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2019 General Elections: Need for Human and Institutional Capacity Development for Political Parties

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Abstract: Since Nigeria traced back its way to democratic governance in 1999, the Independent Electoral Commission (INEC) has registered 67 political parties has well over 80 more application for consideration for registration before the deadline. Some of these parties are in comatose while others are struggling to survival in the hash political environment. Given that political parties are the livewire of democracy, there is need to enhance and support their grow both in their human and institutional capacities. Thus study recommends that for the immediate INEC should make the human and institutional capacity development that *National Institute for Legislative Studies* (NILS) is currently providing compulsory for all the political parties that are ready to field candidates in the 2019 elections. While the long term actions should include that *after* the 2019 elections, the National Assembly should amend the electoral law to include a clause that will make the human and institutional capacities' development compulsory for political parties; and also a clause that spelt-out the required educational qualification of executive members of political parties should be added to the electoral law too. All executive members of political parties should have a second degree that is not more than 50 years old.

Keywords: Elections, Human capacity, Institutional capacity, Development, Political Parties

1. Introduction

The Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC) in January 2018 said it has over 80 political parties that submitted applications for registration ahead of the 2019 elections... that there are currently 67 political parties already registered.... “As it is today, 80 more groups are seeking registration as political parties, and “we will continue to register them until the time scheduled by the Electoral Act for us to stop... (Premium Times, 2017).

The above news item culled from the *Premium Times* shows that more political parties will be registered before 2019 general elections. There is nothing diametrically and constitutionally wrong with INEC registering more political parties. What is wrong, however, is to leave the political parties in comatose, as virtually all the political parties currently in operation in Nigeria need help in sundry forms in terms of capacity and institutional development. For instance, most of the political parties’ executive members do not have any idea on how to raise funds, manage inter and intra political conflicts and they also lack basic equipment such as modern computer and database of vital information including membership list.

That political parties in Nigeria, in all material details, need capacity and institutional development have been highlighted in various studies conducted by Jeremy and Jibrin, (2013); Omotola, (2010); Omotola, (2009); Jinadu (2011); Samuel, (2016); Taiwo, (2016); Antonia, (2015) and many other international organizations including the UNDP (2010). However, what most of these studies have not squarely covered is how best to immediately improve the dismal conditions of the political parties in terms of human and institutional capacities which is preventing the

parties from contributing their own quota to the positive democratization process that is currently going on in Nigeria.

As expected, ahead of the general elections scheduled for 16th February and 2nd March 2019, several countries and development agencies including the United States of America, United Kingdom, Japan and the UNDP have pledged to support Nigeria to achieve free and fair election. This study is therefore, interested in proffering long and short terms measures that will help to build the capacities of the executive members and the institutions that made political parties viable.

II Review of Literature

Compulsory Human and Institutional Capacity Development

Generally and technically, political parties in Nigeria do not need capacity building because, in modern development discourse the term ‘capacity development’ is preferred to the term capacity building. Capacity building assumes that no capacity exist (Angela, 2016) thus building up from scratch including starting up a structure step-by-step (OECD, 2006). Although, Morgan (1996) observed that capacity building is “the ability of individuals, groups, institutions and organizations to identify and solve development problems over time”. On the other hand, capacity development starts from the premise that capacity exists and can be strengthened. Thus, capacity development recognizes that there is no situation in which capacity does not exist.

Venner (2014) explains that the concept of capacity building (later replaced by capacity development) gained prominence in development circle in the 1990s as a better way of ‘doing’ development. While little was written in

academic literature on capacity development in the previous decades, the 1990s and subsequent years saw a geometric increase in references to capacity development.

Before the 1990s, capacity development was mainly seen as an intervention linked to teaching and training directed at individuals working in organisations. Today there is huge interest and tremendous advancement in both capacity development as a concept and field of intervention. This interest has also provided more conceptual clarity especially as it involves processes of change that aims to enable organisations and institutions resolve, innovate and respond to society’s need.

United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) views capacity development as “...the how of making development work better and is in essence about making institutions better able to deliver and promote human development (Angela, 2016). The UNDP consequently hinged capacity development as the cornerstone of its development approach, especially as her specific role is to support and strengthen governments in developing countries.

It appears that from the UNDP explanation of capacity development

cited by Angela (2016) above, much of the concentration is still on the development of human capacity while little interest is placed on how to develop the institutions which the political parties’ executive members will outlive. Capacity development, as explained by the UNDP, is what all political parties in Nigeria need, it also appears that virtually all the political parties in Nigeria need and want is a comprehensive human and institutional capacity development package that will be applicable in the long and short terms since the nation is still actively enjoying the registration of new political parties almost on quarterly basis.

Another notable interest in the capacity development discourse was by the OECD/DAC Govnet who defined it as:

“Capacity is the ability of people, organisations and society as a whole to manage their affairs successfully ... Capacity development is the process whereby people, organisations and society as a whole unleash, strengthen, create, adapt and maintain capacity over time” (OECD, 2006).

