computers and digital gadgets are not readily available and accessible in the private primary schools in Benin City. This narrative is further strengthened by the fact that only 27.7% of the respondents were officially given computers and other electronic gadgets for the teaching and preparation of their lesson plans. The table also revealed that there was little to no Wi-Fi or internet connectivity with only 152 respondents (33.9%) admitting that there was internet connectivity within the school premises with over 66% not having Wi-Fi or internet connection.

Assessment of Teacher's Digital Literacy Proficiency

Tables 6 displays the level of proficiency of the study participants in response to the second research question "Are the private school teachers and instructors proficient in

the use of computers and the internet?” using information obtained from section B of the research instrument.

Table 6: Distribution of Teacher’s Proficiency Level

S/N	ITEMS	YES		NO	
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%
1	Can you turn on and shut down a computer correctly?	386	86.2	62	13.8
2	Do you know how to install a software programme?	285	63.6	163	36.4
3	Can you create and edit a basic Word document?	296	66.1	152	33.9
4	Can you create and edit a basic Excel spreadsheet?	281	62.7	167	37.3
5	Can you create a simple presentation using Power point?	278	62.1	170	37.9
6	Can you write files onto a CD, DVD or USB drive?	240	53.6	208	46.4
7	Can you download and use educational apps on digital devices?	264	58.9	184	41.1
8	Can you search for information online using web search engines?	356	79.5	92	20.5

Source: Researcher’s survey, 2021

From the table, 386 respondents (86.2%) could boot and shut down a computer correctly while 63.6% of them could install software programs on the computer by themselves. This is hardly a surprise given that (from Table 5), over 90% of the respondents owned a Personal Computer (PC). Furthermore, results obtained from the responses of the study participants showed that over 60% of respondents were comfortable using Microsoft Office programs for either creating a basic word document, spreadsheet or for making simple presentations using power point. This indicates that most of the primary school teachers were relatively proficient in the use of computers. With 264 respondents (58.9%) being able to download and use educational app on digital devices, we can infer that the teachers are also comfortable surfing the internet. This deduction is further strengthened by the fact that 356 respondents (approximately 80%) could search for information online using web search engines.

Assessment of the Challenges of Digital Literacy Implementation

Tables 7 is a display of the challenges of digital literacy implementation in response to the third research question “What are the challenges mitigating against the implementation of digital literacy in private primary schools in Benin City?” using information obtained from section C of the research instrument. From Table 7 above, a combined 79.5% of the respondents agree/admit that not having enough computers in the respective schools where they taught was a challenge with only about 21% disagreeing. With regards to electricity supply, a combined 88.8% of the respondents agreed that epileptic power supply/incessant power outage was a major setback to digital literacy implementation. The lack of Wi-Fi or internet connectivity within school premises had a combined 69.4% of the respondent in agreement with only 30.6% in disagreement. Although only 47.3% (from Table 5) of respondents taught in schools that had computer

lab, yet a combined 69.4% admitted that the school computers are not functional or outdated. On the lack of the requisite computer and digital literacy skills of teachers, only 40% were in agreement with about 60% disagreeing. This is in line with deduction from Table 6 in section 4.4 where it was observed that most of the primary school teachers were relatively proficient. With only 32.6% of the respondents agreeing that most teachers were reluctant to use ICT at school, we can conveniently discard it as major hindrance to the implementation of digital literacy given that about 67% of the respondents disagreed.

Summary, Conclusion and Recommendation

Summary of findings

Findings from this study showed that although most of the primary school teachers owned personal computers (pc) and other handheld devices, and were relatively proficient, computers and digital gadgets are not readily available and accessible in the private primary schools in Benin City. The major hindrances to the implementation of digital literacy in the primary schools were lack of computers and internet connectivity along with epileptic power supply. Listed below are the findings from the field work carried out by the researcher. Most of the private primary school teachers possessed Personal Computers (PC) and/or other electronic gadgets and were also relatively proficient with the use of the said PC's and handheld devices as well as been able to surf the net in search of relevant information for use in their teaching. In the private primary schools were majority of the respondents taught in, computers and digital gadgets were not readily available and accessible as many schools do not currently have a computer lab. Where available, most of the computers were not functional, outdated or insufficient with little to no Wi-Fi and internet connectivity in most of the primary schools. Lack of / insufficient number of computers and internet connectivity along with poor power supply and incessant power outage were a major drawback in the implementation of the digital literacy in the primary schools.

Conclusion and Recommendations

In this study, an attempt has been made to examine the progress made with respect to the implementation of digital literacy in private primary schools in Benin City, Edo state, Nigeria as well as identify and investigate the challenges of implementing digital literacy in private primary schools in Benin City in the hope that the findings would provide useful insight necessary for the incorporation of digital literacy in private primary schools within the state. Whilst it is encouraging to note that most of the primary school teachers who are tasked with the responsibility of inculcating digital knowledge and awareness into the primary school pupils are relatively proficient in the use of computers and digital gadgets, findings from the study that revealed a relative lack of computers and digital gadgets in the selected primary schools within the state is disturbing given the fact that the world today is continuously leaning towards not just a digitally driven economy but one laced with Artificial Intelligence. The need to implement digital literacy into primary schools and equip the future leaders of this state with the requisite digital knowledge necessary to survive in the 21st century cannot be overemphasized. However, to expose pupils early to computer and digital literacy and prepare them adequately for both further studies and future work life, the challenges revealed by this study must first be navigated. The

researcher has therefore made some recommendations based on the findings from this study. Arising from this study, the following recommendations are suggested:

To be more responsive to the needs of the society in line with the demands of the digital age, the researcher recommends that - the responsibility of integrating digital literacy into both private and government owned primary schools in Benin City and Nigeria at large be a shared collective effort from all stake holders ranging from the government through her various representative agencies to school administrators, teaching staff, parents and the pupils who are being taught. The State and Federal Government should ensure that it follows up on her past commendable efforts such as the establishment of the Digital Literacy Council of Nigeria in 2017 and the partnership entered into by “The National Information Technology Development Agency (NITDA)” with the Nigerian Union of Journalist (NUJ), FCT council on digital literacy and skill acquisition in Nigeria through prompt interventions in the areas of ICT deployments by tackling the challenges of digital literacy highlighted in this study via the provision of adequate funding, electricity and internet connectivity as well as subsidizing the cost of computer installations/maintenance.

School Administrators and Primary School Management Board should constantly organize extensive seminars, workshops and trainings on the use of digital technology in the classroom to regularly update teacher’s digital literacy competency and keep them abreast with best practices in an ever evolving digital world as well as instill confidence in their ability to effectively incorporate digital technology into daily classroom usage. On the part of the parents, it is recommended that they constantly pay close attention to the online and offline activities of their children/ward that have access to mobile devices, personal computers and the internet.

Contribution to Knowledge

This study has contributed to existing knowledge by:

- filling the gap in the literature of digital literacy at the primary educational level in Benin City, Edo state, Nigeria occasioned by the focus of indigenous researchers on the application of the different forms of digital literacy and e-learning at the secondary and tertiary levels of education.
- providing useful insights necessary for the implementation of digital literacy at the primary school level in Benin City

Strength and Limitation of the Study

This study is one of the foremost in Nigeria to consider digital literacy and the primary educational system with a view to evaluating the progress made with respect to the implementation of digital literacy in private primary schools in Benin City, Edo state, Nigeria. On the strength of this study are the sample size and the relatively low non response rate, with over 89% of the study participants completing the survey instrument? Furthermore, respondents were made anonymous and their responses kept strictly confidential. However, this study has a few drawbacks in that this research did not consider teachers in public primary schools neither did it take a cursory look at the ratio of computers to pupils in the schools that had computer labs and the possibility of the use of the said computers in the preparation / delivery of lesson plans. Another possible limitation to this study is one that is common to all survey based research and that is conscious or subconscious opinion bias of the respondents.

Suggestion for Further Studies

Based on the limitation and findings of this study, the following suggestions for future research are suggested. First of all, the present study was focused on only private primary schools in Benin City. Future research should therefore consider the survey of public primary schools teachers within the state. Although the findings obtained from the study could be relevant and useful in other parts of Nigeria, it is suggested that other researchers replicate the study in other defined geographical locations across the country.

Implication of the Study for Practice or Policy

After answering the research questions posed in this study, it is the hope of the researcher that the results obtained would (i) provide useful insights necessary for the implementation of digital literacy at the primary school level in Benin City (ii) act as a wakeup call to the few teaching staffs at the various primary schools in Benin City who are not currently proficient in the use of digital technologies for the delivery of their lessons (iii) make the relevant government authorities to step up efforts to increase availability and accessibility of computers and digital technology gadgets (iv) contribute significantly to the body of existing knowledge on digital literacy in Nigeria thereby providing academic researchers in the field of digital and information literacy skills the necessary background information relevant for their research.

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PERCEPTION OF WELL-BEING AMONG PATIENTS IN COMMUNITY-BASED HOME HOSPITALIZATION IN THE ISRAELI PUBLIC HEALTH SYSTEM

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Abstract: *The correlation between patients' personal perceptions of their health and well-being, and the potential for recovery has gained importance for evaluating services provided by health organizations. Community-based home hospitalization (CBHH) is a new approach to hospitalization in the Israeli health system. We conducted a cross-sectional survey to examine the perceived well-being among 91 CBHH patients (mean age 65.2 years, 54.9% women) in Israel. Most participants (76.9%) were married and 72.5% were hospitalized due to an infectious disease. Perceived health and general well-being of the participants declined with increasing age. Married participants reporting better perceived mental and physical health. In addition, participants living in the central districts of Israel reported significantly better perceived physical and mental health compared to those living in peripheral districts. Multivariate regression analysis supported the hypotheses that married and younger patients enjoy better perceived physical well-being. At the same time, younger patients and those hospitalized with infectious diseases also perceive their mental well-being as better compared to older patients and those hospitalized in CBHH for other reasons. The study's findings offer useful insights for the planning and delivery of appropriate CBHH services. Particular attention should be paid to older patients, living on their own in peripheral areas of the country.*

Keywords: *home-based hospitalization, well-being, health system, management, patients*

Introduction

The dramatic increase in the number of elderly people in the world has a significant impact on the national policy of each country and implications for the allocation of national resources and budgets. The increasing life expectancy also affects family members, relatives, and friends who assist the elderly in old age. The aging of the population and the increasing consumption of health services due to increased morbidity in old age, together with the constant rise in the number of young chronic patients, have increased health services consumption and the demand for hospital beds. Hospitalization is costly for health systems and is a health risk for many patients due to medical complications related to the hospital stay (e.g., falls, infections, mistaken medications, and unnecessary tests) and the potential functional and cognitive and functional harm to patients, especially older patients. At the same time, it is a common view in many Western countries that elderly people should age in their natural place, while using family members as the primary source of support (Iecovich, 2011). Consequently, healthcare systems in various countries have been examining alternatives to traditional inpatient care for an extensive variety of medical conditions to improve patients' care experience and the health of the population, while reducing the per capita cost of healthcare (Adams, 2019). The development of home-based

hospitalization is of interest to physicians and nurses as well as managers of organizations that provide medical services and insurance because it has the potential for reducing financial expenditures while maintaining the provision of proper medical services (Iecovich, 2011).

In late 2017, Maccabi Health Services (MHS) was the first health maintenance organization (HMO) in Israel to implement an acute community-based home hospitalization (CBHH) program as an alternative to inpatient care (Prodan et al., 2021). Its operating model is based on existing models in other countries (Caplan et al., 2012; Lewis et al., 2012; Mendoza et al., 2009; Ram et al., 2004; Shepperd et al., 2008), with adaptation to the Israeli public health system. The target population of this hospitalization model includes patients with infectious diseases, (e.g. urinary tract infections, skin and skeletal infections, pneumonia), patients with chronic diseases that require hospitalisation due to exacerbations of the disease, and patients with metabolic disorders (e.g., dehydration). Patients considered suitable for CBHH are identified by a MHS nurse in the emergency department or in other hospital departments or in the community and are referred to CBHH as an alternative to hospital admission. The first visit by a physician or nurse is conducted within 2 to 4 hours of the patient's admission to CBHH, followed by daily visits by a physician, nurse and additional healthcare professionals as required (e.g. social worker, physiotherapist) according to the treatment plan. Treatment within this model also includes drawing blood for laboratory tests, complete supply of all required equipment and drug treatment in all routes of administration according to the prescribed doses, hydration, regular catheterisation, or drainage treatment, wound treatment, control of pain and associated symptoms and imaging tests. The duration of CBHH is limited to 3-5 days, but the stay may be extended according to the patient's medical condition. The patients are discharged from CBHH according to their medical condition and the attainment of treatment goals. Patients whose health had worsened during their CBHH are referred to the hospital from which they had been discharged and admitted to the ward in an orderly process that is defined by the hospital's management. A telephone answering service for medical advice is available around the clock. The entire inpatient healthcare regimen is documented as soon as the treatment is over and is typed into a dedicated computer system that interfaces with MHS systems. The medical record enables communication between the staff and forms part of the patient's medical record at the HMO.

We have previously shown that CBHH is perceived by managers in the Israeli public health system as a good alternative to inpatient care and as a service that must be further developed, especially due to the growing shortage of beds, hospitalization complications, the patient's desire to stay at home and the increasing public health costs. Nevertheless, the participants were not unanimous with regards to the economic viability of the existing model in terms of the Israeli HMOs operating CBHH, and the suitability of the service for all potential patients (Megido & Prodan, 2020). The quality of medical service, patient satisfaction, and developing a generalised approach to improving the quality and safety of care, are major elements of public health systems (Garcia-Lacalle & Bachiller, 2011). The correlation between patients' personal perceptions of their health and well-being, and the potential for recovery has become a major issue in examining the services provided by health organizations. Accordingly, obtaining a direct and subjective opinion of patients with different personal characteristics, regarding their health, in

addition to examining objective health outcomes, is perceived as important for the overall evaluation of any health service. Since CBHH is a new service in Israel, we aimed to examine the perceived well-being among CBHH patients in Israel. We hypothesized that (1) patients' demographic characteristics (age, marital status and residential district) will influence their perception of their general well-being in CBHH; (2) there will be differences in perceived well-being between participants hospitalized in CBHH due to infectious diagnoses and those hospitalized for other diagnoses.

Research methodology

Study design

This study was a cross-sectional survey study that was part of a larger mixed methods study (Megido & Prodan, 2020). The study was approved by MHS's ethics committee (approval number 004-20-MHS, date 11 March 2020).

Study participants and setting

Participants were recruited to the study using convenience sampling. Hence, no criteria for inclusion were identified before the participants were selected. The size of the planned sample included all patients discharged from CBHH of MHS from July to September 2020. Study participants were patients who had received treatment in a CBHH setting at Maccabi Health Services (HMO) between July and September 2020. Hebrew-speaking patients (or ones with a Hebrew-speaking caregiver) who had been treated in a CBHH setting for at least 3 days during the two months that preceded the study and who gave their consent to participate in the study were included. At the time of the study approximately 50 patients were hospitalized in CBHH every month. The sample selected for this study constitutes approximately 70% of these patients, encompassing all patients or caregivers who have expressed their consent to complete the questionnaire. The study assumes that the sample selected for this study represents the entire population of CBHH patients in Israel at the time of the study.

Research tool and data collection

The research tool used for data collection in this study was the Patient-Reported Outcomes Measurement Information System 10 (PROMIS-10) Global Health survey is a ten-item questionnaire that was developed by the United States National Institute of Health to assess generic health-related quality of life compared with normal values for the general population (Hays et al., 2009). It measures five domains: physical function, fatigue, pain, emotional distress, and social health on a five-point response matrix. Study participants (or their caregiver) completed the questionnaire. Completed questionnaires were collected and the data was typed into an Excel sheet (Microsoft Office 2019 software).

Data analysis

The data were analyzed using IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, Version 25.0. (Armonk, NY: IBM Corp). Descriptive statistics of subject data was performed and expressed as means and standard deviations (SD) for continuous variables and as number and percentage for categorical variables. The two-sample T-test for independent samples was applied for testing the statistical significance of the difference in physical health and

mental health by age, marital status, participant residential district and reason for being admitted to CBHH. Multivariate linear regression models were applied to test the statistical significance of the difference in physical and mental health by demographic and clinical variables. All statistical tests were two-sided. P-values less than 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

Results

A total of 91 participants (mean age [SD], 65.2 years [16.9]; 54.9% women) were included in the study. The Participants' sociodemographic characteristics and reason for CBHH are shown in table 1. Most participants (76.9%) were married. The main reason for hospitalization was an infectious disease (72.5% of participants).

Table 1. Participant characteristics

Variable	Study population N=91
Sex, n (%)	
Men	41 (45.1%)
Women	50 (54.9%)
Age, years, mean (SD)	65.2 (16.9)
Family status	
Single	6 (6.6%)
Married	70 (76.9%)
Divorced/widowed	15 (16.5%)
District	
Jerusalem	31 (34.1%)
Central	18 (19.8%)
Northern	29 (31.9%)
Southern	13 (14.3%)
Main reason for CBHH	
Infectious disease	66 (72.5%)
Other	25 (27.5%)
Questionnaire completed by	
Patient	43 (47.3%)
Caregiver	48 (52.7%)
CBHH = community-based home hospitalization, SD = standard deviation	

Table 2 presents the means of the PROMIS questionnaire domains. The mean of physical health for all patients was 39.1 (SD, 11.4) and the mean of mental health was 45.2 (SD, 12.6).

Table 2. Summary of PROMIS questionnaire results

PROMIS domain	Study population N=91			
	Mean	SD	Actual range	Possible range
Physical health	39.1	11.4	19.9-67.7	16.2-67.7
Mental health	45.2	12.6	21.2-67.6	21.2-67.6
Q6 (global 9r)	2.6	1.6	1-5	1-5
SD=standard deviation				

Analysis of the physical and mental health domains of the PROMIS questionnaire by participants' age (Table 3) showed that both mean physical and mental health were

statistically significantly higher in participants younger than 55 years compared to those 55 years of age or older ($p < 0.0001$ for both). Hence, younger patients in CBHH perceive their well-being as better than older patients.

Table 3. Comparison of the perceived physical and mental health of the study participants by age

PROMIS domain	<55 years N=19		≥55 years N=72			P value
	mean	(SD)	mean	(SD)	t(89)	
Physical health	46.4	(12.4)	37.2	(10.3)	3.32	<0.001
Mental health	54.1	(12.6)	42.9	(11.6)	3.67	<0.001

SD=standard deviation. P value by two-sample T-test for independent sample

Analysis of the physical and mental health domains of the PROMIS questionnaire by participants' marital status (Table 4) showed that mean perceived physical health was statistically significantly higher in married participants compared to participants who were single, divorced or widowed ($p < 0.05$) while the difference in mean perceived mental health between married participants and those who were single, divorced or widowed only showed a trend for statistical significance ($p = 0.076$).

Table 4. Comparison of the perceived physical and mental health of the study participants by marital status

PROMIS domain	Married N=70		Single/divorced/widowed N=21			P value
	mean	(SD)	mean	(SD)	t(89)	
Physical health	40.6	(11.5)	34.0	(9.3)	-2.41	<0.05
Mental health	46.5	(12.7)	40.9	(11.8)	-1.79	0.076

SD=standard deviation. P value by two-sample T-test for independent samples

Analysis of the physical and mental health domains of the PROMIS questionnaire by participants' residential district (Table 5) showed that mean perceived physical and mental health were statistically significantly higher in participants living in the central districts of Israel compared to those living in peripheral districts ($p < 0.022$ for both)

Table 5. Comparison of the perceived physical and mental health of the study participants by residential district

PROMIS domain	Central* N=49		Peripheral** N=42		t(89)	P value
	mean	(SD)	mean	(SD)		
Physical health	41.6	12.5	36.2	9.2	- 2.34 *	0.022
Mental health	48.0	13.3	41.9	11.1	-2.34 *	0.022

SD=standard deviation. P value by two-sample T-test for independent samples
*Jerusalem and Central districts; **Northern and Southern districts

Analysis of the physical and mental health domains of the PROMIS questionnaire by participants' hospitalization reason (Table 6) showed no difference in mean perceived physical health, but mean perceived mental health was statistically significantly higher in those hospitalized for infection compared to those hospitalized for other reasons ($p = 0.046$).

Table 6. Comparison of the perceived physical and mental health of the study participants by reason for CBHH

PROMIS domain	Infection N=66		Other reason N=25		t(89)	P value
	mean	(SD)	mean	(SD)		
Physical health	39.9	(11.6)	36.8	(10.6)	1.16	0.249
Mental health	46.8	(12.5)	40.9	(12.3)	2.02	0.046

SD=standard deviation. P value by two-sample T-test for independent samples

Multiple linear regression was utilized to examine the relative contribution of sex, age, marital status, residential district and hospitalization reason on physical health (Table 7). The explained variability was R²=19.2%, p=0.002, when age and marital status were found significant. Hence younger and married participants had better perceived physical health. The expected physical health perception of patients facing home hospitalization based on their demographic data, and the reason for hospitalization can be calculated by the following equation: 42.3 + (0.62 * Sex) – (0.2 * Age) – (2.54 * hospitalization reason (infection/other reason) + (6.22 * marital status (not married/married)) + (2.82 * residential district (not central/central).

Table 7. Multiple linear regression for physical well-being by sex, age, family status, living place and hospitalization reason

Physical health	B	SE B	Beta	P value
Sex	0.62	2.34	0.027	0.791
Age	-0.20	0.07	-0.293	0.004
Hospitalization reason	-2.54	2.59	-0.100	0.331
Marital status	6.22	2.75	0.232	0.026
Residence	2.82	2.37	0.124	0.237

Multiple linear regression was utilized to examine the relative contribution of sex, age, marital status, residential district and hospitalization reason on perceived mental health (Table 8). The explained variability was R²=28.5%, p<0.001, when age and hospitalization reason were found significant. Hence younger participants and those hospitalized due to infection had better perceived mental health. The expected mental health perception of patients facing home hospitalization based on their demographic data, and the reason for hospitalization can be calculated by the following equation: 58.3 - (1.18 * Sex) – (0.32 * Age) – (5.54 * hospitalization reason (infection/other reason) + (4.51 * marital status (not married/married)) + (2.2 * residential district (not central/central)

Table 8. Multiple linear regression for physical well-being by sex, age, family status, living place and hospitalization reason

Mental health	B	SE B	Beta	P value
Sex	-1.18	2.45	-0.047	0.630
Age	-0.32	0.07	-0.433	<0.001
Hospitalization reason	-5.54	2.72	-0.197	0.045
Marital status	4.51	2.89	0.151	0.122
Residence	2.20	2.48	0.089	0.377

Discussion

The findings indicate that there several factors contribute to the perceived general well-being of patients in CBHH in Israel. The first factor is patients' age. The study's finding showed that the perceived health and general well-being of patients in CBHH declines with increasing age. These findings are in line with the Israeli Central Bureau of Statistics' report, which showed that 95.3% of those aged 20-44 and 80.7% of those aged 45-65 report a very good or good state of health, whereas among those aged 65 and older, only 56.6% report a very good or good state of health (CBS, 2019). The proportion of people who assess their health condition as very good or good diminishes with age. Negative age-related attitudes have a strong influence on people in early old age, when they have yet to form a self-identity and a sense of belonging to an older age group. Therefore, addressing these age groups who are not yet defined as "elderly" but are no longer young is particularly significant, with the aim of promoting higher perceived personal well-being (Khalaila, 2013). The need to assess and promote perceived quality of life in older age is reinforced by repeated research findings that improving self-perceived health in older age might lead to improved quality of life and reduced morbidity and mortality (Cesari et al., 2008; Ford et al., 2008).