Other definition is presented in the table below:

Table 1- Definitions of capacity development

Author and date	Definition
Cohen (1993)	“.. Any system, effort or process... which includes among it’s major objectives strengthening the capability of elected chief executive officers, chief administrative officers, department and agency heads and programme managers in general purpose government to plan, implement, manage or evaluate policies, strategies or programs designed to impact on social conditions in the community.”
1995 UN General Assembly resolution A/RES/50/120	“...that the objective of capacity-building and its sustainability should continue to be an essential part of the operational activities of the United Nations system at the country level, with the aim of integrating their activities and providing support to efforts to strengthen national capacities in the fields of, inter alia, policy and programme formulation, development management, planning,

	implementation, coordination, monitoring and review”
CIDA (1996)	“A process by which individuals, groups, institutions, organizations and societies enhance their abilities to identify and meet development challenges in a sustainable manner”.
ISS, Support for Capacity Development, The Hague, June 2005).	‘the approaches, strategies and methodologies used by developing countries and/or external stakeholders to improve performance at individual, organisational, network/sector or broader system level”
UNICEF-Namibia (1996)	“Any support that strengthens an institution's ability to effectively and efficiently design, implement and evaluate development activities according to its mission”.
SIDA, Manual for Capacity Development, Stockholm, October (2005)	“the conditions that must be in place e.g.: knowledge, competence, and effective and development-oriented organisations and institutional frameworks, in order to make development possible”.
UNDP (1998)	“a concept which is broader the organizational development since it includes an emphasis on the overall system, environment or context within which individuals, organizations and societies operate and interact (and not simply a single organization)”.

Morgan (2006) identifies five core capabilities that enables an organization to fulfil a function, these include: the capability to act, the capability to generate development results, the capability to relate, the capability to adapt and the capability to achieve coherence. These core capabilities provide the basis for assessing the capacity of an organization to define its baseline for evaluating changes in capacity and performance over time.

Walters (2007) observed that what has not changed is that capacity development is firmly anchored in development paradigms and is linked to the development process of individuals, organisations, institutions and societies at large. Viewed from this perspective then, capacity development would involve strengthening of the individuals, organisations and institutions concerned to perform optimally. However, capacity development must be well designed and executed in order to produce sustainable effects.

Human and Institutional Capacity Development (HICD) was developed by the Bureau for Economic Growth, Agriculture and Trade (EGAT) to help United Nations Agency for International Development (USAID) integrate Human and Institutional Capacity Development (HICD) into its development assistance programs (USAID, 2010:7).

The USAID (2010) informs that, HICD can be successfully applied to any type of organization including government organizations, non-profit organizations and professional associations. HICD will enable these organizations to responsibly meet the needs of their countries and their citizens. The ultimate goal of HICD is to help improve performance in critical areas leading to measurable results in achieving the organization’s goals and objectives (USAID, 2010:7). Therefore, for political parties in Nigeria, the adoption of continuous HICD will adequately compensate for the lack of human capacities and the institutional deficiencies of the political parties that

are endangering the consolidation of democracy. It will variously reduce to bearable minimum the visible lapses of political parties in Nigeria. Hence, in this study compulsory HICD simply means, HICD should be made mandatory for both new and old political parties. Since when there is a clear vision, a broad-base commitment and active stakeholder participation, capacity building would be beneficial to the individual, organization and institution strengthening.

Of course, capacity is not developed in a vacuum, Jeremy and Jibrin, (2013:4) observed that, deepening democracy requires going beyond elections to building strong institutional foundations including the rule of law, constitutionalism, strong media and civil society, and, perhaps most importantly, political parties. This implies that political parties are the tap-roots of all the types of democracies currently in operation globally. Even in the “closed” type of democracies being practiced in places like China and Cuba, the “Party” is still the ultimate.

Democratic theorists, according to Pippa, (2005:3) have long debated the most appropriate role and function of political parties. Jinadu (2011:2) noted that a political party helps to (a) structure electoral choice and (b) conduct the business of government, under a party label or banner. Besides the primary responsibility of political parties globally that he conceptualized, Jinadu also observed that in Nigeria, the secondary functions or responsibilities of political parties are:

- i. recruitment or reproduction of the political class;
- ii. membership recruitment;
- iii. patronage disbursement;
- iv. organization--party bureaucracy;

- v. involvement in policy formulation;
- vi. voter education and mobilization;
- and
- vii. protecting and defending the country's constitution.

Also Ukase (2006) has explained the importance of political parties thus:

Party system and party politics constitute the sub-structure or foundation of any viable and durable democratic order, for this provides insight into how programmes of actions are articulated and how interests are formed and aggregated in the society. Given these enormous responsibilities, the success or failure of any political arrangement depends to a large extent on the nature and character of its political parties and party system (Ukase, 2006: 184).

This means that democratic consolidation works hand in hand with the strengthening of political parties. This explains why in even matured democracies the human and institutional capacities of political parties are still constantly developed. In this study, political parties' executives include all the personalities that directly manage the affairs of registered political parties.

III. Why Nigerian Political Parties Need Human And Institutional Capacity Development

In terms of ordinary ranking, to Femi (2016:2) the most fundamental right next to the right to life is perhaps the right to vote. But in reality, the quality of the right to life often depends upon the quality of the circumstances under which the right to vote takes place.....A desecration of the right to vote may therefore translate to a desecration of all other democratic rights, if it is accepted that the essence of democratic elections

is to guarantee the protection of the rights of the majority.

The summation by Femi (2016) is so germane to this study that it can now be safely concluded that, the non-improvement and the non-strengthening of the capacities of political parties can be classified as an infringement of the rights of the whole citizenry in a country. The lack of continuous development of the human and the institutional capacities of the political parties has triggered various problems, which have made them to be weak.

Most liberal theorists believe that political parties are essential to the practical workings of representative democracy. To them modern democracy in mass societies, that is, multi-ethnic and multi-religious nations like Nigeria and others in Africa, is unworkable without political parties playing their functions very well, as it were (Pippa, 2005). Political parties all over the world do serve a wide variety of functions which include:

- 1) Conducting election campaigns,
- 2) Mobilizing and channeling supporters,
- 3) Aggregating interests,
- 4) Structuring electoral choices,
- 5) Linking leaders and activists,
- 6) Selecting candidates for elected office,
- 7) Developing policy platforms,
- 8) Organizing legislatures, and
- 9) Coordinating the formation and activities of government. (Pippa, 2005:3).

Besides all the above mentioned functions, the key distinction, however, is that only political parties have the ability to aggregate demands, which they can facilitate compromise among diverse groups, to offer the electorate a programme of alternative policy proposals designed to meet these demands, to recruit candidates for elective offices, and, if elected, to pass legislation and to oversee the implementation of public policies.

One major omission in literature that covers political parties' functions in Nigeria is the fact that political parties in Nigeria also provide varieties of jobs for the citizens directly and indirectly. They also help to unite the nation in diverse ways by bringing together people from different ethnic, educational, class, social and religious backgrounds to work together. This means that political parties are a requisite in the developmental process in Nigeria and they should not be left in their current weak forms. The identified challenges of the nation's political parties should be dealt with as soon as possible.

In 2013, the Democratic Governance for Development Programme of the UNDP conducted a comprehensive study that shows that political parties in Nigeria could not carry out their traditional functions because they lack human and institutional capacities in the areas outlined in Table 2:

Table 2: Challenges confronting political parties in Nigeria	
1)	Human resource capacity at the state and local level. The largest parties have local leadership that is politically strong at the community level or the state level but often lack key professional skills.
2)	Parties frequently fail to generate effective internal communication between their national and sub-national branches.
3)	Related to this challenge are parties' limited abilities in use of technology.

Although some parties have demonstrated successful use of technology in campaigning, most party leadership, due partly to its age, are yet to take advantage of technological innovations like text or WhatsApp messaging to party leaders and members for organizational and information sharing purposes, raising money through mobile money or online fundraising, and generating on-line policy debate on key party policy issues.

- 4) Parties have also yet to attempt to build national, data-rich, and computerized membership databases, partly due to weak linkages between national, state, local government and ward party offices, and partly due to the political manipulations of party membership used by party candidates to exclude their opponents within the party.
- 5) Developing a uniform, consistent and accessible way of recruiting, admitting, and managing members is also lacking, with a number of observers insinuating that the PDP has made it extremely difficult for members to join and frequently manipulates membership when parties hold primaries.
- 6) Parties raised concerns about their abilities to mobilize resources and raise funds, thereby limiting their activities that require significant resources. These concerns were voiced most strongly by the non-parliamentary parties.
- 7) Parties have yet to demonstrate competence in research and analysis that looks at their own performance and develop clear plans and strategies that provide national frameworks for addressing their challenges and building the party
- 8) Parties have yet to develop an inclusive and research-based policy and manifesto development process that provides a clear policy framework for them to govern; nor have parties developed a consistent way of monitoring and evaluating the extent to which their elected leaders are realizing their manifestos during their terms of office
- 9) Related to this, parties lack ideological or institutional identities outside their ethno-regional or religious affiliations, or their leading figures
- 10) Internal democracy in all of Nigeria's political parties is limited. While there are rules on primary and internal party elections, parties often ignore, twist or subvert the rules to arrive at candidates through processes of selection, negotiation, or manipulation. The principle of zoning, in terms of providing equal opportunities based geographical area, sometimes disenfranchises candidates who may wish to contest.