Our results also show that marital status affects patients' perception of general well-being in CBHH, with married participants reporting better perceived mental and physical health. This may be explained by the fact that people living alone must see to their own basic physical needs independently, and may find themselves lonelier and reliant on visits by friends and family, while married people have constant physical, social, and emotional support and thus experiences the crisis period of the hospitalization more positively. Studies on the association between marriage, spousal relations, and living with a spouse have showed that married people have higher subjective perceived personal well-being (Mikucka, 2016; Stutzer & Frey, 2006). Married people who share a long-term intimate relationship, friendship, and daily contact, tend to be happier than unmarried ones and feel that the relationship provides them with emotional and social support that helps them handle stressful and crisis events that might be a threat to their well-being (Nelson-Coffey, 2018). The negative health consequences of social isolation find powerful expression, especially among those most in need of support, such as older people or isolated groups on the margins of society (Cacioppo & Hawkley, 2003). Recognition of the health outcomes of loneliness is important in the management and development of tailored intervention programs for the prevention and reduction of negative outcomes of loneliness, such as low perception of general well-being among CBHH patients living alone.

Another major finding is the association between residential district and perception of general well-being in CBHH. An explanation for this finding can be found in the differences in the level of accessibility to services in general and medical services, in particular between the center of the country and the periphery, The literature supports this finding and relates to the topic of disparities and inequality in health services between groups within the same country. When examining inequality in health systems around the world, place of residence is an important field of influence. The World Health Organization has defined inequality in health as an international problem and conducts measurement, monitoring, and reflection in countries in order to form standards for reducing inequality between population groups (Hosseinpour et al., 2015). In Israel there is a national focus

on inequality in access to health services, with one of the main areas being the comparison between the state of health in peripheral areas and in the center of the country. It is evident that when comparing the periphery and the center regarding health issues such as life expectancy, infant mortality, and risk factors for chronic morbidity, there are differences between those living in the center and in the periphery, indicating a lower level of health in the periphery. Another important measure examined is self-evaluation of one's health. Current surveys found that the proportion of those reporting a good state of health is higher in towns located in central Israel than in peripheral areas (CBS, 2019). The Israeli government is producing positive incentives for community health services to reduce inequality in health and expects community-based health services to initiate programs to reduce gaps between groups, with an emphasis on programs to reduce health gaps in peripheral societies. Reducing inequality in public policy is a social goal in itself and is especially important in cases where the system can reduce differences between different groups, which are perceived as unfair, through tailored management. Actions aimed at reducing and preventing inequality should be a key component of public health policy. Low perceptions of general well-being can adversely affect treatment outcomes and cause a bias in CBHH outcomes among patients living in different areas. Hence, it can be estimated that in the absence of adapted CBHH models for the periphery, the perception of well-being of CBHH patients living in the periphery will continue to be low and may adversely affect the health outcome of CBHH.

Additional finding addresses the association between the diagnosis of patients in CBHH and patients' perception of their health. The research results show that research participants treated in CBHH due to the diagnosis of an infectious disease perceived their mental well-being as better than did patients who received the service due to other diagnoses. No conspicuous differences were found in the perception of one's physical well-being between the group treated in CBHH due to diagnosis of an infectious disease and the group treated in CBHH due to other diagnoses. The range of diagnoses suitable for acute home hospitalisation is very wide. Target diagnoses include, among others, urinary tract infections as well as infectious diseases that require lengthy care, such as pneumonia, osteomyelitis, endocarditis, complicated diverticulitis, and cellulitis (Casteli et al., 2020; Cotton et al., 2000; Donald et al., 2005; McCarthy et al., 2015; Mendoza et al., 2009; Otero et al., 2010; Patel et al., 2008; Simpson et al., 2019). Other medical conditions suitable for home care include patients with deterioration of chronic illnesses such as heart failure, stroke, pulmonary embolism, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD), psychiatric disease (Barker et al., 2021; Caplan et al., 2012; Casteli et al., 2020; Corral Gudino et al., 2017; Corwin et al., 2005; Davies et al., 2000; Dowell et al., 2018; Echevarria et al., 2016; Goncalves-Bradley et al., 2017; Huntley et al., 2017; Jeppesen et al., 2012; Otero et al., 2010; Qaddoura et al., 2015; Ram et al., 2004; Richards et al., 2005; Shepperd et al., 2009; Shepperd et al., 2008; Shepperd & Iliffe, 1998; Shepperd et al., 2016; Wolter et al., 2004), . Cancer, including children with cancer and patients undergoing therapeutic treatment (Cool et al., 2018; Hansson et al., 2011; Hansson et al., 2013; Massano et al., 2020), and end-of-life patients (Shepperd et al., 2021).

Despite the extensive literature on medical conditions suitable for CBHH, there is a lack of research literature on aspects relating to the type of diagnoses in CBHH and patients' health perception, and the effects these have on managing CBHH. Therefore, this finding is presented as an innovation of the current study. This finding can be explained

because patients with a diagnosis of infectious disease are most often healthy people who are on CBHH due to the current acute illness that requires treatment but has no long-term consequences for their health and is not accompanied in the long term. In contrast, patients suffering from a chronic disease, such as heart disease or chronic lung disease, suffer from symptoms of the chronic disease on a permanent basis, so it is not surprising that even when treating an acute problem, their perceived mental well-being is lower. As for the perception of physical well-being, the study included people who were ill with an acute illness at the time, when even healthy people generally felt worse.

The linear regression conducted supports the hypotheses that married and younger patients enjoy better perceived physical well-being. At the same time, younger patients and those hospitalized with infectious diseases also perceive their mental well-being as good compared to older patients and those hospitalized in CBHH for other reasons. Since the explained variance in the regression equations were relatively low (19% and 28% for physical and mental health perception, respectively), there may be other significant variables that affect the sense of general well-being that were not included in this study. Other limitations of the study include its relatively small sample size, its cross-sectional design, which only allows to view the results in a specific point in time, its sampling method and self-report nature. The reason for choosing a convenience sample as an appropriate method for this study is the planned duration of the study. Nevertheless, this did not come at the expense of a representative sample in terms of the residential districts of the study participants, their age and gender. The advantages of the method are the simplicity of sampling and programming for data collection in a short time (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Saunders et al., 2012). The possibility exists that in cases in which care givers completed the questionnaires, they may have affected the patient's responses.

Conclusions

The findings offer useful insights for the planning and delivery of appropriate CBHH services. Particular attention should be paid to older patients, living on their own in peripheral areas of the country. The limitations of the study relate to the examination of additional variables that may affect the well-being of patients in CBHH. Since in this study the variance explained in the regression equations was relatively low (19% and 28% for perceived physical and mental health, respectively), other significant variables that were not tested in this study may affect the overall sense of well-being.

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LOCAL GOVERNMENT AND SUSTAINABLE URBANISATION IN NIGERIA

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Abstract: *The ever-rising increase in growth and complexities of human settlement, particularly the rate of urbanization have created new challenges in the 21 century as several national governments continue to strive to attain sustainable development and effective urban governance. The objective of this study is to access the role of the local government in engendering sustainable urban governance in Nigeria. The study adopted an exploratory research design with the use of secondary data from 2010 to 2018 and the projection of rural urban growth by 2025. Content analysis was employed as data analysis method. Using the modernization theory, the study discovered that the problem of urbanization is global but in Nigeria its administration is uncoordinated and fragmented with inadequate urban administrative tools. It discovered that the local government in Nigeria are given little or no technical or financial capacity to govern urban areas. It recommends a bottom -top approach in planning of urban administration that is inclusive of the local government. Also, it suggests that the policies formulated and implemented should be tailored towards addressing the problems of urban growth. The study concluded that a participatory, multi stakeholders, collaborative approach to policy making and implementation in urban administration is the key to achieving an ideal sustainability of urban centres in Nigeria.*

Keyword: *Local Government, Sustainable Development, Urbanization, Population Growth And Administration.*

Introduction

One of the critical issues of concern to most national governments world over is the need to stem the rate of urbanization induced by the incidence of globalization, industrialization and an unprecedented population growth rate in the cities (Osasona et al., 2017). This concern has led to several global Summits organized at various level of government, international Agencies including the United Nations. Specifically among such are, the Millennium Development Goals Summits, the 2002 world summit in Johannesburg and the 2005 La-Havana UN sustainable cities documentation of experience programme among several others. In each of these summits, member nations reiterate the need for good

and effective governance as a means of achieving sustainable development in the cities. (Oladunjoye, 2005). The pervasiveness and spontaneity of the global Urbanization process has been an issue of concern in recent time; as this essentially constitutes serious challenge to the attainment of sustainable development and effective urban governance. Since the early 1950s rapid urbanization has been a characteristic feature of Nigeria. Recent demographic studies show that urban areas constitute about half of the national population (Oyesiku et al, 2018). The inclusion of the urbanization factor in determining the post-2015 global development agenda is therefore fundamental if evolving positive processes, salient contextual factors, and the powerful momentum prevailing at this advent of the new millennium are to be harnessed. In addressing the urbanization phenomenon, a post-2015 UN development agenda should go beyond the demographic dimension and should address the main challenges and opportunities that are shaping twenty-first century cities and towns, including how this affect and contribute to sustainable development.

In Nigeria, the urbanization process is similar to what obtains in several other developing countries; as the growth and complexity of human settlements and in particular the rate of urbanization has been phenomenal (Ujoh et al., 2018). Considering its 2016 population figure of over 140 million people – the highest in Sub-Saharan Africa (Ajanlekoko,2001) in Akinwotu (2017); available data however shows that the country has been growing at the rate of 5.5 percent annually from 1980 to 1993, and recently, its growth has increased to the rate of 5.8 percent, which has resulted in a total urban population of 62.66 million people (or, 43 percent of the national population). By projection, this proportion is expected to increase to more than 60 percent by 2025 (UN, 2017).

Statement of the problem

The world is in the midst of an unprecedented expansion of human numbers. In the 21st century, urbanization has “created new challenges, such as climate change, depletion in resources, food insecurity, social and spatial inequalities, economic instability, urban sprawl, and unplanned urbanization” (FGN, 2018). Hence, Akinwotu (2017) posits that the urban–poor and urban–rich development dichotomy has continued to constitute a serious humanitarian crisis to Nigeria and by extension, the entire global developmental discourse. As Prahalad and Hammond (2002) and Cohen (2016) in Adegun (2019) contends, urban areas have presently accommodated more than half of the global population and over the next 30 years, it is projected to grow to over two billion populations majorly in the developing countries. Nigeria, like other developing countries, is faced with increased rate of urbanization, with different urban centres emerging as a result. Egboje (2018) observes that this overcrowding situation has created increased pressure on few available critical socio-economic infrastructures, and systems. In addition, Nigeria, as World Bank writes in 2017, the population of the lives in low-cost settings and slums of urban centres, is about 85%. Comprehensibly, the description of urban-slums does not easily appear in the analysis of public programmes, policies and projects distributions which are overwhelmingly metropolitan. Ofuebe (1992) therefore situates Nigerian governments to have always been involved erroneously in an insistence on the inevitability of the provision of amenities for the poor as a counterpoise to the amelioration of her underdevelopment. The design and implementation of the National Urban Development Policy in Nigeria were the prerogative of elite groups who resides in the developed part of the urban core. Consequently, “the

failure to effectively implement the 1992 National Urban Policy and consequently, the National urban development policy of 2012 had to do with the fact that majority of the actors responsible for the implementation were found to either not to be fully aware of their roles and responsibilities; or did not have the requisite knowledge and capacity; or were simply not left out of the implementation process.

In Nigeria, there appear to be a disconnect between natural population growth rate and urban growth rate of over 5% (Azu 2018). Nigerian cities lack official recognition by the government, and no city in Nigeria is incorporated as many of them are merged with rural areas in the same undifferentiated system of 774 local governments (Adegun 2019). Yet, despite clear physical evidence of urbanization, it must be noted there are large uncertainties in Nigeria's population projections and the implication on local government administration. From the review of the literature, it is clear that most of the urbanization studies done in Nigeria virtually excluded the role of local government in addressing the challenges of urbanization. This is the gap this study seeks to fill.

Objective of the study

The study seeks to access the role of local government in urban governance. Specifically, this study seeks to investigate the reason for the neglect of local government in urban planning policies, implementation in Nigeria and how it can help to engender sustainable urbanization.

CONCEPTUAL REVIEW

Local government

The term "Local Government" literally means management of the local affairs by the people of the locality. It is based on the principle that the local problems and needs can be looked by the people of the locality better than by central or state governments. Appadorai (1975) see "Local Government is a government by popularly elected bodies charged with administration and executive duties in matters concerning the inhabitants of a particular district or place." Ajayi (2000) defines local government as "a territorial non sovereign community possessing the legal right and the necessary organ to regulates its own affairs, which presupposes the existence of a local authority with the power to act independently both external control as well as the participation of the local community in the administration of its own affairs through representation". According to Aijaz (2017) in Daramola & Ibem (2018) local government is part of the government of a country which deals mainly with problems or issues related to a given population within a given territory. This is done basically on the responsibilities of a country that parliament decides to delegate by the laws to local governance. In this definition we find two important elements of local government, that of the existence of directly elected local bodies and local finances, which constitute common denominators of each local government. While Lockard (Lockard,1963) in Adesina (2003) thinks that the local government can be defined as a public organization, authorized to establish and administer public policies within a given territory, the latter is a subdivision of the central government. In fact the organization of local government is public organization, changing from private organizations, they are aimed at the general interest of citizens. Enemu (2008) conceive local government thus:

... the lower level of government in a modern state, that is legally distinct, and has powers to raise revenue and undertake assigned responsibilities under a leadership that is elected and answerable to the local population . The various definitions above are quite revealing and far-reaching as they shed much light on the meaning, significance, and jurisdiction of local government administration.

Sustainable Urbanization

Urbanization as used in this paper to describes the process by which cities grow or by which societies become more urban. It also means the process by which more and more people leave the countryside to live in cities (Azu, 2018). Ayoade (2016) noted that urbanization undoubtedly represents human's greatest impact on natural environment. Fields, farms and forest are replaced by stones, bricks concrete and asphalt. Cities are characterized by large concentration of people, vehicles, buildings and other forms of modern artefacts. In the same sense, the United Nations Secretariat (1970) noted that urbanization is perhaps, the best symbol of the radical, physical, economic and social transformation that mankind is passing through as a consequence of development (Duru & Ogbonnaya; 2012). Urbanization is driven by the concentration of investment and employment opportunities in urban areas. In these areas, secure tenure is a necessary condition to improve access to economic opportunity, including livelihoods, credit markets, public and municipal services. When tenure rights are insecure people have reduced incentives to invest in and upgrade land and housing; they may be forced to leave a family member home to guard property rather than work or go to school; and, they may often lack access to services to devote significant portions of their time and income to acquire these.

Sustainable Urbanization Strategy outlines how UNDP is responding to rapid urbanization in developing countries and its consequences for sustainable development. It outlines how UNDP will support countries and cities, building upon its past and current work on urbanization. The strategy presents the complex and evolving urban challenges and the interrelated development choices which cities face as they strive to achieve the SDGs and implement the New Urban Agenda. It also sets out UNDP's comparative advantage and experience in core thematic areas which are relevant to achieving the SDGs in cities and urban areas. Put more succinctly, goal 11 in SDGs 2015 captures the essence of sustainable urbanization " To make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable" It also states that by 2020,there will be substantial increase in the number of cities and human settlements adopting and implementing integrated policies and plans towards inclusion, resource efficiency, mitigation and adaptation to climate change and resilience to disasters. (UNDESA 2018)

THEORETICAL REVIEW

Modernization Theory

This theory was prevalent and influential from the 1950s the 1970s. The theory asserts that urbanization results from the introduction of new things and innovations within the society through industrialization, technological application, information penetration and cultural diffusion (Smith, 1996). Considering urbanization through the lens of modernization, first, it is common to see elements of modernization (new things) in every

society that has moved from the primitive era (Stone Age) to a new or modern pattern of doing things. Secondly, the importance of technology in social organization and shaping of the society is very obvious; as urbanization usually results afterwards. The present state of urbanization and development in the world today cannot be separated from its initial state at the onset of modernization (Kasarda&Crenshaw, 1991). Most developments are products of technologically driven societies, which could boost or increase economic capabilities, provide surplus food through improve agricultural system and the use of mechanical and electronic tools or machines to reduce workload on citizen; yet increasing speed and efficiency of work done (Lenski & Nolan, 1984; Nolan & Lenski, 1985). It is assumed in this context that technology is more important than social organization of the society. Thus, the application of technology is seen as the main driving force of urbanization in the society. According to Kasarda & Crenshaw (1991); industrialization rather than capitalization is often seen by scholars in this tradition as having major impact in the transformation of the third world societies. Previous scholars have asserted that the modernization approach encourages cultural diffusion and breeds uneven development especially in the third world countries (Hawley, 1981; Kasarda & Crenshaw, 1991). It is believed that this kind of urbanisation may have been triggered by the concentration of social amenities and developmental projects in certain parts of the society, due to ethnic, racial or religious divisions and corrupt politics, that has created economic dichotomy and uneven developments in the world today (Alonso, 1980). With investments and opportunities concentrated in few places (most likely cities); massive rural-to urban migration is necessitated stemming from rural-push and urban-pull factors (Berliner, 1977; Kasarda & Crenshaw, 1991).

Urban and rural areas: a distinction

Human settlements are classified as rural or urban depending on the density of human-created structures and resident people in a particular area. Urban areas can include town and cities while rural areas include villages and hamlets. While rural areas may develop randomly on the basis of natural vegetation and fauna available in a region, urban settlements are proper, planned settlements built up according to a process called urbanization. Many times, rural areas are focused upon by governments and development agencies and turned into urban areas (Conroy,2017) in Egboje (2018). Urban settlements are defined by their advanced civic amenities, opportunities for education, facilities for transport, business and social interaction and overall better standard of living. Socio-cultural statistics are usually based on an urban population. While rural settlements are based more on natural resources and events, the urban population receives the benefits of man's advancements in the areas of science and technology and is not nature-dependent for its day to day functions (McCann, 2017) in Egboje (2018).

In terms of level of economic development, quality of life, access to opportunities, facilities and amenities, standard of living and general viability, the gap between the urban and rural areas in Nigeria is very wide. The rural areas are grossly neglected as far as development projects and infrastructure are concerned. The consumption oriented urban economy is flooded with people many of who are either unemployed or unemployable, or marginally employed or underemployed in the urban centres where they choose to live. As a result of this mass exodus, the rural areas have become qualitatively depopulated and are

progressively less attractive for social and economic investments while the urban areas are becoming physically congested, socially unhealthy and generally uneconomic to maintain (Adedire, 2014).

Major differences between rural and urban societies

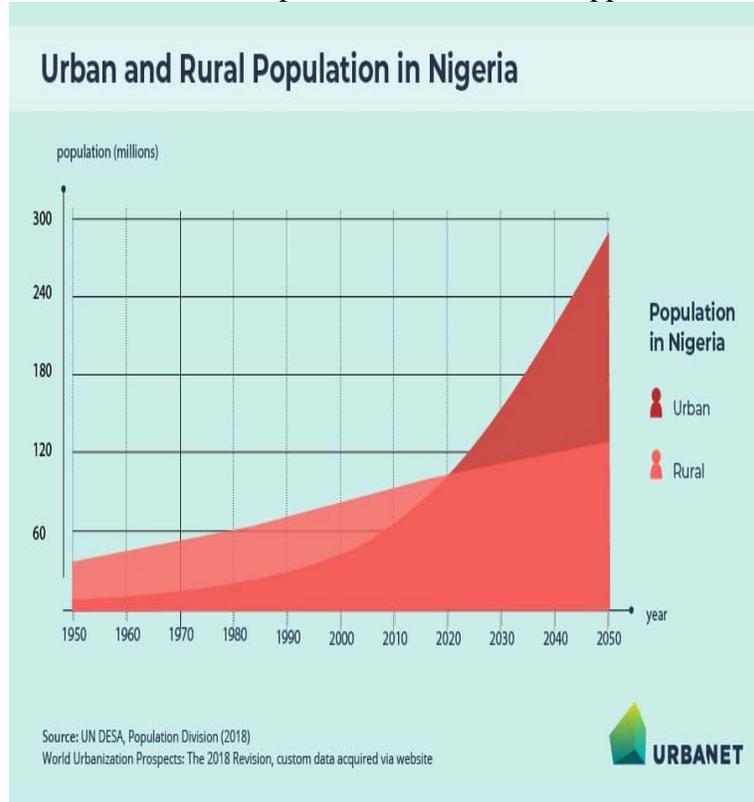
S/N	Rural Areas	Urban Areas
1	Life in the society was very simple and reflected in the way of living, dressing, food habits, shelter and manners etc.	Life in the city is not simple but very complex and complicated.
2	The people in the society had homogeneity and thus enjoyed more or less the same social status.	The people in the city belong to different castes, creeds, religions and cultures, thus do not enjoy the same social status.
3	In the rural society there was very little scope for occupational mobility.	In cities there are many occupations, so occupational mobility is as well as frequent.
4	Here the family played a very significant and predominant role. Its hold was very strong.	In the cities hold of families is not strong, and many functions which the families used to perform have been taken away by other institutions and associations.
5	In villages there is no fast change and as such no necessity for social adaptability.	In the cities there must be fast mobility and adaptability to suit ever changing fast life.
6	In the rural society culture was very deep-rooted. Everyone loved culture and cultural heritage above everything else.	In the cities it is difficult to find pure culture.
7	In a rural society there is no division of labour.	In an urban community there is always division of labour and specialisation in job allotment.
8	Rural society did not give due and proper respect to the womenfolk.	In urban communities women enjoys comparatively high social status.
9	In this society people loved nature and natural bounties. They were religious minded and afraid of gods and goddesses.	In cities, people have no time to stand and gaze at the nature. They are not religious minded but more materialistic.
10	There were very few chances of providing employment and incentives to the unemployed by the society.	The cities provide both incentive and employment to the people and thus frustrated villages find solace in the cities which respects ability and judges their worth.