Source: Compiled by Authors (2018) from UNDP (2013:12)

Besides the ten broad challenges Nigerian political parties are facing enumerated in Table 2; the political parties also need to:

- 1) Establish training institutions to train both new and old members;
- 2) Design mechanisms to attract well-educated young members;
- 3) Provide some sorts of material benefits for new and old members;
- 4) Own a well-resourced means of mass communication such as a radio station; and

- 5) Own few "cash cows" (some means of investments that provide constant stream of income).

According to Jinadu (2011), some of the challenges faced by the Nigerian political parties include, but not limited to:

- 1) Absence of mechanism for public- and self-assessment of extent of democratic values in handling in-house matters in the party. Issues such as how parties choose their nominees, conduct their primaries, and handle official matters

requiring the services of a technocratic which only career bureaucrats can handle, are a source of continuous challenge to the parties.

- 2) The recycling nature of Nigerian politicians that not only disallow young upcoming politicians to develop but also gradually take over the control of the parties is a challenge. For the same reason, the continued existence of the old orders at the detriment of younger ones precludes the new focus from the present adverse politicking to positive and nation-building character to politics.
- 3) Lack of ideology-based politics and excessive emphasis on personalized politics.

Other challenges identified by Taiwo (2016:12) are:

- 1) Patrimonial politics, which connotes the issues of godfatherism, violence and political insecurity have been manifest in the Nigerian polity from the colonial periods to the present political dispensation.
- 2) Power of incumbency of the ruling party to control the appointed electoral bodies to the detriments of other parties reduces the integrity of electoral process, create mutual suspicion, disquiet among the parties and the defection syndrome that ultimately eliminate competitive politics.
- 3) Military-initiated democratic transitions and constitutionalism which have made observance of the ideals of democracy observable by the rulers and the ruled.
- 4) Ethnicity-based politics and campaign of calumny for the sole

purpose of gaining political advantage.

- 5) Poor funding of the parties from the INEC, which more often than not reduced the parties to seek financial succour from rich Nigerians or, for the parties in power, from government official, have continued to compromise the virulence of the parties to pursue purely public goods.
- 6) Constitutional and statutory lacuna that have rendered the political parties as willful assailants during election periods or victims of attack because there is neither constitutional nor statutory provisions for prosecuting election offenders.

It appears, the ongoing exercise to amend the 2010 electoral law will take care of some of the challenges that are purely legal that have been raised in this section. However, most of the issues raised can be taken care of through obligatory human and institutional capacity development that particularly target the managers and founders of the political parties.

IV Political Parties' Human and Institutional Capacity Development: Global Supports

The need for political parties' capacities to be comprehensively developed in emerging democracies has propelled some international organizations to provide the necessary help. This section will just list the international organizations that are helping to provide capacity development for political parties directly all over the world. The contents of this section were culled from studies done by Michael, (2014:23); Leni, and Alan (2009); UNDP, (2010) and Ann and Levan (2012). Some of the international organizations that are

essentially helping to build political parties capacities world-wide are:

1. National Democratic Institute,
2. Netherlands Institute for Multiparty Democracy (NIMD),
3. DemocraShe,
4. Department for International Development (DFID),
5. Foreign & Commonwealth Office (FCO)
6. United Nations Development Programme (UNDP).
7. United Nations Agency for International Development (USAID).

Several projects have been initiated by the UNDP and intended to strengthen capacity that will bring stability, national unity and meaningful participatory democracy to Nigeria's political system. One of such projects its establishment of the Political Party Leadership and Policy Development Centre (PPLPDC) at the National Institute for Policy and Strategic Studies (NIPSS).

The Economic Commission for West Africa States ECOWAS is another body that regularly organizes capacity development workshops to member states. One of such, is the review and validation of training modules for political parties in the member states.

V. Conclusion and Recommendations

The major highlight of this study is about how political parties which are the livewire of democracy in most developing nations such as Nigeria can be enhanced and supported to grow both in their human and institutional capacities. Of course, the needed capacity development would bring about institutional change. This summation also flows from Jinadu's (2011) formulation that, party reform to deepen democracy in the country (Nigeria) remains an unfinished business. In the

view of Omotola (2009) no democracy can survive without strong political parties. Nigeria should without delay do something drastic to immediately develop the weak political parties that dots its political firmament.

Currently, Nigeria has 67 registered political parties, which means since the recent return of liberal democracy to the country in 1999 an average of three political parties are registered every year. The fact that most of these political parties are just paper tigers because of poor human and institutional capacities is no longer news to all concerned authorities and personalities (Antonia, 2015; Olanrewaju, 2015; Akubo, and Yakubu, 2014; and Ademola, 2015). What is urgently needed therefore is a comprehensive and compulsory immediate and long terms HICD. Of course, capacity development is necessary to make political parties more competent to withstand the strong wave of domestic and global push for institutionalization of the democratization process. More so, that some of these parties are in comatose in the hash political environment. The instant and long term actions are presented below:

Immediate action needed:

- 1) INEC should make the human and institutional capacity development that National Institute for Legislative Studies (NILS) is currently providing compulsory for all the political parties that are ready to field candidates in the 2019 elections.

Long term action needed:

- 1) After the 2019 elections, the National Assembly should amend the electoral law to include a clause that will make the human and institutional capacities'

development at NILS compulsory for political parties;

- 2) Also a clause that spelt-out the required educational qualification of executive members of political

parties should be added to the electoral law too. All executive members of political parties should have a second degree that is not more than 50 years old.

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A Logarithmic Analysis of Nigeria's Monetary Policy Thrust and GDP: 1980-2015

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Abstract: This study aims to determine the thrusts of variations in the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) monetary policies from 1980-2015 and its effects on Nigeria's GDP. Results show that the CBN had an unclear and non-directional monetary policy thrust in the pre-SAP, SAP and post-SAP eras, and a clear directional monetary thrust policy in subsequent periods: easy and tight policy thrusts in the consolidation and post-global economic crisis eras respectively. OLS analysis of logarithmic values of data on GDP, CRR, MPR, LR and LDR for the study period shows that a positive relationship exists between GDP and CRR; and negative relationships exist between GDP and MPR, LR and LDR. These findings make evident the need for Nigeria's monetary regulators to harmonize the direction of variations in monetary policy instruments; increase CRR and reduce MPR, LR and LDR to improve economic growth in the country and eliminate unethical banking practices with negative consequences on the financial sector, the economy and the entire country.

Keywords: Gross Domestic Product, cash reserve ratio, liquidity ratio, loan to deposit ratio, monetary policy rate, monetary policy thrust, cash crunch

Introduction

Variation of monetary policies by central banks aims to achieve short, medium and long-term goals of employment generation, increase in

economic activities, reduction in inflation, increase in production capacity utilization and gross domestic product (GDP). Arguments abound in literature of the practical functions of

these banks. Kandil (2014) noted that beliefs in economies hold that central banks in developing economies are created with the main objective of financing government deficits. Studies on monetary policies (Sala, 2008; Kilponen and Leitemo, 2008; Chapman, 2008; Jones, 2008; Sahuc and Smets, 2008; Kumah, 2007; and Kamar and Naceur, 2007) differentiated between monetary policies of studied economies: the stabilizing and the accommodative policies. They observed that an accommodative policy provides regular supply of credit for a growing economy, while the policy aimed at stabilizing is used to offset undesired changes affecting the economy. The stabilization function of central banks, according to Kandil (2014) is targeted at growth by increasing liquidity to expand credit in periods of economic downturns. This growth expansion he argued is through fluctuations in monetary policies via growth in aggregate demand; which itself depends on the liquidity effects caused by change in money supply and the sensitivity of aggregate demand to the change in liquidity. The change in demand is allocated between output growth and price inflation and this seems dependent on the constraints on the supply side of the economy.

Though varied arguments exist about the effect of monetary policy on economic performance, Kandil (2014) asserts that this performance depends on monetary variability; contending that cross-country evidences shows that trend output increases with increased response of real economic growth to monetary shocks. Output variability on the other hand, he added, decreases with the higher the response of real growth to monetary policy shocks. Consensus exists among monetary theorists that a

reduction in monetary policy rate reduces interest rate and induces capital outflow and reduces inflows. Foreign exchange reserves may be depleted in such circumstances to meet foreign exchange requirements for outflows, decreasing an economy's monetary base. Increase in cash reserve ratio and ratio of loans to deposits increases cash crunch, reduce spending and consumption with negative spiral effects on output.

From the money supply side, the effectiveness of monetary policy on an economy decreases with the increase in the response of money demand to income. Thus, with an increase in money supply in response with variation in monetary policy, higher level of money demand due to increase in income closes disequilibrium gap and decrease the necessary reduction in interest rate (Kandil, 2014). Conversely, the effectiveness of monetary policy will increase a less responsive money demand to change in interest rate, making a high level of reduction in monetary policy rate (and thus interest rate) with an increase in money supply. The economy will thus gain when there exists a high level of positive sensitivity of aggregate demand to changes in interest rate. Findings by Kandil (2014) from a cross-country study of sampled developing countries showed that real effects of monetary shock are seen to vary with price flexibility, demand elasticity and policy variation.

The argument of loose monetary policy in economic crisis to support domestic activities is supported by the Keynesian model. The Keynesians argue that a loose monetary policy can help close the negative gaps in output and restore an economy to full employment. Coulibaly (2012) noted that the consequent

increase in domestic liquidity alters the effects of reduction in external credit which commonly occurs in periods of economic crisis. The real effects of monetary shocks he added, increases as the elasticity of aggregate demand increases; but capacity constraints hamper output adjustment to the shocks. Using cross-country evidences, Kandil (2014) argued that trend output growth increases with the response of output to monetary shocks.