Source: adapted from <https://www.yourarticlelibrary.com/society/10-major-differences-between-rural-and-urban-societies/23390>

The challenges of urbanization in Nigeria

Urbanization is a “process of human agglomeration in multi-functional settlement of relatively substantial size” (Mabogunje, 1985). According to Ujoh et al., (2018), it is the process that refers to the growth both in size and numbers of urban centre. This process, as explained by Adesina (2003), has been responsible for transforming towns, cities and metropolitan areas, while at the same time depopulating the rural setting through a process of direct rural-urban migration. Adegun (2019) describes the level of urbanization as the share of a country's total population that lives in urban areas. Thus, the extension of the urban environment in terms of territorial coverage and population has remained a common experience all over the world; while the proliferation of urban centre has been phenomenal from the turn of the 20th century (European Environment Agency, 2016). However, urban extension did not take place in the third world cities until after the Second World War when

such became European Colonial Settlements. In most part of Africa, even Asia and Latin America, strategic cities along the coast, for many decades represented trade point and gateways for export and import. These cities continuously improved in economic activities through time, and subsequently transformed to industrial cities. Today, urban centre dominates African countries landscape with their attendant opportunities.



The graphic displays the expected linear growth of Nigeria's rural population since 1950 until 2050. The urban population has been experiencing a rapid rise since 2018 and is expected to grow from 60 million to almost 300 million inhabitants in Nigerian cities. The United Nations Fund for Population Activities (UNFPA) during the 1999 World Habitat day confirmed that urban revolution has begun of which Africa and other developing countries would have to face great challenges. The fastest population growth would take place in Africa, and this has continued to grow over the years, from 133million in 1900 to 225million in 1950; while there were about 674million people in 2000. The population is expected to continue to increase to 1.5 billion in 2030, with the annual growth rate of about 2.1 percent (Adegun, 2019). This population rise would take place mostly in the cities. However, the United Nations demographic experts have estimated Africa's annual urban growth rate at about 5.3% in 1980 and 3.4% in 2000. The region's urban population grew from 32 million in 1950 (15 percent of the region's entire population) to 102 million in 1975 and 220 million in 2000 (33 percent of the region's entire population). Current figure as at 2018 indicates that the number of city dwellers on the continent now stands at 321 million (about 40 percent of the region's entire population). This is projected to reach 787 million by 2030; - thereby crossing the 50 percent urban threshold sometime before 2025 and reaching 53 percent by 2030, (United Nations, 2002; Adegun, 2019).

In the post independence era, starting from 1960, people in Nigeria kept migrating at an increasing rate from the rural areas to the urban centres in pursuit of better living conditions. Like every other nation of the world, the migration has been causing rapid and extensive growth in the urban centres creating many problems of urbanization presented in pictures below. The urban population in Nigeria has grown from 6.9 million, 15.4% of the total population of 45 million in 1960 to 99.9 million, which is 48.9% of the total population of 195.8 million today. The figure below shows the population growth in Nigeria between 1960 to 2018

Nigeria's Rural and Urban Population, 1950-2025

Year	Rural Population	Urban Population	Urban Population as % of Total
1950	29,595,000	3,340,000	10.1
1955	32,605,000	4,489,000	12.1
1960	36,220,000	6,058,000	14.3
1965	40,396,000	8,280,000	17.0
1970	45,252,000	11,319,000	20.0
1975	50,835,000	15,511,000	23.4
1980	57,188,000	21,242,000	27.1
1985	63,448,000	28,568,000	30.9
1990	70,383,000	38,159,000	35.2
1995	77,533,000	50,162,000	39.3
2000	84,853,000	64,768,000	43.3
2005	91,960,000	82,347,000	47.2
2010	98,435,000	102,831,000	51.1
2015	103,411,000	125,343,000	54.8
2020	106,458,000	148,935,000	58.3
2025	107,758,000	173,135,000	61.6

Source; UNDESA Population Division 2018

Urbanization is not a new phenomenon in Africa, as cities such as Lagos, Kano, Ibadan, Cairo, Johannesburg, Kinshasha and Addis Ababa, have grown to become large metropolitan urban areas. The city of Lagos for instance, has continued to grow in size since the 1960s; its annual growth rate was close to 14 percent during the 1970s, when the massive extent of new construction was exceeded by the influx of migrants attracted by the oil boom. Acknowledged to be the largest city in sub-Saharan Africa, Lagos has become legendary for its congestion and other associated urban problems. Essentially built on poorly drained marshlands, the city commonly has flooding during the rainy season, and there is frequent sewage back-up, especially in the poorer lowland sections. As in other Nigerian cities, there is a constant problem of garbage and waste disposal. Housing construction has boomed but rarely seemed to keep pace with demand. The city's main fame, however, comes from the scale of its traffic jams; spanning several islands as well as a large and expanding mainland area, the city never seemed to have enough bridges or arteries. The profusion of vehicles that came with the prosperity of the 1970s seemed often to be arranged in a massive standstill, which has become the site for urban peddling of an amazing variety of goods, as well as for entertainment, exasperation, innovation, and occasionally crime (Abiodun, 1997). By 1990, Lagos had made some progress in managing

its traffic problems both through road and bridge construction and traffic control regulations. This progress was aided by the economic downturn of the late 1980s, which ironically, facilitated urban – rural migration (Metz, 1991) in Abiodun(1997). However, it has been projected that by 2015, the population of Lagos in Nigeria will be around 24.3 million; thereby ranking it as the third largest city in the world. This trend of growth puts strain on the city where most resources will be consumed and this process thus constitutes a critical challenge to sustainability in Nigeria (Adesina, 2003; Adegun, 2019).

The aforementioned urbanization problems birthed the revised National urban development policy of 2012, its major aim: 'to promote a dynamic system of clearly defined urban settlements, which fosters sustainable economic growth, promotes efficient urban and regional planning and development ,as well as ensures improved standard of healthy living and the well-being of all Nigerians'(UNDAP 2015). This aims were based on the following strategic goals:

- (1) Facilitate private sector led delivery of 800,000 homes per annum over the next 10 years
- (2) Facilitate the implementation of special housing programs to promote the delivery of 200,000 units per annum for the next 10 years
- (3) Establish an information management system for planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of programs and projects
- (4) Establish and enforce use of building standards in line with the national building code to ensure quality, functionality, aesthetics and safety
- (5) Make serviced land with secure tenure easily available, accessible, transferable and at affordable price for housing development
- (6) Build adequate capacity of professionals and artisans in the built environment sector
- (7) Make cities and human settlement inclusive, productive, safe, livable, resilient and sustainable
- (8) Transform the way the Federal ministry of lands, housing and urban development is structured and operates as the industry regulator and facilitator
- (9) Promote research and development. (UNDAP 2015)

There is no doubt that Nigeria as a nation is experiencing rapid urbanization which has brought about various socio - economic, cultural and environmental problems, particularly, degradation of the physical urban environment which exists in the nature of loss of biodiversity and green-house warming, desertification, degradation of agricultural land, air and water pollution, environmental decay, slums, insanitation, overcrowding, housing congestion, crime and violence, and several other demeaning situations (Jiboye & Omoniyi, 2018; Daramola & Ibem, 2018). Considering the challenges posed by the diverse problems associated with urbanization and the need for sustainable development in Nigeria, urgent step is required on the part of government in particular and other stakeholders responsible for urban development, through effective governance to control the rate at which urban population and the spread of cities increases. Also, effort is required to control the decline in the quality of urban infrastructure as well as improve the overall standard of living of the people in Nigeria.

Local government and urban administration in Nigeria

In the contemporary world today, the need to decentralize administration to facilitate efficiency, effectiveness and good governance has become the rule rather than the

exception. Both developed and developing countries ensure that services are delivered to the people. It is no doubt that these services are delivered via a structure put in place by these countries, which are given different names. In Nigeria, it is called local government. Local government administration is said to be the third tier of government that is closer to the people in any country amongst the three tiers of government. The rapid urbanization in developing countries particularly in sub Saharan African societies like Nigeria requires more proactive and efficient actions to ensure its sustainability. Therefore, effective local government administration has been identified as a sine qua non to achieving sustainable development through the creation of enabling environment in which every member of the society can enjoy good health and creative lives. The management of towns and cities in Africa is part and parcel of the public sector management system of government inherited from the colonial era. Towns and cities operate through elected and appointed local government representatives, who have the political and administrative mandates to provide and manage social and physical infrastructure services. The powers of local governments are provided by central government (state/federal governments) and within the model there are variations in terms of the nature of local government structures and centre-local relationships. The role of local government is often further complicated by the key position it plays in the patronage system of political parties and by the widespread phenomenon of African cities often being the bases of political parties in opposition to national governments led by parties with a largely rural support base (Obeng-Odoom, 2017).

In most countries, urban areas are the engines of economic growth and provide spaces for social transformation and political inclusion. This is the case because dynamic and prosperous cities are able to attract and retain both the talent and the capital investments necessary to attract businesses and sustain high productivity levels by offering high quality urban services and infrastructure. The delivery of widely accessible and efficiently functioning basic services is thus essential for urban areas to realize their full economic growth potential. As a result, the degree of success with which a country harnesses the power of urbanization serves as an important bellwether for inclusive and sustainable development. The urban administration in Nigeria is characterized by a fragmentation and sometimes duplication of functions. Local governments are left with little technical and financial capacity to govern urban spaces in an integrated way. Being the third tier of government, the funds allocated to them are often “hijacked by the state government”. State governors generally play the role of urban administrators but concentrate their efforts on large cities.

In many countries of the world, the role of different levels of government in providing infrastructure has been the subject of detailed debate. For instance, Obot & Umoh (2017) argued that the planning, development and maintenance of public infrastructure are the primary responsibility of the three tiers of government, with the federal government having the greatest share of the responsibility, while Yamihinmi (2016) & Adele (2003) in Adegun (2019) posited that the local governments are least able to respond to these functions because they are grossly underfunded, lack fund generating drive, technical expertise and other resources to provide for. Urban administration in Nigeria is largely uncoordinated, fragmented and lacked focus mostly due to inadequate urban administration tools such as spatial data and map products and poor legal framework (Fabiya, 2014). Urban administration in Nigeria has been disjointed and uncoordinated. The United Nations Human Settlements Programme reports (UNHABITAT) indicated that

virtually all the cities in Nigeria fell below average in good urban governance index (GUGI). Bamidele (2008) identified the inefficiency of the state government to properly manage urban settlements and called for federal government presence in the cities in terms of infrastructural developments. Most local government areas have no financial capacities to manage urban settlements. Though the local government area is the third tier of governance in Nigeria, the funds allocated are often hijacked by the state government and local government area administrations are left with paltry funds only for the payment of civil servants' salaries and emoluments. The state governors often assume the roles of urban administrators, but most of the time efforts are concentrated on the state capital city which further fuelled emigration from the other settlements to the capital city (Adeyinka et al. 2016, Oyesiku 1999). Today, there is a general drive by state governments to improve urban administrations in the capital cities through installations of modern procedures and computerised systems to assist in urban land allocation, infrastructural facility management, traffic control and administration, urban security and administrations but holistic urban administration is alien to Nigeria (Fabiya, 2017).

The nature of local government after Independence increased the subordination to central government established in the colonial period, with an even weaker fiscal base yet with considerably expanded areas of administration and burgeoning urban populations (Jenkins, 2000). There is no doubt that the 1999 constitution of Nigeria and local government statutes usually stipulate what local governments should do, but in practice they fail to articulate the roles of the different actors in urban administration.

Towards Sustainable Urbanization in Nigeria

It has been argued that commitment to sustainable development both for the present and future generations will be meaningless if collaborative approach is not employed (Oyeshola et al., 2009). Thus, it would be beneficial to assert that the solution to the lingering urban problems in Nigeria does not reside in proffering new policies per-se, but in the determination of all those involved in formulating and implementing urban policies to address the problems of growth in cities. However, one of the major threats to sustainable urban growth in Nigeria is poverty. In Nigeria, poverty is defined as a state of long-term deprivation of well-being, a situation considered inadequate for a decent life. It is synonymous with lack and is also a long-term phenomenon (Fourchard, 2003). A World Bank data has revealed that 60 percent of Nigerians live below the poverty line, only 50 per cent of the population has access to safe water, and about 38 per cent do not have access to primary health care (World Bank, 1996). Thus, poverty jeopardizes the political stability, social cohesion and environmental balance of our cities, and until it is tackled decisively, sustainable development will remain a mirage (Olanrewaju, 2003).

The explosive rates of growth have not only progressively complicated and exacerbated inter-related problems of human settlements and environment, but have also greatly accelerated poverty (Oladunjoye, 2005). The issue of poverty needs to be radically examined and accorded all the attention it deserves if achieving sustainability is anything to go by. The need to ensure sustainability in our cities is imperative and this depends largely on the application of the principle of sustainable development advocated by the Commission on Environment and Development – whereby, developmental efforts should not only concentrate on solving present problems but also consider future challenges and

needs. Central to the issue of achieving sustainable urban growth is the need for good governance. This should be in accordance with the principles entrenched in the United Nations global Agenda 21; which seek to employ sustainable development strategies to integrate all aspects of development socially, economically, culturally and environmentally in achieving distributional equity and providing adequate social services including health, education, housing as well as functional and livable environment among many others. However, one peculiar feature of governance in Nigeria is the use of Top-down approach to policy formulation and implementation.

Consequently, policies and programmes emanating from such approach have continually rubbed the urban poor of their dignity (Onakuse & Lenihan, 2017). Therefore, any worthwhile institutional approach in governance must consider among others: greater involvement of NGOs and community groups in local governance, greater transparency and accountability in both planning and implementation of local policy and the devolution of responsibility for urban affairs from state or national level to the local level. These are inevitable as the problems of urbanization can only be dealt with in an atmosphere of peace, better leadership (devoid of corruption) and freedom, especially in a politically frayed and frazzled continent as Africa. And as a major characteristic of good urban governance; decentralization of power, authority and responsibilities aids effectiveness as well as reaching out to the grassroots (Adegun, 2019).

Concluding Remarks

There is no doubt that the world has increasingly become urban and the 21st century witnessed rapid and unprecedented urbanization of the world's population. The pattern, trend, and characteristics of urbanization in Nigeria have been alarming. The towns and cities have grown phenomenally. Consequently, there has been rapid expansion of Nigerian cities' area up to 10-fold their initial point of growth and the fact that the growth has been largely unplanned and uncontrolled. This has shown that managing urban growth and urbanization in Nigeria have become one of the most important challenges of the 21st century. Local governments in many developing countries like Nigeria rarely have the mandate and/or capacity required to undertake planning let alone planning for sustainable development. Nor do they often have a mandate to plan or implement major items of strategic infrastructure needed to achieve such growth. While decentralization has provided opportunities for local government to take greater responsibility for the delivery of services, efficacy is often dependent upon the national and state governments providing appropriate enabling environments and supportive relationships to ensure they can operate efficiently.

This paper has examined the need for effective governance in the realization of sustainable urbanization in Nigeria. The paper notes that Urbanization is a global issue and an inevitable phenomenon in Nigeria. It observes that the pervasiveness and spontaneity associated with the urban growth process in Nigeria has been an issue of concern; as it essentially constitutes serious socio-economic, cultural and environmental challenges to the attainment of sustainable development and effective urban governance. This problem of spontaneous urban growth has been necessitated by the features of globalization, industrialization and population explosion, with its attendant challenges of uncontrolled growth of cities, which has led to a degraded environment and poor living standard of the

people. Considering that growth within the context of urbanization should be guided towards improving the environment rather than harming it (Newman, 2002); this growth according to the concept of “sustainable development” must be sustainable in order to take care of the present needs without compromising the ability of future generation to meet its own needs.

Nevertheless, in line with the objective of this paper, it recommends the following:

- One major challenge of local government is the lack of financial autonomy to implement programmes at the grassroot level, therefore to engender sustainable urbanization, there is need for local government to have strong economic base, this is achievable through the upward review of the revenue sharing formulae among level of governments in Nigeria and strict adherence to NFIU guidelines by Nigerian governors. (Adedire 2014, Onyedika 2020)
- A participatory, multi-stakeholders ‘and collaborative approach to policy making and implementation in reference to urbanization should be put in place as its an ideal requirement to achieving an ideal sustainability. (William et.al 2002, Mabogunje & Robert, 2004; Gille 2019)
- Sustainable development according to Odigbo & Adeniran (2004) in Adedire (2014) is human focused, long term, enduring and not a quick fix. Local government can serve this role in relation to urbanization by consciously building a structural foundation on which urbanization can thrive, such foundation will re-orientate our value system as well as encourage private initiatives and propagate cooperative philosophy.

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POLITICAL CORRUPTION AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA

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Abstract: *Scholars in the humanities and social sciences have observed that political corruption is a serious problem to the economic, social and political development of any nation. These problems or challenges have had negative effects on Nigeria economic development. Corruption, like cockroaches, has coexisted with human civilization for a long time and continues to be a concern in many developed and developing economies around the world, with disastrous results to economic development. Corruption as a phenomenon is a global issue of differing degrees and it's prevalent in various countries. This paper therefore, investigates the reasons, and impacts of corruption which are seen to be ingrained in socio-cultural traditions as well as the country's political and economic condition. The analysis also looked at the numerous government policies and programs use to combat corruption. The study collected its data primarily from academic journals, books, conference papers and internet sources. The study adopted the elite theory to explain corruption and its effects on economic development in Nigeria. The study found out that corruption results in the depletion of much needed revenue, discourages foreign investments and consequently slows economic development. It also reveals that corruption weakens domestic financial systems, tarnishes the country's reputation, lowers savings investment and lowers people's living standards. On this basis, the study proposes that the Nigerian government should address the root causes of corruption rather than the effects and this has to be through the effective implementation of legal mechanism.*

Keywords: *Corruption, Causes, Economic Growth, Economic Development, Nigeria.*

Introduction

Scholars in the humanities and social sciences have noticed how political corruption has become a serious problem to economic, social and political development of any nation. Corruption, like cockroaches, has coexisted with human civilization for a long time and continues to be a concern in many developed economies around the world, with disastrous results to economic development. Corruption as a phenomenon is a global issue of differing degrees and its prevalence in various countries (Alege, Adamu & Muhammad, 2014: 209). Corruption exists in both elected and dictatorial governments, as well as feudal, imperialist, and socialist economies. Corruption plagues Christian, Muslim, Hindu, and Buddhist communities in equal measures (Dike, 2005). Investigations into crude petroleum subsidy theft in Nigeria, illegal misappropriation of pension funds, and the recycling of items in the 2012 Budget, among other things, shows evidence of corrupt practices in the Nigerian political system (Rotimi, Obasaju, Lawal & Iseolonunkanmi, 2013). In highly corrupt countries, the vicious cycle of poverty continues: poor savings result in lower salaries and benefits, which results in lower consumption and growth. Corruption's harmful consequences continue to stifle economic development and growth, create insecurity for citizens' lives and property, as shown by numerous Boko Haram attacks heightened level

of unemployment and poverty. Dilapidation of infrastructure is a widespread occurrence, and it is primarily as a result of very-high prevalence of corruption which has exploded to unprecedented level (Rotimi, et al., 2013:2). It is one of the many unresolved issues in Nigeria, according to Madichie (2005:322) that has severely hampered and distorted growth. It will continue to be a big political and economic problem for Nigeria in the long run (Maduagwe, 1996). It's a canker worm that's eaten its way deep into the country's political system. Petty corruption, political/bureaucratic corruption, and systemic corruption are all examples of corruption. According to World Bank estimates, corruption costs over \$1 trillion annually, accounting for up to 12% of the GDP in countries like Nigeria, Kenya, and Venezuela (Alege, et al., 2014:209). It's on this note therefore, this study will fill a gap in literature to address the effects of corruption that takes place in the political system Vis-a-vis how it affects economic development in Nigeria's fourth republic.

Concept of Corruption

Corruption is widespread in Nigeria, and it is on the rise, despite many efforts by successive governments to address the issue. This has led to the issue of the concept been talked about by every Nigerian and seen as the major reason for the country's economic woes. Corruption has been the norm in Nigeria, affecting both the youthful and the aged, politicians and non-politicians, as well as military and non-military personnel (Igiebor, 2019:495). To various thinkers from various fields of thought, the unstoppable socio economic scourge has proposed various definitions. According to the International Monetary Fund (IMF) (2000) cited in Adetayo (2019: 23) described corruption as the "misuse of power or confidence for personal gain, and it is a not just governmental officials, but also people in positions of authority in private corporations or non-profit organizations." Corruption can take place in various ways such as 'kick back' a type of bribery in which someone engaged in the purchasing process receives a reward from the supplier for placing an order of goods or services; embezzlement: theft of resources for personal gain; evidence destruction; irregular destruction, removal, or abuse of records; extortion: the act of obtaining something by threat, force, or undue demands; favoritism: the unfair favoring of one person or group over another (Adetayo, 2019:23). These are among other ways corruption takes place in societies. Similarly, Ofoeze (2004:20) cited in Igiebor (2019: 495) Corruption is deliberate action or inaction by a person or group be it public or private to obtain benefits for oneself, a relation, associate, or group in a way that breaches established rules, ethics, and/or moral codes, leading in a perversion of justice and fairness.

It's worth noting that countries with abundant natural wealth seem to be the world's wellspring for corruption. Corruption is normally a stumbling block for certain nations. Corruption is morally, legally, and socially problematic. Duke & Agbaji (2017:3) viewed corruption from both the private and public domains, according to them corruption is "characterized as all kinds of deviant or immoral behavior, malfeasance, and other unlawful use of authority, ranging from the granting and accepting of financial benefits to the cover-up of assets and properties gained illegitimately." It also involves non-financial incentives for individuals, relations, party, or nationwide gains that change the culture that governs imposing roles, practices, and lawful sanctions structures (Duke & Agbaji, 2017).

In the same vein Balasa (1985: 28) sees Corruption as a “daunting impediment to long-term growth, a barrier to health care, schooling, and poverty reduction, and a threat to the environment.” By 2015, the Millennium Development Goal of reducing the amount of people below the poverty line will have been accomplished is being seriously hampered by corruption. Although the definition and forms of corruption are still debated in many ways, we agree some universal generalizations can be drawn from the preceding. Which are:

- Because of the variances in human behaviour at different periods and places, corruption has a variety of origins and forms;
- Corruption is an immoral act that goes against established trust and ethical standards;
- It is widespread, as it exists in both the formal and informal sectors;
- Its goal is personal or group advancement at the expense of society as a whole;
- Its advantages would not be restricted to monetary benefits;
- Under the current legal system, the act is deemed unlawful and punished; and
- Corruption is a hindrance to growth and development (Duke & Agbaji, 2017:3).

Political corruption occurs when decision makers, policymakers, and those who implement the laws participate in the types of unethical activities mentioned within the domain of leadership and the exercise of government power. When laws and regulations are made for the benefit of politicians and their self-interests, corruption exists. Policymaking, democratic institutions, governance, laws, regulations, and orderly processes are all affected and distorted by political corruption in practice (Amundsen, 1997). Similarly, Oghuvbu & Oghuvbu (2020: 90) see “corruption as the use of legislative powers by government officials for personal gains or unlawful personal gain.” It has tarnished the government's image, weakened its prestige, and lowered the effectiveness of policies and development programs, as well as weakening the economy. This concept of corruption according to Oghuvbu & Oghuvbu (2020:90) looked at corruption from the political point of view and how politicians use their positions to enrich themselves via unlawful means. Political corruption, according to the fundamental assumption, happens when public office is used to obtain personal gain and the citizenry are neglected (Garner, 2004; Neild, 2002). When a material or immaterial advantage is anticipated, such as money, social status, or political influence, corrupt practices occurs. When elected officers take decisions that benefit their families or ethnic group at the expense of other members of the public, they are engaging in corruption (Oghuvbu & Oghuvbu, 2020: 90). The focus of this article is on the public domain, especially the interface between the public and private sectors, as well as where political actors engage in corrupt behaviour.

Types and Causes of Corruption in Nigeria

For any significant change in an economy to be achieved in the fight against corruption, the government must be aggressive, which has been described as the primary cause of the current economic crisis in Nigeria’s fourth republic. Corruption, no matter what form it takes or what name it goes by, must be defined, known, and dealt with seriously. As a result, the economy is at risk of stagnation and regression. When it comes to comprehending corruption, ‘vertical corruption,’ which includes decision-makers and managers, is one example of corruption found by Konie (2003) cited in Rotimi et al.,

(2013:5). Horizontal corruption, which includes the whole official, laymen class, and educated in a country, is more prevalent in less developed countries (Rotimi, et al., 2013) like Nigeria. The reasons why corruption is prevalent in Nigeria have been attributed to a variety of factors, including political style, cultural structure, and a poor legal system. Due to a regulatory system that is both poor and corrupt. According to Ajie & Wokekoro (2012) cited in Adagbabiri & Okolie (2018 : 45) “the proliferation of soft state and unaccountable leadership, poor structures of government and informal structure, incursion of politics into the administration, and a fragmented legal system are all causes for corruption in the region, lack of national engagement and focus, lack of probity, transparency, and responsibility, breakdown of social and governmental enforcement systems, large disparities in wealth allocation, low incomes, and bad working conditions, With little benefits and rewards for successful performance, pervasive poverty and tradition, and a strange belief system.” Oghuvbu & Oghuvbu (2020: 91) argued that in “a nation with a weak economic situation, there is a risk for the country to have a high degree of corruption, which worsens growth rates. They also backed up their claim that a nation with strong macroeconomic output is more likely to have low corruption progress quickly.” This supports Benjamin's (2007) cited Rotimi (2013: 5) concluded that a barrier to economic success is a barrier to economic opportunity. This unethical activity is clearly seen on our high and express ways, where law enforcement unlawfully blocks the high ways, extorting money and other valuables from road users while sometimes triggering unintentional accidents that result in the deaths of innocent people.

Ngwube & Okoli (2013 :97-98) espoused that “in Nigeria, the causes for corruption range from non-conformity to religious values, ideals imparted to our culture, philosophies and theories unfamiliar to our society, race that promotes favouritism and nepotism, and a weak legal system that is honoured in breach rather than observance. Poverty, illiteracy, get-richmania, statism, and an erroneous mentality toward public land, as well as a lack of a social net to cushion the effects of jobs, retirement, big households, and the quest for double standards of authority and a poor degree of patriotism” are some of the other triggers of corruption in Nigeria’. It's relevant in itself; poverty seems to be the single most critical force encouraging the widespread distribution of the country's illegal financial inducements to give and take bribes. Okolie (2013:99) “Nigeria must be one of the few places in the world where a man's source of income has little bearing on his neighbour, the general population, or the government. Religious bodies, social clubs, communities and other private entities routinely reward rich individuals who are considered to be corrupt.

Despite the fact that traditional traditions of paying reverence to leaders are often misunderstood, this also contributes to polite corruption, as described by Browns Berger (1983), the degree of such dishonesty in Nigeria is comparatively insignificant. This ensures even those who profit from these dishonest people's greatness seldom doubt them. Another cause of corruption in Nigeria is bad compliance on the part of mechanisms for government regulation. According to Igiebor (2019:499), “Nigeria's transverse agencies and government anti-corruption initiatives have been unsuccessful, and the country remains highly corrupt according to the global corruption index, ranking 144th out of 180 countries in the Transparency International (TI) index in 2018.” The 'Electoral Act' (2010) in Nigeria, according to Krishnan (2020:98), sets a limit on expenditures for specific elective positions by candidates and political parties. The overall limits are set at 1 billion for presidential candidates, and candidates for the Senate and House of Representatives are

set at 40 million Naira and 20 million Naira, respectively Igiebor (2019:500-501) went on to say that one of the reasons for corruption in the political system is the high cost of obtaining party nomination forms for political offices in Nigeria. For example, the People's Democratic Party (PDP) presidential candidates in the 2015 general election cost 22 million Naira, Senate seat forms cost over 2 million and a little above 1 million Naira respectively, while the governor-ship was 11 million Naira (Igiebor, 2019:501).

Concept of Economic Development

Development as a concept is a contentious one. It's comparative and multi-dimensional, and as a result, it can be used in context. Where it comes to modern cultures, the idea of creation is often dichotomized. Some countries are classified as developed, while others are classified as developing. The ranking shows a country's level of growth over time in comparison to others. Some academics, politicians, and experts appear to conflate development with economic growth, as measured by Gross domestic product (GDP) or per capita income (Ettah, 2012:35). Chêne (2014) tend to emphasize systemic reforms as a major component of growth, arguing that changes in inequality, poverty, unemployment, and access to essential social services must all be part of that progress among others. While Abuiyada (2018: 115) views development as "the conditions for realizing the human personality". As a result, three linked criteria must be considered in its evaluation: where there has been a reduction in unemployment, inequality and poverty. Ettah on the other hand, (2012:36) described development as "the sustained elevation of a community and social structure toward a "higher" or "more civilized" existence." Pearson (1992) considers development as the "increase in the use of available resources, whether quantitatively, qualitatively, or both." He also claims that evolution does not imply a singular point of view on economic, political, or social progress. Rather, it's a catch-all term for a range of ways to transforming current socioeconomic and environmental conditions into ideal ones. While according to Rodney (1972:9), development involves "increased capability and ability, more autonomy, innovation, increased self-discipline, accountability, and enhanced material well-being." At least three fundamental principles underpin all economic development. Which are:

- Life sustenance: the ability to satisfy fundamental needs such as clothing, housing, and food;
- Self-esteem: the ability to value oneself as a person; and
- Liberation from servitude: the ability to make choices.

For most development experts, in order to achieve progress, the political system must be in place. According to Almond & Powell (1966), growth is conceivable when the political system can articulate and aggregate public interests, allocate resources, and maintain law and order only through well-functioning structures. According to Almond and Powell, democratic society is built through the implementation of democratic institutions and modes of action that facilitate the attainment of quality economic and social development goals. The term "social growth" refers to the process by which social norms and institutions evolve over time, resulting in new ones (Adeniyi, 1999). Economic growth is most commonly described as an improvement in people's overall living standards in a given society. Economic growth is commonly described as the achievement of Anglo-European modernization ideals, which include an increase in production of capital and

consumer products, as well as some degree of improved economic and social equality, institutional changes, and the embrace of capitalist economic values are all required (Falodun, Omogiagor, & Ezeaku, 1997). Any culture that wants and seeks economic development will be based on the following core values:

- Raise living standard via the creation of more jobs, quality education, and a stronger focus on cultural and human values, all of which will contribute to increased individual and national self-esteem as well as material well-being;
- Increase people's economic and social options by liberating them from enslavement and overreliance, not only in relation to other people and nation - state, but also in relation to forces of ignorance and untold suffering and
- To enhance the availability and spread of fundamental life-sustaining goods like shelter, health, protection, clothes, and food (Todaro & Smith, 2003:23).

The World Bank (1994:4) therefore, noted that: "The goal of development is to improve the quality of life of the citizenry, especially in developing countries. Better schooling, a higher level of health and wellbeing, less hunger, greater social independence, and a richer cultural life are all factors that contribute to a higher quality of life."

Established Institutions to Curb Corruption by Nigerian Leaders

The relentless rise of corruption has required the implementation of anti-corruption measures interventions and policies by various administrations to combat the problem at the source. This involves the creation of departments, councils, and other organizations tasked with preventing corruption. It also includes programs aimed at reducing corruption to the minimum level. Below are the bodies and initiatives:

- The Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC) was created in 2003 to complement Obasanjo's administration's anti-corruption crusade. The Economic and Financial Crimes Commission Establishment Act created the anti-corruption agency in 2004. The EFCC is charged with combating financial and economic offences under this Act. The Commission is tasked with administering the terms of other statutes and legislation pertaining to economic and financial crimes, such as the Economic and Financial Crimes Commission Establishment Act, as well as preventing, investigating, prosecuting, and penalizing economic and financial crimes (2004), The Advance Fee Fraud and Other Fraud Related Offences Act 1995, The Failed Banks (Recovery of Debts) and Financial Malpractices of Banks Act 1995, The Money Laundering (Prohibition) Act 2004, The Failed Banks (Recovery of Debts) and Financial Malpractice. The Banks and Other Financial Institutions Act of 1991, as well as the Miscellaneous Offences Act, were all enacted in 1994;
- The Independent Corrupt Practices Commission and Other Related Offences Act, which eventually gave birth to the ICPC, was promulgated in 2000 as a result of the failure to include the private sector, which is also corrupt, in all of these laws;

The Nigerian constitution of 1979 established the Code of Conduct Bureau Tribunal, which receives allegations about unethical practices. The Bureau prohibits elected officials from accepting remuneration for two public offices at the same time and from engaging in private practice while employed by the government, the code prohibits public servants from accepting gifts or in-kind benefits for themselves or others as a result

of anything done or omitted in the performance of their duties. It makes it illegal for elected officials to have or operate international bank accounts. Public officials must register their personal properties and those of their spouses shortly after assuming office, every four years, and at the end of their terms;

- Nigerian Extractive Industries Transparency Initiative (NEITI);
- Budget Monitoring and Price Intelligence Unit (BMPIU) and
- Nigerian Investment Promotion Commission (NIPC) (Alege, Adamu & Muhammad, 2014: 211; Rotimi, Obasaju, Lawal & Iseolorunkanmi, 2013: 7).

Programmes and Initiatives

The Shagari Second Republic, introduced the Ethical Re-orientation Campaign (ERC). Buhari/Idiagbon regime, War against Indiscipline (WAI). Babangida's Committee on Corruption and other Economic Crimes (CCEC) and War against (WAC) Corruption.

General Sanni Abacha regime introduced the War against Indiscipline and Corruption (WAIC).

Whistle-Blowing was introduced under Buhari/Osinbajo's government as an anti-corruption policy to fight against corruption in Nigeria (Rotimi, Obasaju, Lawal & Iseolorunkanmi, 2013: 8; Abuiyada, 2018: 115).

Other attempts include the formation of investigation committees, commissions of inquiry, and tribunals (such as the Failed Bank Tribunal) to pursue dishonest individuals. To support inquiry commissions and tribunals, laws such as the Money Laundering Act of 2003, the Advance Fee Fraud and Fraud Related Offences Act of 1995, the Foreign Exchange Act of 1995, and the Corrupt Practices and Other Related Offences Act of 2000 were passed (Alege, Adamu & Muhammad, 2014: 211; Rotimi, Obasaju, Lawal & Iseolorunkanmi, 2013: 8; Abuiyada, 2018: 115).

Theoretical Framework

Major proponents of the elite theory are 'Vilfredo Pareto (1848–1923), Gaetano Mosca (1858–1941), and Roberto Michel's (1876–1936).' The elite theory can be used to explain dominance of corrupt practices in Nigeria. The elite theoretical viewpoint emphasizes a society's leadership and how it influences socioeconomic and governance matters (Igiebor, 2019). The words 'elite' and 'elites' denote someone in a culture who wields undue political, social, or economic power as a result of their exposure, skills, relationships, education, and material wealth (Bottomore, 1976; Nwankwo, 1997; Parry, 1976). They are a privileged minority with leadership skills, aspirations for leadership, access to key bodies of knowledge and intelligence. They play dominant roles in orchestrating policy agendas and setting political goals in the political realm (Igiebor, 2019). Ihonvbere (2009) espoused that the elites control societies political and economic systems, they also establish and maintain societies ideological sphere, particularly through force.

The character of colonial Nigeria formed the origins and growth of Nigeria's elites. The elites who rose to power as political leaders in postcolonial Nigeria during the decolonization era did not stray far from the colonial regime's development philosophy, as evidenced by the postcolonial repression of the people of Nigeria (Igiebor, 2019).

Government is a tool to achieve a goal by Nigeria's elites, who see it as a means to enrich themselves by unethical practices rather than true nation building. As a result, rather than taking the lead to promote quality leadership as is expected in any country, they have continued to obstruct Nigeria's democratization (Enemuo & Momoh, 1999). From an elite theoretical viewpoint, one can deduce that corruption in Nigeria is cultivated from the top down. In terms of leadership, Nigeria has a long history of being regarded as corrupt. After leaving government, a large number of public officials, particularly those in political office, have become extremely wealthy (Adedaja, 2013). The social strata have been corrupted by a system of non-accountability. Politicians are using their control of administrative power for personal gain without been accountable to the public and in turn affecting Nigeria's economic development negatively (GFI, 2013).

The Effects of Corruption on Economic Development

In some economies, excessive rigidity and bureaucracy can wreak havoc, make investment difficult and enterprises unprofitable. Some scholars and practitioners believe that corruption has the potential to liberalize hierarchical administrative processes and foster businesses. In the presence of structural corruption, some countries' economic growth rates seem unaffected due to the degree of commercial activity for years has been tightly regulated, whereas corruption prevents development and growth in others (Ugur & Nandini, 2011). The general consensus on the impact of corruption on commercial development is as a result of the discouragement due to international investment and foreign assistance while also impeding domestic private investment, entrepreneurship, and planning. As a result, corruption reduces business prospects and slows economic development (Chêne, 2014; Epele, 2006). In regions of Nigeria, there is still insurgency and political unrest which exacerbates the problem.

Corruption also has an effect on government spending habits. Government funds are dedicated mostly to 'vanity schemes' and programs that are vast and impossible to handle by state authorities in countries where corruption is heavy, rather than to vibrant community societal agendas such as health, education, Airports, roads, and other infrastructure schemes are examples of such programs (Shuaib, 2015: 30). Corruption is a significant impediment to the successful mobilization and deployment of capital in Nigeria; as a result, resources are diverted from critical programs and initiatives that can alleviate lack and promote development economically. The domestic financial system is been weakened by corruption, which is harmful to productivity because it lowers investment and savings, lowering people's living standards (Igiebor, 2019; Nwabueze, 2020: 504). Wealth obtained by fraudulent dealings in Nigeria are either transferred out of the country to international investments and bank accounts in overseas companies, or consumed on the import of extravagances for individual usage. The allegations of a former Nigerian minister looting \$6 billion into foreign banks, and a onetime governor who stole \$77 million and was sent to jail for money laundering of international bank accounts testify to the above view (BBC, 2012; BBC, 2015; Adeyemi, 2016; Nnochiri, 2016). Corruption raises a government's spending contributions and operating expenses, as well as tax leakage and the money available for public programs. Nigeria has lost almost \$400 billion to corruption since attaining political independence in the early 1960s, according to Dr. Obiageli Ezekwesili, a former World Bank Vice President for Africa (Okoye, 2012). Political

bribery, political activity, and election fraud account for the majority of the funds gained by unethical practices in Nigeria (Igiebor, 2019:505).

Corruption causes poverty by transferring government resources meant for economic development, poverty alleviation, and human capacity development to the personal advantage of corrupt officials and their clientele. Because they cannot afford to pay bribes and do not profit from corrupt governments' initiatives, low-income earners are disproportionately disadvantaged by corruption (Nwabueze, 2020). This has contributed to the breakdown of state institutions, poverty, unemployment, revenue loss, and development failures. As a result, Nigeria's high poverty rate has been connected to the political class's widespread corruption, resulting in immeasurable hardship for the majority of Nigerians throughout time. Despite its abundant resources and robust oil and gas production sector, Nigeria was named one of the world's most unequal and poor countries by the 2016 CCA in September, with far more than 80 million of the nation's 186 million people living in poverty (Igiebor, 2019:506). Egwuatu (2020) therefore, noted that over 102 million Nigerians are extremely poor in 2020 and it's expected to reach 150 million in the following year while in the fourth quarter of 2020, joblessness for people aged 15-24 was 53.4 percent, for people aged 25-34 was 37.2 percent. Women had a 35.2 percent of people without jobs compared to 31.8 percent for males." The country's unemployment rate, which is the second highest in the world, is extremely disturbing. (Egwuatu, 2020; O'Neill, 2021; Niyi, 2021).

Nigeria ranked 25% out of a possible 100% on the Corruption Perception Index published in January 2021, putting it in the bottom half of all international indices. Except for 2013, when it received a 25%, this is the lowest ranking the nation has received since the global assessment began in 2012 (Niyi, 2021; O'Neill, 2021). Corruption is linked to poor control of public finances as well as the distribution of public goods, and it reduces ordinary living standards. For instance in the Human Development Index (HDI) ranking released in 2020 Nigeria drops 3 places to 161 in 2019 as against 158 in 2018 among 189 countries (Oluwabunmi, 2020). This means Nigeria is within the level nations with a poor human development index.

Conclusion and Recommendations

This paper has investigated the challenges corruption has brought and its pervasiveness in Nigeria's political structure. It shows that there is a negative relationship between corruption and economic development, and if strict measures are not taken to combat it, the country's progress will be hampered. Corrupt governments are still doomed to fail. Corruption, defined as monopoly plus discretion without transparency, is a major impediment to long-term development, particularly in developing countries like Nigeria. It has looted the resources of resource-rich countries such as Nigeria, trapping people in poverty and leading to high rate of unemployment. Even if certain people seem to benefit from the paying of a bribe by the majority of people, the net impact of corruption on economic growth and development remains negative. The slower a country's economic development is, the more dishonest it becomes. As a result, it is self-evident that in order to reduce corruption and restore the economy's reputation and prestige, as well as create an atmosphere conducive to accelerated economic development, the perceived concerns and

problems of corruption that are slowing down the economy must be seriously addressed appropriately. It's on this note the study recommends the following:

- It is necessary for government to provide sufficient funding to anti-corruption agencies like the EFCC, ICPC, and for the government to refrain from interfering with the mandates provided to these agencies in order for them to be successful. The anti-corruption agencies will not be able to endure the opposition powers of the criminal fundamentals in the nation except the government is prepared to devote enough resources to finance and run the agencies, leaving them fully autonomous.
- For Nigeria to be successful in the struggle against corruption, the root causes of corruption has to be addressed and this has to be through the effective implementation of legal mechanism in place.
- Citizenry and those in position of power should be enlightened to discourage extreme consumerism and the "get rich quick" mentality have infiltrated the Nigerian system.
- Nigerian leaders must at all times be willing to discover and penalize corrupt officials and citizens, as well as to foster an economic climate that will enhance Nigerians' living standards.
- Adding these already existing initiatives, disciplinary actions must be implemented to guarantee honesty, accountability, and oversight through an equal and just scheme. This is because certain people will partake in unethical behavior merely because they believe and accept that they will get away with it.
- People with high moral values and a track record of honesty and competence should be allowed to get involved in politics and run for office. This would limit the number of people seeking elected office only for personal gains.

If these recommendations above can be brought into the Nigerian system corruption will be reduced drastically, thereby paving way for economic growth and development in Nigeria's fourth republic.

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TAX REGIME AND CHALLENGES OF SCALING UP TAX COLLECTION IN NIGERIAN INFORMAL ECONOMY

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Abstract: *The vast and rapid dynamism in economic policies towards improved and speedy policy implementation aided by unrelenting technology capabilities have also transitioned into the tax administration economy. E-taxation is steadily taking the place of manual taxation. Electronic tax system expresses fast, convenient, cost efficient, organized and transparent taxation rather than tasking, time consuming and tax officials-tax payers' corruption ridden operations of manual taxation. This article, engaging exploratory-qualitative research technique, examines multinational peculiarities of automated taxation to draw lessons from issues emanating from implementation, adoption and compliance. It further shed light on challenges of migrating e-tax collection to informal economies in Nigeria. From the extant review of cross-cultural literatures, it was revealed that developed and developing countries are gradually embracing and making constant efforts towards transitioning into a more established e-tax system. Countries like USA, China, Canada, Japan, Russia, Costa Rica, Colombia, and Kenya already joined in adopting e-taxation. The paper argued that inadequate database of taxable individuals; expensive internet infrastructure, cyberspace crime and limited awareness among tax payers are drawing back implementation of e-taxation in the Nigerian informal economies, and subsequently suggests practicable policy options.*

Keywords: *Tax policy, TIN, e-tax literature, Informal Economy, Rural Economies*

Introduction

Tax is a common terminology in public finance. It has been diversely conceptualized by different authors but in substance these conceptions are resemblance of one another. According to Oseni, "Tax is a compulsory financial charge or a levy imposed upon a taxpayer by the government to fund various public expenditures for the benefits of the people" (Oseni, 2016, p. 49). Oseni (2016) further stressed that the main aim of imposing tax by the government was to procure public expenses such as cost of law enforcement, public welfare, economic infrastructure and public services, he further connoted that the words "compulsory" and "government" used above explained the legal power of government at various level to invoke punishment on the tax evaders. Though, the two terms, taxation and tax have been in existence since the emergence of public service

in the ancient era. They are the heartbeat of revenue hub of any state as they provide assurance for financing government activities. Navigationally, tax administration as an orthodox source of revenue to government, transcended through series of reformations and restructuring. The amendments made to administration of tax policies in many developed and developing economies were to; block tax revenue leakages; increase tax net; reduce tax filling duration, encourage self-tax assessment, ensure prompt issuance of tax invoice and receipt, and attend to tax complaint (Sabitova and Khafizova, 2015; Oseni, 2016), so as to deepen the overriding principles of equity, simplicity, economy and certainty in the entire tax system. These lofty objectives invariably suggested that tax administration faces certain challenges that were needed to be tackled. Therefore, in attempt to actualize perfect, efficient, and effective tax system, most economies (developed and developing) deployed electronic automations into the tax systems. Therefore, e-tax administration is viewed by many countries as an important layer in the overall implementation and administration of their taxations and taxes respectively. Ozgen and Turan (2007) conceived it as “a new technology based system that does not necessitate for tax payers to go to tax authorities to pay their taxes due. System is composed of turning-in tax declaration forms that defines tax owned to tax authorities in an electronic format and pay taxes due via electronic environments based on internet through interactive bank accounts or by Automated Teller Machine (ATM). E-taxation is called to collect taxes by tax authorities in electronic environments via electronic declaration and electronic payment method”.