Study by Coulibaly (2012) to ascertain the determinants of cross-country variations in monetary policies in different eras of global financial crises by emerging market economies (EMEs), showed that macroeconomic fundamentals, openness to trade, and lower vulnerabilities, international capital flows, financial reforms and the adoption of programs at limiting inflation growth were strong determinants with significant linkages existing between some economic characteristics of different countries and their ability to conduct countercyclical monetary policy. The arguments of countercyclicality and procyclicality of monetary policies of developed and emerging economies respectively by Coulibaly (2012) and Kaminsky, Reinhart and Vegh (2004), according to Aguitar and Gopinath (2007), results in high volatility of output in these economies. On variations in output, Georgiadis (2015) observed that output variations can be traced to cross-border spillovers from economic policies of other countries, which in the case of the United States is more higher than effects on outputs in the US; adding that the magnitude of the spillover depends on the trade and financial integration of the receiving country, exchange regime, de jure financial openness, financial market

development, labour market rigidities, participation in global value chain and industry structure. Georgiadis (2015) suggested that countries should reduce their vulnerability to spillovers of US monetary policies to clearly direct their monetary policies to achieve desired results. This argument supports conclusions of earlier studies (Milesi-Ferretti and Tille, 2011; Cavallo and Frankel, 2008; Calvo, Izquierdo and Mejia, 2008; Edwards, 2007a,b, 2004; Rey and Martin, 2006; and Broda, 2001). Though policy objectives from variations in monetary policy instruments vary, the ultimate aim is GDP growth. How has variations in Nigeria's monetary policy from 1980 to 2015 affected the nation's GDP during this period?

Objectives of the study

This study aims to identify the policy thrusts of the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) monetary initiatives within the study period segmented into pre-SAP era, 1980-1986; SAP era, 1986-1993; post-SAP era, 1994-2004; post-consolidation era, 2005-2012; and post global economic crises era, 2013-2015; and determine the effects of variations in these policy instruments on Nigeria's gross domestic product (GDP) within the period.

Research hypothesis

The following hypothesis is tested in this study on the identified relationship between stated variables:

H₀: Variations in Nigeria's monetary policies does not positively affect the nation's GDP

Scope of the study

This study covers Nigeria's monetary policy instruments: cash reserve ratio, liquidity ratios, monetary policy rate (formerly called minimum rediscount rate) and loan-to-deposits ratio, and

monetary policy thrusts, and GDP from 1980-2015.

Theoretical framework

The apex bank in Nigeria, the Central Bank of Nigeria, varies its monetary policies and values of the instruments: monetary policy rate (formerly called minimum rediscount ratio), cash reserve ratio, liquidity ratios, and open market operations from time to time. Upward movements in the values of these variables signals monetary policy tightening to reduce cash availability in the financial system, reduce inflationary pressures, spending with negative effects on investments and GDP. On the contrary, downward movements in these values indicates a cash easing thrust policy of the CBN to reflate the economy, increase spending, investments and GDP. The monetary policy thrust of the CBN in any year, half year or quarter is identified by the direction of movement of the values of the variables which in turn redirects financial and economic activities to achieve the economic expectations of the government. This study is hinged on this theoretical thought that variations in monetary policy instruments have varied effects on monetary policy variables set GDP targets.

Review of Literature

Nigeria's monetary policy thrust: 1980-2015

Nigeria's financial regulator, the Central Bank of Nigeria, adjusts its financial sector/economic controlling instruments: monetary policy rate, cash reserve ratio, liquidity ratio, loan-to-deposits ratio and open market operation activities to direct and redirect financial and economic activities in the country to meet desired objectives and policy targets of the Federal Government. Increase in these rates and ratios

indicate stringent policy direction and thrust to reduce cash available in the economy, curtail spending to reduce inflationary pressures. Decrease in these rates and ratios signals the intention of the financial regulator to reflate the economy by increasing cash availability, investment, spending, consumption, production, employment and gross domestic product (GDP). These variations in rates and ratios in monetary policy instruments signal the thrust and economic direction of the government. These variations are expected to positively impact the economy in both the short and long runs, with increases in the country's GDP. The pre-SAP era, 1980-1986, witnessed declines in cash reserve requirements, minimum rediscount rates, liquidity ratio and loans to deposits ratio indicating government policy thrust at improving spending and reflate the economy. The SAP era, 1987-1993, witnessed increases in these rates and ratios an indication of tight monetary policy to curtail spending and reduce inflationary pressures. The post-SAP era, 1994-2004, witnessed volatility in these rates with a reduction at the end of the period; a reflection of frequency in variation of the monetary policy thrusts of the Central Bank of Nigeria. The post-consolidation era, 2005-2012, witnessed declines in these rates with the aim of reflating the economy to increase consumption, spending, production, employment and GDP. The post-global economic crises era, 2013-2015, witnessed marginal increases in these rates.