The Nigerian tax system has undergone various policy changes and evolution since its inception. Nigeria, before the adequate implementation of electronic taxation in 2016 (Fowler, 2017), the manual tax system was the mainstream of Nigerian tax administration. The manual tax administration has experienced several challenges ranging from administrative challenge, death of experienced and qualified personnel, level of corruption on the basis of tax officials collusion with would be taxpayers to defraud the government of her taxes, non-availability of database of all taxable individuals, tax touting at the level where unprofessional individuals are presented with the responsibility of collecting taxes and levies, nonpayment/delay in the payment of tax refunds. These challenges have necessitated a paradigm shift to the modern system of electronic taxation.

The introduction of electronic taxation in Nigeria was prompted by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) fiscal affairs division in 2005/2006. In 2013, the FIRS upon the approval of the Federal Executive Council introduced, procured, installed and implemented the Integrated Tax Administration System (ITAS) with the aim to enhance tax administration and simplify the tax compliance process in Nigeria through the automation of all core processes around registration, payment, assessment, debt and credit management, audit and investigation, case management and return filing with the use of technology (Deloitte, 2017). According to Fowler (2017), the FIRS adopted the ITAS in the year 2016.

Existing literature differs on contextual explanation of operational issues confronting developed and developing economies after the introduction of information technology into the administration of tax, having this in mind, this article excavated literature on the operational adaptability of e-tax administration with a view to providing fresh insight into bottlenecks contending with scaling of e-tax regimes especially at the level of rural economies in Nigeria. This paper using exploratory-qualitative research technique is designed into four sections, first is this foregoing part, then followed by an

expansive excavation of literature on operational deployment of e-taxation from transnational perspective, the third part shed more lights on the scaling challenges in the process of diffusing automated tax administration in Nigeria to rural landscape, and in the end we proposed policy recommendations for government action.

Review of e-tax literature: adoptions, operations and limitations

In a report by Ernst and Young LLP (2016), digitization of tax system is neither the sole agenda of taxpayers nor the main responsibility of tax authorities, the report summarized that automated tax system consisted of five phases; Electronic Filing (level 1, taxpayers use electronically designed platform for filing tax returns and other income data); Electronic Accounting (level 2, tax payers submit accounting or supporting documents such trial balance and invoices to accommodate possible additions or changes); Electronic Match (level 3, tax authorities use taxpayers' source documents to match data across tax types and tax jurisdiction in real time); Electronic Audit (level 4, taxpayers' data are analyzed and cross-checked in real time environment to flag out tax fraud, unintended error as well as coagulate geographic economic ecosystem as it allows government authorities to send taxpayers electronic audit assessments); Electronic Assessment (level 5, tax authorities assess tax liability to the taxpayers without tax forms). Brondolo and Zhang (2016) noted that in China, the administration of tax was paper based and performed manually with minimal utilization of automated system in the early 1990s, they further declared that allocation huge numbers of tax officers to conduct routine compliance check (reviewing and processing of paper tax returns), error-ridden system, increasing tax dispute, tax payers information distortion and high compliance cost necessitated, since mid-1990s, the automation of tax administration in China as "the SAT made huge investments in its information technology system during the last 20 years. These investments centered on the development of two systems: (1) the China Tax Administration Information System (CTAIS); and (2) Golden Tax Project (GTP)" (Brondolo and Zhang, 2016, p.29).

For Indian, adoption of automated of tax system was gradual, "income tax e-filing was introduced in September, 2004, initially on a voluntary usage basis for all categories of income tax assessment. But from July, 2006, it was made mandatory for all corporate firms to e-file their income tax returns. Taking this process further, from assessment year 2007 to 2008, e-filing of income tax return was made mandatory for all companies and firms requiring statutory audit under section 44AB of Indian Income Tax Act. For all other categories of income tax assessment, which includes salaried individuals, the use of income tax e-filing service continues to be voluntary" (Ojha, Sahu & Gupta, 2009, p.67). Sabitova and Khafizova (2015) comparatively reported year of deployment of automated filling system for personal income tax and company income tax of some developed economies as contained in the table below.

Table 1 Use of Electronic Filling of Tax

Country	Year of deployment	
	Electronic filling of company income tax	Electronic filling of personal income tax
United Kingdom	2004	2000
Canada	2002	1993

United States	2004	1986
France	1991	2001
Germany	2011	1999
Japan	2004	2000
Russia	2009	2016
India	2011	2009

Source: Sabitova and Khafizova (2015)

Sabitova and Khafizova (2015) summary of year of deployment of online filing of company income tax and personal income tax in some countries suggested that automation of tax administration have existed for more than three decades particularly in the United States. Also going by the table above, deployment of electronic platform is not new to most of the digital based economies such as Japan, Germany, United States and Canada. A number of writers have pinpointed a number of benefits associated with deployment of ICT in the administration of tax. Verily, the deployment of electronic tax system arrived with certain benefits especially in the area of blocking revenue leakages and bursting tax evasion. Oseni (2016) submitted that “ICT has brought many innovations to the administration of tax and this has invariably increased the net revenue collected. There seems to be no hiding place for tax evaders with the use of the modern tools” (Oseni, 2016, p.53). In China for instance, Brondolo and Zhang (2016) identified automated support for tax administration functions, specialized computer system for detecting and dealing with VAT invoice fraud as part of benefits of e-tax administration. He further opined that the system controls the issuance of invoices, authenticates invoices based on encoded information embedded in each issued invoice, and cross-matches seller and purchaser invoices. This position is corroborated in Lai, Siti-Normala and Ahmed-Kameel (2005) where they remarked that the e-filing system integrated tax preparation, tax filing and tax payment. With the adoption of electronic-filing system, taxpayers can electronically file income tax returns through technologies without face to face contact with tax officers. (Lai, Siti-Normala and Ahmed-Kameel, 2005).

According to Olatunji and Ayodele (2017), introduction of automated tax system aided productivity of tax officers especially in tax collection and administration. They stressed that:

- Significance of the use of IT is infinite, some of which are; facilitates a reducing in the overhead cost of managing the agencies of government responsible for tax administration, instant computation of tax liability from the use of online tax calculator, reduced cost of registering tax payers and instant generation of tax identification number, reducing in staff-taxpayers collusion as regards tax liability, reduction in fraudulent activities of tax collectors in the aspect of non-remittance of tax received from tax payers and boost the revenue of government in terms of reduction in expenses (administrative, overhead and transactional) and corrupt practices (Olaoye & Ayodele, 2017, p.28).

Furthermore, Umenweke and Ifediora (2016) enlisted positive impact of automation of tax administration to include benefit to tax authorities and taxpayers, accessibility, time saving and convenience, early detection of errors, curbing of corrupt practices of tax authorities, availability of taxpayers’ tax history for the perusal of the tax authorities and the taxpayers and enhancement of the enforcement of tax laws. The significant exodus noted in enforcement and administration of taxation and tax respectively

from manual system to automated system by both developed and developing countries provoked research interest in e-taxation. For instance, Ozgen and Turan (2007) studied implementation of tax declaration and management system and the tax payment system via interactive internet based bank accounts in Turkey using survey research method anchored on Theory of Planned Behaviour among 130 tax practitioners in Turkey. They argued that evaluation of technology acceptance levels of users was necessary for successful implementation of new technology in the tax industry.

The study stressed the important of assessing the acceptability level of stakeholders in the tax industry particularly the tax officers and tax payers who are the major operators in the new tax regime, hence, the study tested the core constructs of Technology Acceptability Model (TAM) to examine extent to which automated tax administration was accepted in Turkey, the findings show that Perceived Ease of Use (PEU), Perceived Usefulness (PU), Self-Efficacy (SE) and Internet Experience (IE) positively and significantly influence Behaviour Intention (BI) of the taxpayers when running e-declaration platform of e-taxation in Turkey. Therefore, it could be resolved that orientation of tax operators was crucial to success of effective deployment of automated tax system in Turkey. This finding however is susceptible to defeat due to the fact that the survey did not cover representative respondents as only 130 tax practitioners could not possibly represent the view of the entire stakeholders of tax administration in Turkey. This result is similar to submission of Ojha, Sahu and Gupta (2009) on study conducted to investigate the antecedents of young Indian professionals' behavioral intention (BI) to use the income tax e filing service, the result shows that antecedents of young Indian professionals' BI to use the income tax e-filing service was influenced by perceived ease-of-use, personal innovativeness in information technology, relative advantage (RA), performance of e-filing service, and compatibility, though findings shows that acceptability of e-taxation among young professional was slow in India.

Using parameters such as corporate income tax, tax information exchange, use of e-invoicing, data analytics/risk engine deployed and future to examine the state of digital taxation in America, Ernst and Young LLP (2016) conducted a comprehensively study on e-taxation system of certain countries in America. In Mexico for instance, taxpayers submit electronic accounting records for each transaction, all tax returns are done electronically, e-report of relevant transactions, tax information is shared with other government agencies and other countries especially those with signed treaties. E-invoicing mandated and validated by tax authorities, digital receipts are issued, inspection and audit of tax remitted are conducted electronically and there is need to integrate pre-filing system for individual and small companies and deploy automated tax information sharing architecture especially with European countries by the end of 2017 (Ernst and Young LLP, 2016). Electronic tax administration in Panama is characterized with unique specificities. For instance, e-filing of tax returns is mandatory while e-re-filing of amended tax return is optional. Exchange of information is non-existence as e-invoicing is not captured at source. Risk assessment and data matching were given no attention in the countries, but the country is battling with restructuring toward efficiencies and less physical interaction between taxpayers and tax authorities.

Canada electronic taxation is structured in a way that e-filing is only required for corporations with Annual Gross Revenue in excess of \$1million as insurance corporations, non-resident corporations, corporation accounting in functional currency with designated

corporations under sec 149 of Income Tax Act exempted from e-filing. At the same time, information exchange is done electronically while e-invoicing is optional. Taxpayers right of election on VAT is exercised, data analytic tools which adopt data matching technique are deployed to assess risk and compliance level in the existing e-tax system; therefore, current trends noticed in Canada on e-tax administration suggested that the use of mobile application in rendering tax information and reminder to taxpayers (Ernst and Young LLP, 2016). Furthermore, Alibasha, Kumar and Kumar (2016) recognized enhanced customer service, quick processing time, accuracy in audit trail and reduction in processing cost as the blessings brought to tax industry in Canada through automated tax system whereas challenges like delay in tax refund; unequal access to e-tax payment support architectures like debit and credit card; system errors occasioned by software malfunction; incorrect information emanated from mismatch filing of tax identification details by tax payers (Alibasha, Kumar and Kumar,2016). The profile of automated tax administration in Chile for that matter suggested that e-filing is mandated for taxpayers as from 2017, though, e-payment is motivated with interest given and fine reduction to taxpayers. Automated information exchange system with foreign tax authorities was lately withdrawn toward domestic tax authorities. Mandatory e-invoicing is demanded from 2018 but issuance of the e-invoices not considered, taxpayers are expected to send in both purchase and sale books. Massive data cross-reference technique is deployed to promote tax audit and galvanizes statistical data on tax. The current focus of digital tax administration in Chile concentrated on investing and funding e-tax administration with a view to harnessing tax audit and collection (Ernst and Young LLP, 2016). In Colombia, e-filing is mandated for certain taxpayers with deployment of online tax website while tax assessments are carried out manually. Tax and taxpayers information are exchange based on formal request. E-invoicing is optional but limited to designated taxpayers while risk engine and data matching techniques still under construction. The burning issue is on how to develop National Technology Plan by 2017(Ernst and Young LLP, 2016). Findings emanating on the status of automated tax administration in United States shown that only large business electronically file tax returns, monthly payment of tax and withholding. Tax information is carefully shared with countries with which there is existing treaties and agreement. Absent of VAT made e-invoicing non-functional but demanded during tax audit, data analytic tool is deployed to ensure compliance, risk assessment and audit selection with aid of aggregated tax information from third parties. Focusing on pre-filing tax returns; self-management of account; harmonizes information from other government agencies to ascertain tax liability (Ernst and Young LLP, 2016). In Argentina, tax software and website of authorities are integrated with other government agencies whereas e-invoicing is mandatory since 2015. Matching of taxpayers data with undisclosed analytical tool is another feature identified. The major concern is an electronic tax audit and e-tax receipt (Ernst and Young LLP 2016).

Brazilian automated tax system embraces e-filing of accounting and tax books as tax information exchange among federal tax authorities especially for corporate tax is encourage while VAT information is distributed among federal and state tax authorities. E-invoicing required accounting and tax bookkeeping as well as double party validation from government (the seller validates and the buyer validates, both from government). Random selection of taxpayers based on electronic tax information for inspection is usually adopted meanwhile Brazilian government targeted improvement on integrating tax

information on control and production of inventory and e-social program by consolidating provision of tax, social security and other employee obligations (Ernst and Young LLP, 2016). Looking ahead, Ernst and Young LLP (2016) branded inadequate format for filing tax data; hindrance in submitting data, inefficient processes; outdated operating model; inability to respond to audit notices in timely manner; not enough process support for new data requirement; inability to quickly respond to disagreement with tax assessment as the challenges upsetting e-tax administration of countries in the America continent. Dove (2008) noted that stable internet service; synergy among tax authorities, financial institutions and taxpayers; ICT compliance taxpayers; investment in automated infrastructure for tax administration; peculiar environment where digital tax administration is deployed; quality of business processes; available IT expertise determine success rate of any newly installed automated tax system. Challenges such as taxpayers' incapacity to supply electronic returns owing to legal tussle surrounding introduction of digital signature and data encryption; integrity and confidentiality of tax information; fraud risk; response rate of tax authorities and compliance issues (Edward-Dove, 2008). Dove (2008) further appreciated that though deployment of digital taxation is difficulty in some countries, its benefits surpass the tasks involved. In the beginning, adoption of e-filing and e-payment might not be hopeful but in the long run, automated tax administration minimizes cost of tax administration, increases accuracy of tax data, ensures convenience on the part of both taxpayers and tax administrators and quick collection of taxes whereas tax authorities are expected to synergize with third parties in order to attain optimal exploitation of the e-taxation (Dove, 2008).

Price Waterhouse Coopers [PWC] (2017) discovered that in Africa, that there are still difficulties in paying taxes, though, the region posted highest frequency of tax payment and second highest Total Tax Rate in the globe. Time span for compliance could still be improved upon as Total Tax Rate persist to respond positively while deployment of accounting software and automated tax system increase filing and payment of tax couple with decreasing rate of time to comply, in the Asia Pacific, indicators shown that compliance interval increases as against reduction in number of payment made by taxpayers due to either deployment of electronic system or improvement in existing digital taxation (PWC, 2017) whereas Central America and the Caribbean's introduction of electronic tax architecture has improved Total Tax Rate, though, compliance issues still constitute a thorn in the flesh for the Latin Americas. In Central Asia and Eastern Europe for instance, the continue introduction of new e-tax platform and improvement of electronic system resulted into positive performance saw in the Total Tax Rate, Compliance level and frequency in tax payment recorded in the region. South America's tax system, due to certain reform in the tax industry, has improved particularly in Total Tax Rate, time to comply has also gone down, and this is not unconnected to the installation and enhancement in the electronic tax regime. Reviewing the state of automated tax system in China particularly VAT, Brondolo and Zhang (2016) were of the opinion that the deployment of automated tax system was seen by the government as vital pillar for improving the effectiveness and efficiency of tax administration in China as such governmental efforts were directed toward improving existing electronic tax system. Going forward, Brondolo and Zhang (2016) further flag off the shortcomings identified in the system to include absent of centralized databases of tax information as result lead to inability of State Administration of Taxation to "easily compile the type of national data

that is crucial for assessing the evaluating the performance of its operational programs and field offices, conducting data mining and risk analysis, and tracking taxpayers' activities across provinces and with related entities" (Brondolo and Zhang, 2016, p.55). Other challenges affecting automation of tax administration include the need to certify and cross-match invoices between purchasers and sellers to detect fraudulent invoices, system imposition of very high compliance costs on taxpayers, non-existence of legal mechanism for authenticating electronic invoices (i.e., an electronic signature) and technological platform to operate the system (Brondolo and Zhang, 2016).

It would not be out of order to observe that adoption and acceptability issues constituted some challenges in deploying automated tax administration in some jurisdiction. Again, in Malaysia, survey conducted among 600 tax practitioners reported strong intentions to use the e-filing system among tax practitioners, usefulness and easiness of e-filing system, time and cost saving as major drivers supporting deployment of e-taxation in Malaysia. The study instigated that e-taxation guaranteed spirit of tax compliance among the tax payers except for concerns over security of online tax transactions (Lai, Normala and Kameel, 2005), still on e-tax administration in Malaysia, *Doing Business* (2014) as well reported that between 2006 and 2011, individuals and companies e-filing and e-payment increased from 5% to 34%, the concerted strive to improve electronic tax administration in Malaysia has been easing out administrative and institutional bottlenecks embattled in the process of filing corporate tax returns (*Doing Business*, 2014). Record shown that time distance for filing tax returns has been in tailwind owing to improvement in e-taxation which has captured many small and medium size outlets, innovatively, tax preparers invented best spoke software that interfaced with tax authorities' e-filing portal and, again, improvement recorded in the existing digital taxation nurtured avenue for taxpayers to file tax estimate as such upward movement in general compliance is observable. Malaysia's knowledge has revealed the opportunities and challenges that information technology can provide in the tax industry (*Doing Business*, 2014) while deployment of electronic tax system in Costa Rica has spurred greater efficiency and effectiveness in tax collection. Standardization of the processes of e-filing of taxpayers and e-payment of tax liability significantly reduced time to comply and the number of tax payment made in the country. Digital tax administration in Costa Rica was developed in a piecemeal; introduction of electronic filing and payment for larger taxpayers; building capacity in term of skill and expertise with learning curve as exposure to practices and principles of e-taxation gather momentum; extension of coverage band to other taxpayers; enactment of law for dealing with digital signatures and e-documents; standardization of tax returns e-platform through Digital e-tax website; development of Virtual Tax Administration Portal (Luis, 2017). The innovative deployment of e-taxation made tax refund and tax assessment hitch-free, at the same time ensures that pre-filing, filing and post-filing processes of e-tax administration are less time consuming and less involving in Costa Rica. Sabitova and Khafizova (2015) review level and quality of tax administration by situating electronic tax administration in Russia in the midst of other European countries using cost of tax administration; cost structure, personal and corporate income tax returns filed through electronic means as parameters. Based on tax cost structure analysis, human resources constitute the key feature of tax administration. The worldwide practice suggests that the labor cost varies from 60% to 90% of the total tax expenditures. The average country specific labor costs are about 70% of the total tax

administration expenditures (Sabitova and Khafizova, 2015). The study notified that highly-developed countries like US and UK where labour cost is lower than average labour cost of countries in OECD is further favoured with existence of state of art information technologies as stated here: “For the countries of OECD, the labor costs are just over those not being the OECD member, which can be explained by higher wage level in the developed economies that overweighs other tax costs in the relative measurement. However, in some highly developed countries with the labor cost much lesser than the average value, this fact is determined by higher level of information technologies that reduce the number of employees. This can be specifically seen in such countries as the UK and the USA. The IT costs in the non-OECD countries are low. This measure, however, keeps growing over the last years. Therefore, the statistical data confirm that the current tax administration is going to actively use the information technologies” (Sabitova and Khafizova, 2015, p.170).

Still locating the status of Russia tax automation regimes, personal and corporate income tax returns filed via electronic platform in non-OECD and OECD states were compared (Sabitova and Khafizova, 2015). The average data for the OECD countries show that the electronic corporate tax return is 68% in 2011 which is more compare to non-OECD countries. However, an electronic tax returns system for both the corporate income tax and other tax payments has been actively developing due to tax administration enhanced quality and expanded range of services rendered to the taxpayers in Russia. This resulted into increase in electronic tax returns and the number of taxpayers, who have a contact-free access to the tax database to check their budget settlements. Automated tax administration in Russian provided taxpayers with document providing tax, charge, fine and penalty settlements; extracts from budget settlements; a list of tax returns (settlements) and accounting statements for the report year; and a reconciliation report of tax, charge, fine and penalty settlements (Sabitova and Khafizova, 2015), the comparative analysis of tax business in different countries in terms of tax administration revealed that Russia focuses efforts on the comfort conditions for communication between taxpayers and tax authorities, It is a good practice in Russia to develop online communication of tax authorities with taxpayers, using newest information technologies in undertaking tax activities. The wide use of current information technologies enables automation of the entire process of tax administration as part of international tax cooperation, the automated

Information systems are being developed that ensure tax business, facilitate communication at a quality level and exchange the information between the tax authorities worldwide. Making of such system will allow for more effective and accurate employing the information component of tax authorities. The information exchange between tax authorities in different countries should also develop to reduce double taxation significantly. Umenweke and Ifediora (2016) typified United States electronic tax system as the heartbeat of the US thriving economy as well appreciated positive possibilities of an efficient automated tax system in Nigeria. They identified convenience in proper capturing of taxable taxpayers and protection of taxpayers from the arbitrary excesses of the various tax authorities in Nigeria as added advantages for smooth running of the system while suggesting for continuous update of tax payer data base, maintenance of the existing database of taxpayers, specific tax laws should be enacted at the federal and state levels to properly give legality to the e-taxation process and full implementation (no option for

manual filing) of e-taxation for Federal, State and Local government taxes (Umenweke and Ifediora, 2016).

OECD's survey report on the trend of issues on adoption of e-service for taxpayers in European economies revealed collection of e-platforms for tax administration solutions. E-tax websites embedded with user friendly features enable taxpayers to enjoy many options of tax activities and access to immense tax data such as Virtual Tax Assistant deployed in Slovenia, Generic E-Mailing and Telephony E-Tax Service, this supported penetration of multiple e-tax payment solution (like Direct Debit, Direct Credit). Deviation from unique standard of E-filing of tax returns exposed some European countries to limited benefit of automated tax administration. Routine information exchange (tax bulk data) is allowed among government agencies for broader utilization. The components of taxpayers' bulk data in most European countries included conventional tax information and data for matching of other governmental e-services such as social welfare program, vehicle registration and tax information while selective but strictly limited access to Non-Governmental Organization (OECD, 2010). In the developing countries like Kenya, Wasao (2014) reported that generally, taxpayers in all sectors accepted online tax system involving online registration, online filling and online payment that makes recruitment of taxpayers easy and hence tax compliance is achieved among taxpayers in Nairobi, this position was previously upheld in Eva (2010), it was argued that easy registration significantly enhanced compliance among tax payer in Kenya. Meanwhile, Bird (2015) believed that consideration should not be given only to revenue generated through tax collection, but also to apt information requires to deepening principle of certainty in tax administration, hence, the essence of ICT deployment in administration of tax as automated tax administrative structure smokes out unnecessary, unused, unedited taxpayers information and at the same time mopped out effective risk management strategies for effective and efficient tax management system (Bird, 2015). This view articulated cost benefit analysis, risk management and information management system as contending issues in tax administration in the developing countries, though, Nigerian e-tax administration is scheduled to undergo reform tagged "a revolution in tax administration in Nigeria" by Nigerian Federal Inland Revenue Service, this is expected to reflect trends in global digital tax system. Guardian Newspapers (2017) reported that "the Federal Inland Revenue Service (FIRS) has introduced six key electronic solutions (e-Services) to enhance convenience, transparency and round the clock processing and payment of taxes payment: e-TaxPay, Remita); receiving of electronic receipt after payment of taxes (through e-Receipt); filing tax returns online (through e-filing) and online Tax Clearance Certificates (TCC) through electronic Tax Clearance Certificate (e-TCC solution)". This move by the service is long overdue but efforts should be directed to challenges dreading current status of e-taxation administration in Nigeria, in the next section, attention is shifted to understand the vitiating bottlenecks contending with scaling of e-tax regimes at the level of rural economies.