The cash reserve ratio (CRR) is a monetary policy tool employed by the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN), to set the minimum deposits commercial banks are to hold as reserves. It is used to influence lending and interest rates by

changing the amount of money at banks' disposal for granting credit facilities. Volatility of the monetary policy thrusts of the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) is as a result in volatility in this ratio. Prudential discipline in monetary policy necessitates the frequent alteration of the reserve ratio. Excess liquidity in the Nigerian financial system due to bank consolidation was reduced with prudent monetary policies of tightening credit through increase in cash reserve ratios from 1% in 2004 to 2% in 2005, and sustained in 2006-2008. The monetary easing policy which was introduced by the CBN in 2009 was aimed at improving banking system liquidity, ensuring stability in the country's financial system, and constancy of credit flow to the productive sectors of the economy. This monetary management technique reflected the existing local and global economic environments with existing tight liquidity. Introduced monetary policies were aimed at easing credit in the economy. This easing of credit made necessary the need to achieve the multiple objectives of optimum liquidity in the domestic and foreign exchange markets, price and exchange rate stability and steady flow of credit to the real economy in a sound and stable financial system (CBN, 2009). In mid-2015, the cash reserve ratio (CRR) for public and private sector deposits was CBN harmonized by the CBN at 31%. The ratio initially was 20% for private sector deposits and 75% on public sector deposits. The change was initiated due to the negative effects of discriminatory CRRs which constrained monetary policy objectives and encouraged abuses by private market participants. Other reason for the change was the need to reduce tight monetary policy in the economy and to avoid economic stress, curb abuse of the

discriminatory CRR, improve efficacy of the CRR as a potent monetary policy instrument and maintain current banking system stability.

During the period, MPR increased steadily from 6% in 1980 to 17% in 1992, stabilizing at 13.5% to 1998 and fluctuating between 6% and 15% through to 2015 indicating tight, stable and intermittent easy and tight monetary policies respectively. LR and LDR increased uniformly from 47.6% and 66.7% in 1980, increasing significantly to 65.1% and 81.9% in 1984 respectively, an indication of a tight money policy. The rates fluctuated between 36.4% and 83.2% in 1986, through 46.8% and 74.4% in 1998, to 39.75 % and 68.55% in 2015 indicating the CBN's alteration between easy and tight money policies. Specifically, monetary policy rate and liquidity ratio were retained at 13% and 30% respectively with a symmetric corridor of plus/minus 200 percent around their mid-points with an increase of the band around the mid-point by 200 basis points from +/- 3 percent to +/- 5 percent in November 2014 from 12% in 2012 through 2013; and increased on average to 34.88% in 2015.

Determinants of monetary policy thrusts

With country and cross-country variations monetary policies and resultant low effects on economic growth, the CBN (2016) concluded and traced the sluggish output to weak fundamentals in both emerging market developing economies (EMDEs) and advanced economies. These fundamentals it added, include sustained softness in commodity prices, increased volatility in global financial markets, sluggish global trade with much negative effects on EMDEs; concluding

that variations in monetary policies did not have the desired effects as low capital inflows, rising cost of external funds, inadequate maritime security and continuing geopolitical instability (all non-controllable by local monetary policies) steadily affects growth. The CBN (2016) noted that severe energy shortages (remotely affected by monetary policies, scarcity of foreign exchange caused by dwindling oil sales and depressed consumer demands constrained new investments and raw materials inputs. Introduced monetary policies to reduce inflationary pressures and improve growth seems not yielding the desired results as evidenced by the poor performance of credit growth to the private sector. The CBN (2016) attributed this to deposit money banks' (DMBs) continued granting of credit facilities mainly to low employment elastic sectors of the economy; an action that has significantly contributed to the poor performance of the economy. Similar effects were felt on credit and economic growth. This was attributed to increased cash reserve requirements for banks as lending was curtailed to meet the regulatory cash requirements with existing high cost of lending with the likely cash crunch. Keister and McAndrews (2009) criticized the argument of high reserves as inflationary and suggested that the size of bank reserves be determined by the size of the Federal Reserve's policy initiatives without a reflection of the requirement on bank lending. Keister and McAndrews (2009) stated that large increase in bank reserves need not be inflationary since the payment of interest on reserves allows the Federal Reserve to adjust short-term interest rates independently of the level of reserves. They noted that elimination of the positive multiplier effect of could-

have-been invested credit (if not the reserves), may deprive the economy of growth.