Nigerian informal economy: challenges of scaling up e-tax collection

The use of e-taxation in Nigeria focused on six procedures including electronic registration, Tax Identification Number (TIN) verification and issuance, electronic filing of tax returns, tax payment, electronic confirmation issuance, and tax refunds (Umenweke

and Ifediora, 2016). Despite efforts made by Nigeria towards an effective electronic tax system, it is still notwithstanding conceived to lack infrastructure and expertise in enforcing these programs or maybe tax payers were hesitant to make full use of online capabilities (PWC and World Bank Group, 2013). In Okifo and Igburu (2015) view, Nigeria has two types of e-payment namely: the end-to-end processing where all transactions are carried out electronically and the manual e-payment which is a mixture of manual and electronic processes as a result of available infrastructures' incapability of accommodating end-to-end processing. It was thus concluded that the electronic tax scheme in Nigeria still remains a manual e-payment. In defining Informal Economy (IE), tax authorities and researchers have used different criteria ranging from the number of employees, to the location, size of the shape, number of transactions, low barrier to entry, ownership structure and legal status has been used to define IE (Cole and Fayissa, 1991, Ebifuro et al, 2016). In Nigeria, IE refers to any business operating outside the control of government regulation (Magbagbeola, 1996; Adesanya, 2014). A few number of these businesses function within the sphere of the small scale enterprise, which popularly lack precise locations due to the constant mobility nature of the businesses. This consequentially makes these businesses activities difficult to regulate, secure and locate, thus presenting an uphill task to governmental tax officials in their efforts to oversee these small scale enterprise operations (Adesanya, 2014; Akenbor and Arugu, 2014; Akintoye and Tashie, 2013).

The International Labour Organisation (ILO) grouped the IE into two namely: the coping strategy and the unofficial earning strategy. The first group which is the coping group expresses the series of tasks people engage in for survival, such as: temporary occupations, small commercial farming, and hawking, to name a few, while the unofficial earning group encompasses business activities targeted towards tax avoidance, shunning tax rules and regulations. They therefore neglect the legal requirement of business registration with established and authorized agencies.

The Informal Economy engages business operations lacking its ambience within the legal framework and formal configuration (ILO, 2002). Schneider et al. (2010) was of the opinion that majority of the businesses currently recognized in the formal sector (and now pay taxes) originally began in the informal economy having experienced series of growth and expansion. However, reverse is the case in some nations with fast paced growth in the informal economy when compared with the formal sector of the economy. This resulted from the IE flexibility, structure, low entry level and ease of operation (Ibadin and Eiya, 2013; Ilaboya, 2012) as opposed to the high unemployment rate and poor performance of the formal sector in Nigeria (Olaoye et al., 2009; Ohaka and Zukbee, 2015), the IE has thus served as a mode of survival as people now engage in small scale business activities (Ademu, 2006; Oko and Omini, 2014), including a large number of people employed in the formal sector (Igbeng et al., 2012; Umoru and Anyiwe, 2013). The informal economy includes: hawking, events planning business, make-up artists, roadside food vendors, cab operators, small scale farming, and couture.

Evidently, majority of the economy has diversified into the uneasy to tax informal economy because of the ease and fluidity of operating them. The Small and Medium Scale Enterprises Development Agency of Nigeria (SMEDAN) study discovered that 80% of businesses operate within the Micro, Small and Medium-size Enterprises (MSMEs) which submits that 75% of Nigerians are actively employed. According to Adesanya (2014), Micro Enterprises comprise of 98% of the Micro, Small and Medium-size Enterprises.

However, 1% of each of these Micro Enterprises is associated to SMEs. Although, the reasonability of categorizing these businesses as formal economy would have been easily actualized, but due to lack of regulation, unrefined and malformed nature of the informal economy, this feat has remained imaginary. Among various challenges experienced in the Nigerian e-taxation system includes the plagues of interrupted internet access, interrupted power supply basically recognized by the FIRS as the primary challenges of e-filing especially in rural areas where majority of a large number of the prospective taxpayers reside and work with difficult terrain and pay no tax at all on their earnings. Although, a few others who are identified under direct assessment and minimum tax payers on some earnings but failed to declare other additional sources of income majorly classified and recognized as an informal economy and classified as Personal Income Tax.

Previous studies have revealed that of all the taxes, personal income tax has remained the most disappointing, non-performing, unsatisfactory and problematic in Nigeria tax system (Asade, 2005; Kiabel and Nwokah, 2009; Nzetta, 2007). A large number of these personal income earners reside and work in the rural areas. The peculiar nature of rural communities require that government should be up and doing in providing for public good and infrastructure in this area. In the Nigerian context, rural communities are characterized by poor infrastructure development, bad road networks and neglect in the provision of basic amenities including basically pipe-borne water, electricity, schools and health care services. As observed by Schneider and Klinglmair (2004); and Schnider et al (2010), in many developing economies (Nigeria inclusive), the informal sector contributes a large proportion of revenue which represents significant source of growing share of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Due to the dwindling oil revenue arising from the fall in oil prices across the globe and the weak value of Naira, the Nigerian economy has been subjected to an unstable state, the view of taxing the informal sector firms may therefore become necessary in sustaining tax morale and compliance among larger entities (Almet et al., 2013; Torgler 2003). Thus, the need to study the likely challenges threatening the migration of electronic tax system in the informal sector becomes important and relevant. The non-availability of database of taxable individuals is one major challenge confronting the implementation of e-tax system in informal economic sector of rural areas. This is due to non-registration of businesses in the informal economy in a bid to avoid tax. This is made possible by the untraceable, unregulated and unstructured nature of the informal economy. This poses an obstacle for relevant tax authority in obtaining a database for assessment as it must first establish the residence of the taxpayers. Informal sector operatives are those persons who blatantly refused to pay tax and reporting losses every year (Kiabel and Nwokah, 2009).

Poor internet/ cellular connectivity and high rate of cyber fraud are other impediments confronting the implementation of electronic tax collection in the informal sector. Owners of businesses would rather choose to collect real cash before customers leave with their purchased items. This results from lack of reliability of the internet and cellular networks in providing quality on online payment platforms leaving traders with the uneasiness of contacting (at their own cost) their commercial institution(s) for payment confirmation, while waiting days before payment is eventually effected. Also, high rate of cyber crime, fraudulent activities and distrust in online payment platforms originating from day to day cyber fraud methods of operation. These challenges have incapacitated tax authorities in analyzing the range of business transactions and detecting the magnitude of

businesses through electronic payments which could have provided a concrete basis of evidence for account auditing. Tax authorities are faced with the difficulty of keeping business transactions audit trail in the informal economy due to lack of online payment and poor accounting.

The first phase and requirement towards e-taxation is the registration phase which is undoubtedly made possible by the existence of IT system. The challenge of inadequate and unreliable power (electricity) supply has restricted MSMEs especially in rural settlements from registering into the e-tax system due to the need for electricity in operating the IT system. The lack of power supply coupled with insecurity and inadequate infrastructural amenities which are the needs of the people are left unattended to majorly at the rural economy. Business owners and employees are therefore left with the sole responsibility of meeting these needs; in most cases avoid tax payment. They argue that they see no justification to pay their tax when the government has equally failed to provide infrastructural amenities. The rural business owners simply believe tax payment is unbeneficial and they are thus discouraged from the payment of taxes. Furthermore, the unawareness of existing e-taxation system due to the limited access of the rural settlers to adequate and timely information. Majority of rural business owners are still left in the dark, while some are misinformed on the benefits of e-taxation by fellow local dwellers and corruptible tax officials. This challenge restricts them to continuing in the primitive manual taxation system on one hand. On the other hand, some business owners in rural economy are ignorant and remained uneducated on the benefits of regular tax payment to the government and the community at large.

IT illiteracy is another major factor challenging the development of e-taxation in rural communities. Majority of rural business owners are not exposed to the proper operation of technological devices. This causes a blockage in their advancement into the application of an automated mode of tax payment. Setting up of e-tax registration and e-payment centers in these communities would have provided a lasting solution to this challenge, unfortunately, another impending block is the fear of insecurity of taxpayers' data. Tax payers are afraid to release their data details as these details can be used to access other online payment platforms, taxpayers account information, funds and consequentially become victims of cyber fraud. Therefore, taxpayers would rather embrace and continue with the manual tax system. In addition, the cost of initiation of e-taxation is very high and this can discourage or delay its initiation in rural communities. This challenge is further fostered by the inadequate existence of technological structures which could ease and aid speedy implementation.

In conclusion, e-taxation is an indispensable and effective tool for transforming tax administration and fostering national development. Although faced with varieties of challenges, the positive attributes of e-taxation overshadows the negative challenges confronting its implementation.

Submission and policy options

Tax has served as a contributor to countries Gross Development Product, states IGR, and also poses as a veritable tool for economic development and economic sustainability. However, much focus has been placed on the implementation of tax policies majorly on the organized, easy to access and easy to tax formal sector of the economy.

Consequentially, and as exposed by recent researches, the informal economy is vast and fast growing; motivated by its flourishing, unorganized, easy to run and difficult to tax nature in developing countries, with little attention and concern to its keen capability of contributing to the country's economy in a noticeable extent. The informal economy, although located in cities and rural economies, several obstacles have been encountered in its administration and implementation of tax policies, especially with the transition from manual tax system to the electronic/technological tax system. The challenge of implementing the new e-tax system is however predominant within the rural economies primarily due to lack of existing tech-friendly structures. This study therefore proposed the following recommendations with an effort towards tackling the implementation challenges of e-taxation in the informal sector with special focus on the rural economies.

In point of fact, tax authorities such as the SMEDAN, the government or newly established agency/agencies on tax matters should be saddled with the responsibilities of investigating the activities of MSMEs in Nigeria with the purpose of capturing and registering tax payers in the informal sector into the tax net as well as ensuring their data base are accurate and up to date. This will help increase government's accessibility of tax payers in the informal economy and subsequently promote seamless taxation among SMEs and improve the nation's GDP. The government should endeavor to improve on the provision of social amenities and engage in empowerment plans that are beneficial to everyone. This factor will bring relief to the peoples' financial burden as they will need not to solely incur the costs of power, security, expensive health care, inaccessible educational policies. Also, they will be encouraged to pay their taxes voluntarily as they will feel more cared for by the government, as they can see what they have paid for being put in place and adequately functioning for their convenience.

Furthermore, an upgrade of data management systems and security of tax payers' data will help increase the ease of e-registration, e-filing, e-payment and e-refund. This can be achieved via the implementation of reliable internet/cellular connectivity, and taking advantage of the modern cyber security methods to address security challenges on the online platforms that will help build taxpayers confidence in the e-taxation system. In addition, several devices (e.g. IOS, Android, Microsoft) compatible platforms should be put in place and easily accessible by tax payers. These platforms will create a room for the submission of complaints and get communicated by tax authorities. These platforms can also help in reminding tax payers of their tax payment due dates. Public establishments and mediums such as radio, TV, adverts in different dialects aimed at creating awareness on the new e-taxation system, the benefits of paying taxes, tax laws and sanctions for tax evasion and avoidance should be put in place.

The recommendations stated above re-emphasized the position of Efunboade (2014) stated that the introduction of tax week, filing tax returns, tax counseling, establishing tax electronic management system, regular auditing and examination, penalty provisions, tax education are capable of improving the satisfactory level of revenue in developing countries through self-assessment. Similarly, Okello, (2014) identified education, provision of service oriented attitude, enacting stringent deterrents to non-compliance, regular auditing and transparency on the part of government and tax authority will enhance voluntary compliance capable of improving revenue generation. Finally, the mixed method of integrating manual tax system and e-taxation should be applied in the tax

administration scheme so as to provide tax payers with a backup plan for manual filing in the event of glitches in the electronic taxation system.

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THE GREAT CHALLENGE OF THE 21ST CENTURY – POVERTY ERADICATION ACROSS THE WORLD

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Abstract *Poverty is currently caused by various economic and political factors. Despite the remarkable technological advances that have taken place in recent years, living conditions have not improved for everyone, neither in the north nor in the south of the world. Poverty eradication is a problem that has persisted for many years. The study followed the magnitude, severity, severity of this phenomenon, in order to determine the factors that influence the spread of poverty and identification of poor populations.*

Keywords: *poverty, challenge, economy, world, social.*

Introduction

Poverty is a complex social problem which by its nature directly affects other elements from the economy, such as culture, education, health. Reduced incomes at the level of a community means in fact limited access to various services and lack of some essential things, such as water, roads, transportation and communication. "The poverty spirit" at the level of a community entails the feeling of despair, lack of hope, apathy and even shyness. Modern definitions treat poverty as a complex, multidimensional phenomenon, which involve taking into consideration some aspects of life conditions which are not sufficient or are not at all mentioned by the synthetic indicators of revenues or expenses. Poverty does not involve though only this economic constitutive part, together with the material resources appearing the cultural and social ones involved in satisfying fundamental human needs. The poverty condition can be evaluated depending on the people's possibility to take part to the life of society, to function as its members.

We can define poverty as a human condition characterised by the sustained or chronic lack of resources, capacities, choices, security and power necessary to enjoy an adequate living standard and other civil, cultural, economic, political and social rights, in other words, in a simpler way, we could say that poverty is the deprivation of conditions necessary to have access to a dignified life.

Types of Poverty

Absolute poverty when people cannot get the necessary resources (measured in terms of calories or nutritional values), in order to have a minimum level of physical health. When we talk about absolute poverty, this term has the same connotation around the world. As it has been proved, absolute poverty can be eradicated.

Relative poverty when a part of the population does not enjoy the minimum living standard, defined by a government, where most of the population fits in. This minimum living standard varies from one country to another, sometimes even between the regions of the same country. Thus, the notion of poverty can be defined in several ways, depending on the chosen analysis perspective. This perspective is defined by the place, time, general level of community development brought to the attention and even by the theoretical and practical objectives of the analyst. Some think that all people can easily find a way out of poverty through work or ambition. Nevertheless, what statistics show is the fact that the people that were born in poverty are more predisposed to remain poor, even if they would work and try to overcome this condition. If the economic system, that is the poverty cycle, is against them, most of them will not be able to find a way out of poverty.

Poverty is present all around the world but under different forms. Experts state that this phenomenon is increasing and that under the conditions of the present global economy it can never be eradicated. Nowadays, much too many people, of all ages, live in poverty and very many families depend only on a single source of income, not being too far of this dramatic situation. For centuries science has been developing and poverty has been and still is. When classical economy began to develop in the 18th century, scientific concepts appeared which suggested that, following the development of market economy, economic prosperity would grow and the inequality of incomes would decrease, in the international zone.

Unfortunately, 200 years passed and the diversification of incomes increased, but the extent of poverty in many countries is increasing. Poverty is nowadays caused by various economic and political factors. In spite of remarkable technological progress which took place in the last years, the living conditions did not improve for everyone, neither in the north nor in the south of the world. If we want to understand some aspects of the social phenomenon of poverty which includes nowadays billions of people around the world (in Asia, Africa, North America, Latin America and Europe), we must think that this global phenomenon is directly related to the degree of economic development of the various countries, the corruption present at different political and economic levels, as well as to the real expression of the lack of interest of some administrations to ensure the current needs of the population.

Poverty eradication is a problem which has lasted for several years, but which has never been solved, because this thing is inevitably against other interests. UNO estimates that at the end of the century the world population will increase with 4 billion. People could be threatened by famine, war and epidemics. But experts are not only pessimistic about the future. In densely-populated areas, people's health is threatened. Epidemics may spread faster, and the population grows especially in the developing countries, where even nowadays people can hardly meet their daily basic needs. The present crisis of refugees is generated, mainly, by war, violence and bad governance. The increase of population does not cause the increase of refugees. According to several studies, nevertheless there is a

relation between the population increase and the increase of armed conflicts. The decrease of resources could lead to increasing violent confrontations.

The more people live on earth, the more they use present resources. People already use more than half of world's renewable resources. And the pressure on natural resources will continue as the population increases. Overpopulation creates a higher demand for world's water supply. Because only about 1% of the world's water reserve is fresh and accessible, this fact creates a major problem. Some estimations state that the human demand of fresh water will increase to about 70% of what is available on the planet till 2025. This fact puts the people living in poor areas which already have limited access to this kind of water at a great risk.

The increase of the population involves in fact a higher use of natural resources, an increase in using the land for urbanization and, not the last, an increased pollution of the environment. This tendency of demographic growth will have direct consequences on the environment by the use of resources whose regeneration is much slower compared to the population increase. If we consider the population growth in an optimistic way, it can be stated that overpopulation means the increase of human resources. The increase of people means the increase of productive hands and creative minds. But, we cannot ignore the fact that, the increase of producers involves the increase of consumers. More people demand more resources.

Health and poverty are indissolubly related, poverty influencing health and health influencing the economic welfare. A better health brings its contribution to a higher productivity in all life stages. Global economic and health crises generated a sudden reduction of private financial flows towards developing economies. All the studies which have been lately published suggest that the COVID-19 pandemic brought an economic recession and, unfortunately, the effects can be seen: companies start to have difficulties in carrying out contracts, some had to send their employees in technical unemployment and, the worst, some decided to close their activity. The global impact of the financial crisis caused by the pandemic showed us that the economic realities evolve more rapidly than the political ones. We have to accept that the stronger economic interdependence demands at the same time a more resolute and more coherent answer at political level. However, the speed and capacity to recover varies to a great extent, depending on region, access to medical interventions, effectiveness of political support, country exposure – the losses and the structural characteristics of the countries which enter the crisis. Although it is projected that China will continue its fast growth in 2021, Latin America and eurozone are left behind.

Crisis increased the tension between protecting global common goods and eradicating extreme poverty. What we experienced during the present pandemic is an unprecedented situation, with characteristics specific to the World War. The younger generations who heard about the Second World War only from their parents and grandparents stories, books, movies and documentaries, will register in their memories the present situation as a modern form of a new world war. Also, we witnessed an unprecedented growth of public debts during the pandemic. In order to limit economic damages on long term and to support recovery, governments chose to a great extent to apply expansionist fiscal policies, thus creating budgetary deficits and increasing public debt. In 2013, only 23% out of 69 countries with low incomes analysed by IMF were in

”debt difficulty” or ”with the risk of being in debt difficulty”; the percent increased to 50% in 2019 and probably in 2021 it will reach two thirds.

Pandemic destroyed years of progress to eradicate extreme poverty. It is likely to push between 119 and 124 million of people into extreme poverty in 2021, representing the first increase of extreme poverty since 1998. In most of emerging markets and developing countries per capita incomes decreased in 2020, fact which in the case of millions of people meant to go back to poverty. International Monetary Fund (IMF) states that in 2020 the most profound global recession after the Second World War was registered. The present pandemic also generated an economic crisis which stroke the entire social structure, and especially the poor population. The level of population that had low incomes continued to increase vertiginously quickly, the debt level increased having the tendency to evolve into insolvency. The segment of population with a low qualification level, those who depended on temporary and low paying jobs, increased automatically a lot leading to unemployment increase, thus to a deterioration of living conditions. The present sanitary crisis generated a major decrease of jobs, due to which a large part of population lost their jobs, became unable to pay their debts to the banking system, fact which led to an increase of the financial disequilibrium, thus to an increase of poverty level.

Pandemic emphasizes the social, economic and political consequences of the population getting older. The demographic profile of a country will shape the operational burdens and the costs imposed by the pandemic: older societies will confront more severe consequences from the economic point of view and of human losses caused by this disease and, possibly, a slower recovery of the economy. Nations with a dominant young population, which confronts higher unemployment rates and phenomena of economic relocation due to pandemic, present higher risks of social disturbances. Up to 60 million people will be pushed into ”extreme poverty” by the coronavirus, warns us the president of World Bank, cited by BBC. ”Millions of livelihoods have been destroyed and healthcare systems are under strain worldwide”, said Malpass. ”Our estimation is that up to 60 million of people will be pushed into extreme poverty, erasing all efforts over the past three years to alleviate poverty”.

COVID-19 crisis increased the poverty phenomenon in Romania too, by increasing the number of people – those already affected were joined by the ones who lost their source of income, the ones who spent their reserves in the isolation period and the ones who came back from another EU states, as well as in a profound manner, the people previously living in poor conditions being even more vulnerable. It is forecasted that global extreme poverty will increase in 2021 for the first time in the last 20 years.

Conclusions

Poverty as a social problem is a wound with deep roots which affects each dimension of culture and society. Poverty at the level of the 21st century is due especially to the population increase. In densely-populated areas, people’s health is threatened. Epidemics may spread faster, and the population grows especially in the developing countries, where even nowadays people can hardly meet their daily basic needs. The increase of the population involves in fact a higher use of natural resources, an increased pollution of the environment and changes in using lands, such as urbanization. Changes in global demographic tendencies will have direct consequences on the local environment

through climate change and consumption of resources. Taking into account that there is a fixed quantity of land, the increase in population will finally reduce the quantity of resources each individual can use, leading to disease, famine and war. Also, COVID-19 pandemic represents till now the most current challenge of the 21st century, already causing losses of jobs and bankruptcy, the poorer countries being the most affected.

Poverty eradication is a problem which has persisted for several years, but which has never been solved, because this fact it is inevitably against other interests, which will be harder to solve following this pandemic. Before pandemic, especially due to global conflicts and climate changes, progress in reducing global poverty has already been slower. Pandemic emphasizes the social, economic and political consequences of the population getting older. The demographic profile of a country will shape the operational burdens and the costs imposed by the pandemic: older societies will confront more severe consequences from the economic point of view and of human losses caused by this disease and, possibly, a slower recovery of the economy. It is forecasted that global extreme poverty will increase in 2021 for the first time in the last 20 years, because COVID-19 pandemic increases the force of conflicts and influence development which already slowed down the progress in poverty eradication.

In our opinion, population increase is one of the problems the developing countries face, fact which makes extremely difficult to improve the increase of the living standard for all the inhabitants of those countries. Other problems are the bad governance structure, corruption at all levels, a wrong model of economic development, lack of natural resources or excessive exploitation, among others. The increase of human population around the world affects all people through their impact on the economy and the environment. The problem is increased by the difficulty to offer solutions for this problem and by the misunderstanding of overpopulation causes and effects. Also, the problems related to poverty will be left behind, being interrupted by the concerns of governors to solve the problems related to eradicating virus evolution. If till now the progress in global poverty eradication has been already slower, well, unfortunately, in the following years, the concern regarding poor people will stagnate.

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KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT AND ITS IMPORTANCE IN MODERN ORGANIZATIONS

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Abstract: With the current economic trend, every organization want to successfully implement business strategies, achieve their business objectives, optimize the use of human resources and gain competitive advantage. Knowledge management is critical for an organization to properly utilize it resources and create a sustainable competitive edge. It is against this backdrop that this paper examined the importance of Knowledge management in modern organizations. This paper relies on secondary data and utilizes the content analysis for interpretation of collected data. This paper concludes that quality efficiency and effectiveness in performance cannot happen if employees are not developed. Today organizations compete on the basis of knowledge since products and services are increasingly complex. This is why the requirement for a life-long learning has become an unavoidable reality.

Keywords: Knowledge management, competitive advantage, Success factors, performance

Introduction

Knowledge management is concerned with the entire process of discovering and the creation of knowledge, dissemination of knowledge and the utilization of knowledge. Knowledge management principles recognize that it is important for organizations “to know what they know”. All businesses inherently store, access and deliver knowledge in some specific manners. Knowledge is required in other to enjoy an outstanding competitive advantage. Awan and Jabbar (2015), Ahmed and Mohamed (2017) stated that proper knowledge management improves the performance of organizations whether it is public or private. They also emphasized that the retention and proper training of employees not only improve their skills but also build up confidence in them. The creation of knowledge is essential for the survival of any organization. Knowledge is an activity that happens throughout daily work activities and this is required for their survival in a competitive market. These could be by formal training or talking with those who share similar interests or by technical mechanism such as data mining activities. Knowledge creation is primarily a human process where technology can facilitate knowledge creation but cannot replace people and hence their continuous development and improvement. Therefore, it is logical to conclude that the ability to create knowledge and generate a competitive advantage is essential for any organization that wishes to remain relevant and be able to achieve wider

market share that is sustainable as this will in turn produce excellent performance. Performance involves a complex series of actions that integrate skills and Ahmad knowledge to produce valuable results. Examples include designing, selling, production, playing a sport and other activities involved in solving a problem. In some instances, the performer could be an individual, a collection of people who are collaborating such as an academic department, research team and student's team. Performance is a journey and not a destination. Different locations in the journey provides for different levels of performance. Each level defines the efficiency, quality and effectiveness of performance (Akram & Hilman, 2018; Onyango, 2018). This paper therefore examined the importance of Knowledge management in modern organizations.

The concept of knowledge

Knowledge is the insight, understanding and practical know-how that we all possess. It is the fundamental resource that allows us to function intelligently (Odiri, 2014). From the above definitions, it is clear that knowledge is an invisible or intangible asset. Its acquisition involves complex cognitive processes of perception, learning, communication, association and reasoning (Akinyemi, 2007). Davenport and Prusak (2005) affirmed that knowledge is derived from information and information is obtained from data. They posited that information is changed into knowledge by a process of comparison, connections (by understanding relations), and conversation (to uncover what others think about the same information) and results (how information affects decisions). This is stored in the form of organizational processes, know-how, policy manuals, customer, best practices, management information system (MIS), culture and norms. Therefore, knowledge is the whole body of cognition and skill which individuals use to solve problems. It includes theories, practices, everyday rules and instructions for action. Knowledge is based on data and information and always bound to persons. It is constructed by individuals and represents their beliefs about causal relationship (Aygul & Bahtisen, 2017).

This definition agrees with the opinion of other writers such as Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) and ou-yang (2014:6) who saw "knowledge as a process that involves human action, noting that knowledge is both complex and multifaceted". Bladder (1995) as cited in Armstrong (2006:16) viewed it as being "situated and abstract, implicit and explicit, distributed and individual, physical and mental, developing and static, verbal and encoded". He therefore categorized forms of knowledge as embedded in technologies, rules and organizational procedures, uncultured as collective understanding. Others include values and beliefs, embodied into practical activity-based competencies and skills of key members of the organization (i.e. practical knowledge or know-how) embraced as the conceptual understanding and cognitive skills of key members (conceptual know-how or knowledge). Following Nonaka's (1991) view that knowledge is held either by individuals or on a collective basis, Bladder also added that embodied or embraced knowledge is individual while embedded and cultural knowledge is collective (Akinyemi, 2007). According to Drucker (1989), knowledge is information that changes something or somebody either by becoming grounds for actions or by making an individual (or an institution) capable of performing different or more effective action. Considering the definitions so far, a cursory look at the concept of knowledge shows that it is reflected in

the form of ideas, judgments, talents, root causes, relationships perspective and concepts. It is stored in the individual brain or encoded in organizational processes, documents, products, services, facilities and systems (Grey, 2002).

Current Approaches to the Study of Knowledge Management

There are of course many ways to slice-up the multi-faceted world of knowledge management. The approaches vary by author and school. Despite this difference, knowledge management can be viewed from each of the following perspectives:

- Techno-Centric- A focus on technology, ideally those that enhance knowledge sharing/growth.
- Organizational - This has to do with "how does the organization need to be designed in order to facilitate knowledge processes which organizations work best with what processes."
- Ecological - Seeing the interaction of people, identity, knowledge and environmental factors as a complex adaptive system.

However, Popov and Vlasov (2014: 813) "identified two broad tracks of knowledge management and these include management of information and management of people. Management of information to researchers regard knowledge as being equal to objects that can be identified and handled in information systems while management of people as seen by researchers and practitioners in the field consist of processes, a complex set of dynamic skills, know-how, that is constantly changing. A critical look at this categorization tends to suggest that its characterization is tilted more on target and did not capture the full flavor of the important distinction in approaches to organizational knowledge management". This led to a three-part categorization of "Knowledge Praxis" as follows:

- Mechanistic approach to knowledge management;
- Cultural/behaviorists approach to knowledge management; and
- The Systematic approach to knowledge management.

Mechanistic Approach to Knowledge Management

"Mechanistic approaches to knowledge management are characterized by the application of technology and resources to do more of the same job in a better way. The main assumptions of this approach include:

- Better accessibility to information is a key for enhanced methods of access and reuse of documents (hypertext linking, database, full-text search, etc).
- Networking, technology in general (especially intranets), and groupware in particular, will be key solutions.

In general, technology and share volume of information will make it work" (sayed, 2015: 167).

Cultural/Behaviorist Approach to Knowledge Management

The cultural/behaviorist approach with substantial roots in process re-engineering and change management tend to view knowledge problem as a management issue. "This approach tends to focus more on innovation and creativity (the learning organization) than

on leveraging existing explicit resources or making working knowledge explicit. The basic assumptions of this approach are:

- Organizational behaviour and cultures need to be changed dramatically. In an information intensive environment, organizations become dysfunctional relative to business objectives.
- Organizational behaviours and culture can be changed but traditional technology and methods of attempting to solve the knowledge problem have reached their limits of effectiveness. A hostile view is therefore required. In this case, theories of behavior of large-scale systems are often invoked.
- It is the processes that matter not the technology.
- Nothing happens or changes unless a manager makes it to happen” (Wang, Noe & Wang, 2016: 978).

Systematic Approach to Knowledge Management

The systematic approach to knowledge management retains the traditional faith in rational analysis of the knowledge problem. It presupposes that the problem can be solved, but new thinking of many kinds is required (Davenport & Klahr, 1999). Its basic assumptions include the following:

- It is the sustainable results that matter and not the processes or technology or even the definitions of the term knowledge.
- A resource cannot be managed unless it is modeled and many aspects of the organization knowledge can be modeled as an explicit resource.
- Solutions can be found in a variety of disciplines and technologies and traditional methods of analysis can be used to re-examine the nature of knowledge work and to solve the knowledge problems.
- Cultural issues are important but they too must be evaluated systematically. Employees may or may not have to be 'changed but policies and work practices must certainly be changed and technology can be applied successfully to business knowledge problems themselves (Daft, 2012).
- Knowledge management has an important component, but it is not an activity or discipline that belongs exclusively to managers (Bergeron, 2003).

A critical look at these three approaches identified above reveals the following: The Mechanistic approach to knowledge management appears relatively easy to implement for corporate political reasons because the technologies and techniques (although sometimes advanced in particular areas) are familiar and easily understood. It makes some good sense, because it enhances access to corporate intellectual assets. But this approach is simply not clear about whether access itself will have a substantial impact on business performance especially as mountains of new information are placed on line, Unless the knowledge management approach incorporates methods of leveraging cumulative experience, the net result may not be positive and the impact of implementation may not be measurable than traditional models (Gao, Li & Nakamori, 2008). Regarding the cultural/behaviourist approach to knowledge management, the cultural factors that may affect organizational change have almost certainly be undervalued and cultural/behaviourist implementations have shown some traits of benefits. But the cause-effect relationship between cultural strategy and business benefits is not clear because the

"Hawthorne Effect" may come into play and because we still cannot make dependable predictions about a system as complex as knowledge, positive results achieved by cultural/behaviorist strategies may not be sustainable, measurable, cumulative or replicable.

Finally, an assessment of the systematic approach to knowledge management reveals that unrepentant rationalists in the business world are taking a systematic approach to solving the knowledge problem. A closer look will also reveal evidence of such approaches as well as less formal use of the term 'systematic knowledge management'. Systematic approach is the most promising for positive cumulative impact, measurability and sustainability (Holsapple & Wu, 2011: 274). Considering the various approaches to the study of knowledge management, it is evident that the discipline is growing. There is an increasing presence of academic debates within epistemology, emerging in both theory and practice. United Kingdom and Australian Standard Bodies have both produced documents that attempt to bind and scope the field but these have all received limited acceptance or awareness (Lekhanath & Santosh, 2017: 87). Knowledge management has always existed in one form or another. Examples include on-the-job peer discussions, formal apprenticeship, discussion forums, corporate libraries, professional training and mentoring programmes. However, with computers becoming more widespread from the second half of the 20th Century, specific adaptations of technology such as knowledge base, expert systems, and knowledge repositories have been introduced to further enhance the process.

The Importance of Knowledge Management (KM)

Ibrahim and Reig (2009) postulated that knowledge management is critical for an organization to create a sustainable competitive advantage. They added that knowledge management initiatives help to improve business processes. Organizations can reduce business processing time simply because they can also provide best practices. Business processes can also be improved upon through conversations and discussions. These can generate valuable knowledge forecast saving and cost reduction. In their views they concluded that "knowledge management activities can improve organization's operational activities. This could happen in a variety of ways such as reducing the design cycle time, lead time and cost reduction time. Others include product to market and product quality improvement. If information is the currency of knowledge economy, human enterprise therefore is the bank where it is kept, invested and exchanged to create the right value for the economy. Factors that drive the need for knowledge management include organizational survival, competitive differentiation, globalization effects and aging work force. Considering the management dynamics today, the core of managing knowledge requiring utmost focus for work activities is information best" (Roy & Sivakumar, 2011: 6). The need for knowledge management is the realization that an organization must manage its knowledge. The business survives on this in today's dynamic and competitive market place. Survival concerns are not limited to profit firms as nonprofit public agencies have all realized the value of knowledge. Desouza (2011) pointed out that without adequate care in how knowledge is managed, organizations will not be operating optimally. This will result in the ineffective and inefficient creation and delivery of products and services. This can lead to dissatisfaction among customers which may influence the demise of the

organization. Conducting knowledge management helps in competitive differentiation. This is because all organizations, whether for profit or non-profit compete within a sector of the economy.

Knowledge management is a critical driver of competitive advantage because it enhances the capacity of organizations to innovate, thereby differentiating itself from its competitors. Organizations that are unable to innovate to a sustainable level will lack the ability continuously to attract new customers. In turn, this will lead to their demise. On the other hand, organizations that are able to innovate will be able to secure and even retain their competitive positions in the market place (Desouza, 2011). Globalization today has also provided the need for knowledge management, as organizations search to find effective tools and methods for acquiring and sharing knowledge over many structural and cultural barriers. This position has created an urgent need for organizations to be able to manage knowledge across countries and continents. The aging workforce brings to light how knowledge will leave the organization. This requires that the intellectual capital (HRM) be captured. This is to ensure that the work environment is not under threat by reinventing knowledge. Epetimehin and Ekundayo (2011: 11) revealed that “knowledge management efforts help organizations to share valuable organizational insights. This is necessary to reduce redundant work to avoid reinventing the wheel, to training time for employees”. This will lead to the adaptation to changing environment and markets.

Steps in Creating Knowledge Management Strategy for an Organization

With the need for proper knowledge management in an organization, the desire to create a knowledge management strategy cannot be ignored. In the process of trying to create a knowledge management strategy for an organization, five major steps are clearly itemized and explained below:

Identification of the knowledge to be systematically managed by the organization

This is the first step in creating knowledge management strategy by the organization. The most important aspect of this knowledge is that it is of high value, that is, the knowledge that is expensive to create. Considering this aspect, it is not surprising that the national laboratories of the United States Department of Energy (DOE) would be one of the first places where comprehensive management efforts was initiated (Salisbury & Plass, 2001). In addition, this high value knowledge unit should also be the same knowledge that makes up the "core competency" of the organization. For example, the knowledge identified for management by the DOE laboratories by Salisbury and Plass (2001) makes up their core processes. Any knowledge that is not directly related to the core competency of the organization can be outsourced. That is, it can be purchased from an outside supplier. All other knowledge that makes up the core competency of the organization should be explicitly managed by the organization. To develop a strategy to manage this knowledge, we revisit the business strategy for the organization, identify the performance gap between the current workflow and the work flow required to achieve the business strategy for the organization, modify the current workflow to achieve the business strategy, and determine the knowledge transfer needs of the organization to accomplish the work in the modified workflow (Karuoya & Thomas, 2017).

Re-visiting the Vision, Values and Business Strategies of the Organization

Identifying the core competence knowledge of an organization begins by re-visiting the vision, values and business strategies of the organization. If these are not clearly understood, there is urgent need for them to be clarified through some sort of organizational development intervention. The vision and values of the organization drives the business strategy of such business unit. This business strategy automatically becomes the "roadmap" for the resulting knowledge management system since it describes what the organization plans to do and not what it is doing at the moment (Odiri, 2006). This means that a systematic knowledge management solution is not instituted to support work in the organization as it is seen today but to support the organization in achieving its business strategy.

Identifying the Current Workflow process of the Organization

This is considered a very difficult task in the steps involved in creating a knowledge management strategy. To accomplish this difficult task, it is necessary to apply those techniques taken from the area of contextual inquiry, a means to gather computer system requirements by using anthropological field techniques on potential end-users of the system, according to (Beyer & Holtzblatt, 1997). One major fact identified is that work has become so habitual for the people who do it that they often have difficulty articulating exactly what they do and why they do it. To address this issue, Beyer and Holtzblatt employed one-on-one field interviews with end-users in their workplaces to discover what tasks are to be accomplished in their work. As a result of this process the interviewer and the end-users need to create a shared interpretation of that work and how it will be done on an ongoing basis. In addition they used this shared interpretation to create the major processes of a workflow model for the end-users of the system (Odiri, 2014). This model as depicted hereunder shows the major processes of an example of a workflow for an organization.

Workflow Model



Source: Odiri (2014).

Comparing with the Business Strategy of the Organization

After the current workflow of an organization has been created, the next stage is to compare it with the business strategy of the organization. What is done here is to identify the performance and learning gap that may exist between what the organizations is doing and what it plans to do. To close this gap a major re-examination of the current workflow for the organization is carried out thereby creating room for changes to the workflow (Odiri, 2014). Old processes may need to be removed or new ones added to modify the workflow so that the planned business strategy can be fully achieved.

Determining the Knowledge Transfer Needs through the development of a Knowledge Management Strategy

The next and final step in creating knowledge management strategy for an organization is the determination of the knowledge transfer needs through the development of a knowledge management strategy. This means determining the knowledge transfer needs for the organizations that are required to achieve the business strategy. This, in simple language refers to the percentage of practitioners and experts that will use the system in future (Odiri, 2014). For example, if traditionally, there is a high level of turnover in the organization, and then there will be need to support the novices. Also, if the organization has as part of its business strategy to retain and support the skill development of its more experienced members (Practitioners), then the resulting system should provide access to more procedural knowledge through example procedures. In a similar vein, if the organization's business strategy includes leveraging the expertise of its longtime members (experts) then the resulting system should provide these members with opportunities to share their meta cognitive knowledge through adding expertise to the decision support resources (Seyed, 2017).

Success Factors Supporting Knowledge Managements

Okunoye (2002: 20) has provided “knowledge management enablers (or inflowing factors) as organizational mechanisms for intentionally and consistently fostering knowledge. These enablers are management leadership and support, information technology, strategy and purpose measurement, organizational infrastructure processes activities, motivational aids, training and education human resources management. Management leadership and support is vital to the success of knowledge management. They are important in acting as models to exemplify the desired behaviour for knowledge management. To do this requires a willingness to share and offer their knowledge freely within others in the organization”. In addition, there has to be a continuous learning and to search for new knowledge and ideas, they are to model their behaviours and actions. The supporting factors include:

Organizational Culture

Salman and Sumaiya (2017: 38) defines culture as “the core benefits; values, normal, and social customs that govern the way individuals act and behave in an organization. Culture is supportive of knowledge management because it is one that highly values knowledge and encourages its creation, sharing and application. Knowledge sharing and transfer requires individuals to come together to interact, exchange ideas and share knowledge with one another”. Beyond that there is also the need for innovative culture in which individuals are constantly encouraged to generate new ideas, knowledge and solution and openness should be demonstrated by the leadership to ensure trust.

Information Technology (I.T)

IT pushes towards rapid research, access and retrieval of information and can support the collaborative and communication between organizational members. It should be noted that knowledge – based collaboration, content and document management portals customer relationship management, data mining, workflow search and e-learning are

important factors that need to be considered in the development of a knowledge management system to include its simplicity of technology care of content and standardization of knowledge structure and ontology (Wong, 2005 cited in Salman and sumaiya, 2017: 40).

Organizational Infrastructure

To develop an appropriate organizational structure requires the establishment of roles and teams to perform knowledge related task. Among these roles is one of the chief knowledge officers (CKO) (Valmohammadi & Ahmadi, 2015: 135). He or she is to coordinate, manage and set the cause for knowledge management.

Processes and Activities

This refers to something that can be done with knowledge in the organization. To this end, Valmohammadi & Ahmadi, (2015:137) identified four main processes as creation, storage/retrieval, transfer and application. The survival of these components would depend largely on appropriate intervention and mechanisms to be put in place to address them. By incorporating employees into the process, knowledge sharing, technological networking tools could be supplemented with face to face discussion as this can provide a richer medium for transferring knowledge.

Measurement

Measurement acts as a data collection system that gives useful information about a particular situation or activity. Measurement is needed to demonstrate the value and worth of a knowledge management initiative to management and stakeholders. This is because without such evidence and confidence from top management to sustain it, it will diminish (Wong, 2005 cited in Salman and sumaiya, 2017: 40).

Motivation Aids

This has to do with the development of a grassroots desire amongst employees to tap into their company's intellectual resources. If individuals are not motivated to practice knowledge management, no amount of investment, infrastructure and technological intervention will make it effective. Therefore the right incentive, rewards or motivational aids are required to encourage people to share and apply knowledge. This will help to stimulate and reinforce the positive behaviours and culture needed for effective knowledge management. Linking rewards solely to individual performance on outcomes which can result in competition will certainly be detrimental to knowledge sharing culture (Hayat & Riat, 2011: 473).

Strategy and Purpose

Strategy and purpose provides the foundation for an organization to deploy its capabilities and resources to achieve its knowledge management goals. This can only happen only if management is to support an imperative business issue of the organization. This perspective seems to be in agreement within the literature that it has to be linked or integrated with the enterprise business strategy (Valmohammadi & Ahmadi, 2015: 135). It is also essential that employees support this vision and believe that it will work alongside

clear objectives, purposes and goals properly put in place, towards a knowledge management effort.

Training and Education

Training and education is required for employees to make them have a better understanding of the concept of knowledge management. Employees could be trained and educated in using the knowledge management system and other technological tools for managing knowledge. To this end, there will be the full utilization of the potential and capabilities offered by these tools. From training, individuals are able to understand their new roles for performing knowledge related tasks. Equally important, is to equip them with the skills to foster creativity innovation and knowledge sharing. Horat cited in Hayat & Riat (2011: 473) suggests that for effective knowledge management, skills development should occur in the following areas; communication, soft networking, peer learning team building, collaboration, and creative thinking.

Resources

The proper implementation of knowledge management requires resources. This is because financial support is inevitably needed if an investment in a technological system is to be made, for example human resources are needed to co-ordinate and manage the implementation processes as well as to take up knowledge – related roles. Time is needed by organizations for their employees to perform knowledge management activities such as knowledge sharing (Hayat & Riat, 2011: 475).

Areas of Application of Knowledge Management in Organizations

Some basic questions as to which area of an organization can knowledge management is applied tend to agitate the minds of many top managers of businesses. From researches carried out, it has been discovered that applications of knowledge management in organizations typically fall into the following broad categories.

Knowledge database and repositories (explicit knowledge) - storing information and documents that can be shared and re-used e.g. client presentations, competitors intelligence, customers data, marketing materials, minutes of meetings, policy document, price lists, product specifications, project proposals, research reports, training packs (Thomas & Bizer, 2013).

Knowledge route maps and directories (tacit and explicit knowledge) - pointing to people, document, collections and datasets that can be consulted e.g. yellow pages, export locators containing curriculum vitae, competency profiles and research interests.

Knowledge networks and discussions (Tacit knowledge) - providing opportunities for face-to-face contacts and electronic interaction, e.g. establishing chat facilities/talk rooms, fostering learning, group and holding "best practice" sessions. These above mentioned can be easily found in all sectors of business and industry especially among processional service organizations and manufacturing concerns inclusive (Shih, Chang & Lin, 2010: 76).

Objectives and Successes of Knowledge Management

Being a fairly new research area, opinions about the paths, method and even the objective of knowledge management vary. Many theorists such as Sanchez (1997), Grant (2006) and Cohen (2008) in their studies agree, however, that knowledge management has two main objectives. These are Efficiency and Innovation. Efficiency means using knowledge to improve productivity by increasing speed or reducing cost. Example of this could be when management consultants to a firm spread its employees' knowledge to others for use in order to save time and come up with better solution for its clients. Innovation on the other hand is concerned with using it to generate new products and services, new businesses and new business processes. Example of this could be when technological firms want to collect and stimulate the knowledge of its employees in order to create new products. Using knowledge for efficiency means deepen the knowledge of the organization to leverage the existing knowledge. While using knowledge for innovation means widen the knowledge of the organization thereby creating new knowledge. To obtain a true learning organization, an organization has to use knowledge for both efficiency and innovation. Knowledge management theorists have however stated that a company has to focus its knowledge management efforts on either enhancing innovation (knowledge for innovation) or on increasing efficiency (knowledge for efficiency) (Hankanson, 2010).

Various researches have shown that companies usually adopt two broad thrusts in applying knowledge management in organizations. These are through the sharing of existing knowledge better (making implicit knowledge more explicit and putting in place to move it more rapidly to where such knowledge is needed) and innovation (making the transition from ideas to commercialization more effective) (Bosua & Venkitachalam, 2013). Hence, knowledge management programmes are seen as having typically one or more of the following activities identified below:

- Appointment of a knowledge leader to promote the agenda and develop framework.
- Creation of knowledge team by bringing people from various disciplines to develop the methods and skills.
- Development of knowledge bases through best practices, expertise directories, market intelligence
- Enterprise intranet portal - a one-stop-shop that gives access to explicit knowledge as well as connections to experts.
- Knowledge centre as focal points for knowledge skills and facilitating knowledge flow.
- Knowledge sharing mechanisms such as facilitated events that encourage greater sharing of knowledge than would normally take place and
- Intellectual asset management which includes methods of identifying and accounting for intellectual capital.

The proper application of those above mentioned knowledge management activities in various organizations have helped such organizations to achieve significant benefits (Seyed, 2015). Some of these organizations that have achieved significant success through knowledge management are as follows:

- Hoffman La Roche - through its Right First Time Programme had reduced the cost and time to achieve regulatory approvals for new drugs,
- Dow Chemical - By focusing on the active management of its patent portfolio have generated over 125 million dollars in revenue from licensing and other ways of exploiting their intangible assets.

- British Petroleum (BP) -By introducing virtual team working using video conferencing have speeded up the solution of critical operations problems.
- Texas Instruments - By sharing best practice between its semiconductor fabrication plants saved the equivalent of investing in a new plant.
- Sandia Assurance - By developing new measures of intellectual capital and goaling their managers on increasing its value have grown revenues much faster than their industry average.
- Hewlett Packard (HP) - By sharing expertise already in the company, but not known to their development teams now bring new products to market much faster than before.

These successes so far recorded are however hinged on the following guidelines according to research. These are what Skyrme (2003) classified as "guidelines for success" and they are as follow:

- There is need to have a knowledge leader or champion. This should be someone who can actually and actively drive the knowledge agenda forward, create enthusiasm and commitment.
- There is need to have "Top Management Support" (Cohen, 2013). This means that there is need to have a Chief Executive Officer (CEO) who recognizes the value of knowledge and who actively supports the knowledge team in its workplace.
- There should be a clear value proposition. This means identification of the link between knowledge and the bottom line business benefits, a new measure of performance and appropriate rewards to delight the organization and customers.
- There should be a compelling vision and architecture which will act as a framework that drives the agenda forward.
- There should be the creation of a culture that supports innovation, learning and knowledge sharing with a reward structure (Cohen, 2013). This is usually supported by appropriate reward mechanisms.
- There should be a technical infrastructure that supports knowledge work. This should span from simple knowledge support tools to intranets, and ultimately to move sophisticated groupware and decision support. Simulation, data mining and good document management also have a role to play here.
- The presence of systematic knowledge processes supported by specialists in information management (librarians) with close partnership between users and providers of information is equally very essential. The biggest and major challenge to successful knowledge management practice in organization has been that of changing the culture from "knowledge is power" to "knowledge sharing is power" Thomas & Bizer (2013).

Other common obstacles identified are:

Finding time - with so many initiatives demanding for attention, it is easy to sideline more challenging issues like knowledge management. However, those organizations that have committed resources and have knowledge champions have achieved outcome that far surpass their level of inputs

Introversion - people are afraid to learn from outsiders or even expose internal operations to customers.

To be focused on detailed process rather than the big picture and the more chaotic process of knowledge creation.

Treating it as one-off project or quick-win. Knowledge management should be viewed as a commitment to the long-term organization's future prosperity.

Seeing knowledge management as individual discipline and 'turf wars'. Knowledge management actually goes beyond the limit of any single function or discipline. Therefore all functions must collaborate with each other.

Finally, it has been observed that organizational recognition and reward systems usually do not sufficiently recognize knowledge contributions. They are linked to traditional financial measures (Skyrme, 2003; Shih, Chang & Lin, 2010).

All these identified challenges are, however, not overcoming. Implementing successful knowledge management requires a systematic change and project management approach. However, it is more than just a project. Over time, knowledge management changes the way that people work so that their individual knowledge is more effectively harnessed for the benefit of all.

Identifiable Strategies that could be employed by Organizations to Manage Knowledge

This has to do with organizations in their day-to-day operational attempting to identify, capture, and then leverage knowledge. Knowledge that is being employed within an organization may not be easily leveraged especially the tacit knowledge. Explicit knowledge by its nature appears easier to leverage than the tacit one. Organizations look onto other organizations to obtain the critical information necessary to remain competitive. Since the basis for the competition in the 1990s and beyond has shifted towards how well knowledge and other intellectual assets are focused on reducing cost, increase speed and meeting customers' needs, it has become quite evident that the mere possession of knowledge is not enough. Concerted effort must be made to identify, tap and use the knowledge that exists within an organization (Skyrme, 2003). According to Toffler, 1990 cited in Cohen (2013: 76), knowledge is considered to be "the source of power and no longer just an adjunct of money and muscle but instead the key element of power". This was again complemented by Ibrahim and Reig (2009: 107) when they said that the economic power of a modern corporation lies in its intellectual and service capability instead of its hard assets. they pointed out that the value of most products and services now depend on "knowledge-based intangibles" such as technical know-how, product design, marketing presentation, understanding customer's personal creativity and innovation (Shih, Chang & Lin, 2010).

As a result of the growing interest in the area of knowledge management as it affects organizations, the American Productivity and Quality Center in a research carried out between 1992 and 1995 came out with six primary strategies which organizations can adopt in the process of addressing their knowledge management needs. They are:

The pursuit of knowledge management as a business strategy: This considers the proper management of knowledge as central to the growth and survival of all organizations. It therefore becomes a matter of necessity that organizations at all times should strive to pursue this strategy. The key issue here is for organizations to identify, tap and use the knowledge that exists both within the organization (employees and all other stakeholders) and outside the organization (Shih, Chang & Lin, 2010).

Transfer of Knowledge and Best practice: This strategy focuses on “the systematic approaches to knowledge re-use and transfer of best practices and knowledge to where organizations can use them to improve on their operation or include them in their product and services. The design is comprised of systems and priorities to obtain, organize, repackage and distribute knowledge within the organization. In this strategy, knowledge sharing and transfer of best practice is seen to have great impact on performance hence the need to make knowledge available at points of action in order to realize its value. Also, this strategy emphasizes the importance of team relationship and networks as a basis for effective transfer of knowledge. Since mere documentation of a practice do not itself guarantee knowledge transfer, this strategy emphasized the need for the sharing of knowledge among people informally without capturing it in some-form of "corporate memory" but through structured mechanisms and team approaches. Informal sharing of knowledge can be deep, creative and unexpected while establishing long lasting effective networking” (Shih, Chang & Lin, 2010: 77). Organized knowledge sharing can reach much broader populations with greater value to the organization but may stifle some of the spontaneous and creative aspects of the informal sharing modes. The main approaches of this strategy comprises of:

The Learning Organization Approach: In this approach, the organization learning cycle encompasses data, information, knowledge intelligence, strategy plans, actions and assessments. Here, the organization would use all information to assess gaps, feed data and then make adjustments for the next cycle. It involves transferring the benefits generated by this process from one part of the organization to other parts of the organization (Cohen, 2013).

Networking Approach: This approach also, enables organizations achieve success with the help of intellectual assets team. The team comprised of people from various business units who provide a network for spreading best practices within the organization. This team could comprise the organization's marketing managers, research managers, and others who meet regularly to put together an Intellectual Asset Management portfolio with its analysis. The proper functioning of this team will add credibility to the Intellectual Asset Management function and this represents a powerful means of getting business management to accept ideas (Seyed, 2017).

Practice Centers and Communities of Practice Approach: This involves marketing successful endeavors and encouraging more participation and result. As the practice centers grow, they become self-sufficient and less dependent on support (Shih, Chang & Lin, 2010).

The Lessons Learned Approach: “The lessons learned approach to the strategy of best practices and knowledge transfer places lessons learned from past crises into an outline database which is accessible to all at all times in the worldwide system of the organization (internet). A good example of this approach is in the National Security Agency (NSA) internet that contained three categories of lessons learned. These are firstly informal (which feature lessons such as how to go on temporary duty during an emergency situation, secondly, success which documents what goes well during a crises or other situations; and thirdly; problems, which provides a description of an annoying situation with recommended solutions” (Shih, Chang & Lin, 2010: 75).

Customer Focused Knowledge: This third strategy focuses on capturing knowledge about customers, developing and transforming knowledge and undertaking the needs of the customer, his preference and businesses. This is ‘aimed at increasing overall turnover as well as bringing the organizational knowledge to bear on customer problems. The general belief here is that if the organization could make their customers successful, their own success would be secured as well. In order to be able to identify the intellectual capital associated with their precept, the organization should try to find the stream of logic that leads to the individual component that affects the customer's success’ (Seyed, 2017).

Personal Responsibility for Knowledge: This strategy stems from the belief that people are the engine of knowledge and as such should be assisted and supported at all times. It is also “the belief that individuals are personally responsible for identifying, maintaining and expanding their own knowledge as well as understanding, renewing and sharing their knowledge assets. This strategy is in line with the emerging paradigm that employees are the ultimate source of new knowledge in a firm and that they are responsible for their own knowledge development. Expecting employees to take personal responsibility for their own knowledge and the knowledge of such organization entrusted to them is essentially an example of a pull-strategy initiated by the individual rather than that pushed by the organization. The practical working of the strategy was found at SKANDIA AFS (USA) where knowledge management was the responsibility of everyone in the organization and was manifested in their jobs. For instance, IT employees focused on packaging knowledge into IT products that support knowledge sharing while accounting people was responsible for developing the indicators to measure knowledge management activities. There was no specific percentage of time allotted to these knowledge management activities; instead, knowledge management was viewed as a philosophy of working. Another factor involved was the firms' organizational structure. For the simple reason that the firm did not take a hierarchical approach to culture was one of high thrust that fostered shared learning and emphasized self-management and support of initiatives” (Seyed, 2017: 534).

Intellectual Asset Management Strategy: This strategy emphasizes enterprise-level management of specific intellectual assets, such as patents, technologies, operational and management practices, customer relations, organizational managements, and other structural knowledge assets. This strategy can be “pursued by focusing on attaching financial measures to organizational knowledge or assets and then linking them to the organization's current and future performance. Effectiveness of this strategy is seen in SKANDIA and AFS. They were one of the early organizations to employ this strategy of making intellectual asset valuation a part of the supplement to its annual report to shareholders. They focused on the need to continually renew their intellectual assets to enhance the future prospects of their organization. Dow chemical company based in USA provides a good example of this strategy in action by using an Intellectual Asset Management process to improve management of intellectual assets. With this, the organization was able to transform accounting clerks to pro-active strategists. When the initiative started, the organization's intellectual asset managers found significant cost-saving opportunities by reducing the tax maintenance for patents. This was an era that was easy to measure as it opened up opportunities and built credibility for future initiatives within Intellectual Asset Management. This was defined to include patents, copyrights, trade secrets, trademarks, and know-how. At Dow chemical company, Intellectual Asset Management was broadly focused and recognized more of the value contribution of all

intellectual assets. The focus was on "value management" rather than on knowledge management since the company viewed knowledge management as purely a vehicle for value management" (Cohen, 2013: 8).

Innovation and knowledge Creation: This strategy emphasized innovation and the creation of new knowledge through basic and applied research and development. This is achieved through the provision of funds for expenses such as Research and Development (R & D), contracts, conference fees and travel for other purposes such as field resting or data collection as well as purchase of both soft and hardware, books and other items that may be associated with a specific project strategy. This strategy can also be applied through the use of in-house agency workers to be released from their current duties either on a full-time or part-time basis to pursue their projects. This strategy was successfully adopted by the National Security Agency in USA and it yielded positive results. The above strategies if properly applied could in no small measure help most organizations to overcome the problem of knowledge management in their organizations. It will help the organizational process that enhances synergistic combination of data and information-processing capacity of information technologies and the creative and innovative capacity of the employees within the organization. They will help the organization to easily identify, collect, analyze, use and adapt to the various knowledge that exists within the organization (Sayed, 2015).

Conclusion

Knowledge and information have become the medium in which business problems occur. As a result managing knowledge represents the primary opportunity for achieving substantial savings, significant improvements in human performance and competitive advantage. This paper therefore concludes that quality, efficiency and effectiveness in performance cannot happen if employees are not developed. Organizations compete today on the basis of knowledge since products and services are increasingly complex. This is why; the requirement for a life-long learning has become an unavoidable reality. Knowledge management has become crucial in business operations because the market is becoming too competitive and the rate of innovation is rising. Downsizing staff for instance also creates a need to replace informal knowledge with formal methods. Knowledge management is of importance because early retirements and increasing mobility of the work force lead to loss of knowledge. Again, the changes in strategic direction can result in the loss of knowledge in some specific areas of work activities.

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LAW

THE NECESSITY OF A NEW STRATEGY TO FIGHT AGAINST DRUG TRAFFICKING

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Abstract: *The fight against drugs has become a leitmotif of the modern world. However, despite huge financial and human efforts worldwide, the phenomenon of drug trafficking and illicit drug use has not declined significantly. In 2011, the Global Commission on Drug Policy (GCDP) acknowledged that the global fight against drugs had failed. Awareness of this failure led to an analysis of the foundations of the classic anti-drug policy, looking for the reasons that generated the inefficiency of the traditional vision regarding the fight against drugs. It was found that, in essence, traditional anti-drug policies were based on three elements: the eradication of drug production, the annihilation of distribution networks and the prohibition of drug use. In the context of the failure of the traditional conception, another solution is emerging, namely to decrease the demand for drugs. Such a paradigm shift is radical, but necessary, since traditional anti-drug policies have failed and the disastrous consequences of drug trafficking are forcing us to find efficient solutions. The European Union is a pioneer of this new paradigm, as it considers reducing the negative consequences of drug use to be a public health problem and, in the spirit of this idea, provides care for drug users. The real challenge, however, is a massive reduction in drug demand, which would indeed be a long-term solution to the drug problem. It is considered that the best way to reduce the demand for drugs is to raise public awareness of the negative effects of drug use, but effective ways are still being sought to achieve this goal. In parallel with the implementation of this new paradigm, activities specific to traditional anti-drug policy are still needed, in particular those related to the fight against drug trafficking networks.*

Keywords: *drug trafficking, drug use, reducing drug demand, organised crime, European Union, education.*

The importance of considering a new approach on fighting against drugs

The drug issue has been severely affecting modern society for decades. Recent studies point out that the negative consequences of drug consumption are more severe than ever, with approximately 35 million people suffering from drug use disorders worldwide (United Nations, 2019). The negative influence of illicit drug consumption spreads not only to drug consumers, but also on their families, on their communities and on the society as a whole (*EU drugs policy*, 2021; Latin American Commission on Drugs & Democracy, 2016). The drug issue affects public safety, public health, environment, labour productivity and endangers security, as it generates crime, violence and corruption (*EU drugs policy*, 2021). The income obtained by organised crime through illegal drug trade reaches very high figures (at least 30 billion € per year in the European Union), which threatens international financial stability (*EU drugs policy*, 2021). Also, it is important to emphasize the fact that, often, the money obtained from illegal drug trafficking is used to support other illegal activities, like weapon trade and terrorism (Piazza, 2011). In order to prevent the negative consequences of drug consumption and drug trafficking, the society has been carrying on a true war against those responsible for the drug-related problems. However,

despite the huge human and financial resources which have been involved in this war, in the present-day we still cannot see significant results (Latin American Commission on Drugs & Democracy, 2016).

The attitude of some international organisations in refer to adopting a new strategy in fighting drugs

Given this situation, some organisations had the courage to put forward a bold assertion on the necessity to critically analyse our classic view on drugs and, further, to make a shift on our view referring to drugs. Maybe the most powerful cry for a paradigm shift comes from Latin America, which is, certainly, not at all surprising, because Latin America is one of the regions which has been extremely affected by the violence and corruption associated with drug production, trafficking and consumption. The Latin American Commission on Drugs and Democracy, in 2009, shows that it is time to admit that the so-called 'classic' methods to fight drug-related problems have failed (Latin American Commission on Drugs & Democracy, 2016). These methods were essentially based on prohibition and included eradication of drug production, dismantling drug trafficking networks and criminalisation of drug consumption (Latin American Commission on Drugs & Democracy, 2016). A similar view is expressed by the Global Commission on Drug Policy, which, in 2011, asserted that the global war on drugs has failed, with devastating consequences for people and countries worldwide (The Global Commission on Drug Policy, 2011). As regards the United Nations, although it does not expressly admit that the 'traditional' war on drugs has failed, clearly shows a change in the approach of the drug problem, for example urging states to allow the use of international controlled drugs for medical and scientific purposes (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2016). The European Union has also embraced the need for a change in approaching drug fighting. In this respect, it is relevant that The EU Drug Strategy for 2021-2025 includes research, innovation and foresight (*EU Drugs Action Plan 2021-2025*).

The paradigm shift regarding the methods which should be used in fighting drugs, adopted, as we have seen, by several international structures (in an explicit or implied manner), essentially relies on the following solutions: treating drug consumption as a matter of public health; reducing drug use through education, information and prevention; focusing repression on organised crime (Latin American Commission on Drugs & Democracy, 2016). It can be seen that reduction of drug demand is considered an important part of the solutions for the drug problem.

Reducing drug demand: an effective solution, which is difficult to obtain

In theory, the solutions which have been proposed for properly addressing the drug problem seem rational and simple. Although all have a well-defined importance in solving the drug-related issues, it is easy to see that, in order to obtain long-term results, reducing drug demand is, certainly, one of the most appropriate solutions. If there is no demand for drugs, drug production and drug trafficking will diminish and, eventually, vanish. But, in achieving this goal of reducing drug demand, we encounter a serious obstacle. It seems that, previously, programs which have been aimed at reducing drug consumption through education and information did not have the expected results. Some of them were inefficient,

while others, despite having some effects, are, still, far from reaching the desired effect. The Latin American Commission on Drugs and Democracy actually openly acknowledged that most of the campaigns for preventing drug use which have been implemented all over the world have failed (Latin American Commission on Drugs & Democracy, 2016). Some studies have reached similar conclusions. A research conducted for the European Monitoring Centre for Drugs and Drug Addiction has found out that universal school-based prevention and universal family-based prevention may be effective in preventing cannabis use, but it could not be drawn a conclusion regarding the effects on using other drugs, due to insufficient data (Sumnall *et al.*, 2017). The same study shows that brief interventions carried out in schools or health institutions with the purpose to prevent drug use are ineffective (Sumnall *et al.*, 2017). Also, results point out that mass-media campaigns (using television, radio, print and the internet) which disseminate information about drugs are ineffective in drug use prevention (Sumnall *et al.*, 2017). It is important to mention that the most widely known drug prevention campaign for teenagers in the United States of America, named Drug Abuse Resistance Education (with the acronym D.A.R.E.) has little or no effect at all. Essentially, in this programme, uniformed police officers go into schools and warn children about the negative effects of drugs. Some studies show that this programme may have even reached the opposite of the desired effect, determining some teenagers to use illegal substances (Lilienfeld & Arkowitz, 2014). The low or the non-existent efficiency of this kind of programmes, which are actually based on the principles of the worldwide-spread form of education, urges us to make a deep analysis not only on education referring to drugs, but on our views on education as a whole. It is important to mention that the conclusion that drug-prevention through traditional education does not work is not at all new (Stuart, 1974; Coggans *et al.*, 1991; Tobler, 1986, Brown *et al.*, 1997). Despite relevant information, this conclusion has not been taken into consideration (or at least not enough) by those responsible with implementing drug-prevention programmes.

There are, still, some positive effects which can be achieved in preventing drug use. It seems that results can be obtained if the drug-prevention programmes involve a great amount of interaction between the instructor and the persons in the target – group. Also, it seems that it is important that people are taught the social skills they need in order to refuse drugs and that they have the opportunity to practice these skills with other persons (Lilienfeld & Arkowitz, 2014; Tobler, 1986). It is, nevertheless, important that some drug prevention programmes have had positive results. However, we highlight the fact that this kind of programmes are difficult to put into practice, because they involve certain amounts of time and can be performed on small groups of people, as an instructor cannot develop a proper interaction with many people at the same time. Implementing such programmes in educational systems based on traditional methods it is not an easy task and it takes time, while negative effects of the drug problem are growing (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2020). The information presented above shows that, while being one of the most important long-term solution for the drug problem, reducing drug demand is very hard to achieve.

Conclusions

The information presented above clearly proves that we must change our strategy in fighting against drug trafficking. First, we must become aware that, despite decades of trying to repress drug trafficking by using `classic` methods (police force and a severe ban on drug use), there are no significant results. Instead, using these `classic` ways has led to many life losses and to spending huge amounts of money. It is time to honestly approach the drug issue and to see which are the mistakes that have been done and that contributed to the present-day situation. Some may argue that it would be enough to legalize at a large scale the use of the so-called `recreational drugs`. Indeed, it could be that granting access to `easy` drugs may be a part of the multi-faceted solution, but, for sure, it cannot be its *only* solution. Adopting such measures should be accompanied by an effective education on the use of such drugs, as `recreational drugs` can still be dangerous. Modern society did not find appropriate solutions for alcohol-related problems, as alcohol is, actually, a drug, which is highly available in most countries. We should think twice before introducing another category of drugs within reach of a large number of people. By saying that, we do not say that the idea of legalizing recreational drugs should be rejected *per se*; we only want to draw attention that we must be very careful, if we choose to integrate such a solution among those aimed at efficiently addressing drug-related problems.

Of course, in our quest for new strategies in fighting against drugs we must not abandon (at least not yet) the `classic` methods of fighting against drugs. At the same time with changing our paradigm on addressing the drug-related problems, we must still use criminal law enforcement and international criminal cooperation, in order to identify and to punish those involved in drug trafficking. This is absolutely necessary, because drug trafficking and structured groups which organise it pose a very severe threat to the society, and this requires urgent measures. The new paradigm towards drugs, which is still in its infancy, needs time to find efficient ways to obtain tangible results.

The most effective solution, however, seems to be reducing drug demand. Indeed, if people do not wish to take drugs, this, eventually, will lead to the dismantling of organised crime involved in drug trafficking. But such a solution, despite its simplicity, is extremely hard to achieve. Many studies point out that public programmes developed in order to convince people not to use drugs have usually failed. At the same time, research shows that it is possible to teach people how to refrain themselves from becoming drug consumers, but this requires elaborate psychological programmes, which are hard to apply to large groups.

At the end of our study, we point out that a paradigm shift in fighting against drugs is absolutely necessary. At the same time, it is clear that further theoretical and empirical research is needed, in order to find the most effective strategy to fight against drugs in a new manner.

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