Deregulation of the downstream petroleum sector (a non-monetary policy initiative) in addition, positively affected demand in the interbank market, exerting more pressures on the naira. To reduce this pressure, the monetary policies in the last two quarters of 2015 and first two quarters of 2016 were largely aimed at increasing the foreign exchange reserves, but actual activities in the economy has made that seem impossible. Variations in the monetary policies to improve local production seems countered by the high cost of funds which has mitigated continuation of production and new investments with attendant increase in unemployment, and reduction in disposable income, spending, consumption and growth. Research results by Barajas et al (2005) in Latin America, Konishi and Yasuda (2004) and Woo (1999) in Japan, Pazarbasioglu (1997) in Finland, Berger and Udell (1994) and Peek and Rosengren (1995) in the United States showed that monetary authority's regulations affecting banks' liquidity also affect credit availability and volatility. Naceur and Kandil (2013) noted that the extent of the effect of these regulations on credit availability and its volatility depends on the channel of transmission of the monetary policy and the strength of existing financial system. This strength they added depends on demand-driven variables' movements which are caused by the country's monetary policies. They contended that regulations reducing bank cash availability reduces bank credit and constrain real investment opportunities, and slow down real growth; which will

necessitate the introduction of monetary policies aimed at managing a country's liquidity to positively influence economic situations to stimulate credit growth, which reinforces the achieved contribution of financial intermediation to economic growth.

Using data from 188 advanced and emerging economies covering 1970-2009 to undertake a trend analysis of cross-country variations in monetary policies, Coulibaly (2012) concluded that during the 2008-2009 global financial crisis, emerging market economies (EMEs) relaxed monetary policy drastically to cushion the effect of the shock. This is in contrast with previous crises when EMEs tightened monetary policies to protect the value of their currencies to prevent capital flight to bolster policy credibility. Further studies by Coulibaly (2012) showed that financial reforms, adoption of inflation targeting and openness to trade were strong determinants of government monetary policy. Using the short-term interest rate as monetary policy tool, Kaminsky et al (2004) estimated the Taylor rule policy function for each country studied and concluded that monetary policies of advanced countries are countercyclical but procyclical in emerging economies. Findings by Coulibaly (2012) that macroeconomic policies-both fiscal and monetary-tends to be countercyclical in developed economies, but seems procyclical or acyclical in emerging economies supports the argument of Kaminsky et al (2004). Furthering, Yakhin (2008) opined that under financial integration, the optimal monetary policy is countercyclical and procyclical in autarky. Calderon, Roberto and Klaus (2003) argued that the ability of emerging economies to conduct

countercyclical monetary policy is determined by the credibility of such policy. Commenting on cross-country adjustments to external shocks, Dabrowski (2012) noted that larger currency areas with stable and credible currencies and less exposure to external shocks have greater opportunities to change their monetary policies than small open economies.

Methodology

Sources, validity and reliability of data

Data for this study are secondary data obtained from the Statistical Bulletin, 2015, CBN Annual Report and Statement of Accounts, 2009, CBN Annual Report 2011, CBN Economic Report for Fourth Quarter 2015, and CBN 2014 Half Year Report . These are the official Federal Government economic data bulletins published by the National Bureau of Statistics and CBN. Thus data therein are valid and reliable.

Data analysis technique, model description and justification

This study is hinged on the assured relationship that there exist variations in Central Bank of Nigeria monetary which in both the long and short-runs affects the country's GDP. To determine the existence of variations in the data set of regressors (cash reserve ratio, monetary policy rate, liquidity ratio and loan-to-deposit ratio), we conduct the ADF with results in table 2 showing the existence of variations in monetary policies from 1980-2015.

To analyse the data obtained for this study, we use the ordinary least squares (OLS) on the log values of the data from 1980-2015. Similar studies by Milesi-Ferreti and Tille (2011); Cavallo and Frankel (2008), Calvo et al (2001) and Broda (2001) used the non-logarithmic

linear estimation model, making the linear estimation model ideal for this study. The relationship between the study variables is:

$$RGDP = f(CRR, MPR, LR, LDR)$$

The above relationship can be re-written in logarithmic form as:

$$\ln RGDP_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \ln(CRR)_t + \alpha_2 \ln(MPR)_t + \alpha_3 \ln(LR)_t + \alpha_4 \ln(LDR)_t + \alpha_5 \ln ECM_{t-1} + \mu_t$$

$$\alpha_1, >0, \alpha_2, >0, \alpha_3, >0, \alpha_4, >0, \alpha_5, >0$$

where α_0 is the constant, $\alpha_1 - \alpha_4$ are the parameters to be estimated and α_5 the error correction model. $\mu_t =$ disturbance term which is presumed to satisfy the least square assumptions of homoscedasticity, serial independence and normal distribution.

Cointegration analysis

The Vector Auto regression model is used to test the existence and the number of cointegrating vectors. Variables are cointegrated if they are affected by the same long-run influences. This is followed by the residual test. If the result of this test is integrated of the order I(0), then the variables in the model are cointegrated; requiring the use of the error correction

model (ECM) which makes possible the capturing of both the short and long run dynamics of the model variables. The cointegration model is:

$$Rt = X_0 + X_1 \Delta R_{t-1} + X_2 \Delta R_{t-2} + \dots + X_{p-1} \Delta R_{t-p} + \Pi R_{t-p} + \mathcal{E}_i$$

The existence of r cointegrating vectors between the elements of R implies that Π is of the rank $r(0 < r < 4)$ where Π can be decomposed as:

$$\Pi = \alpha \beta^T$$

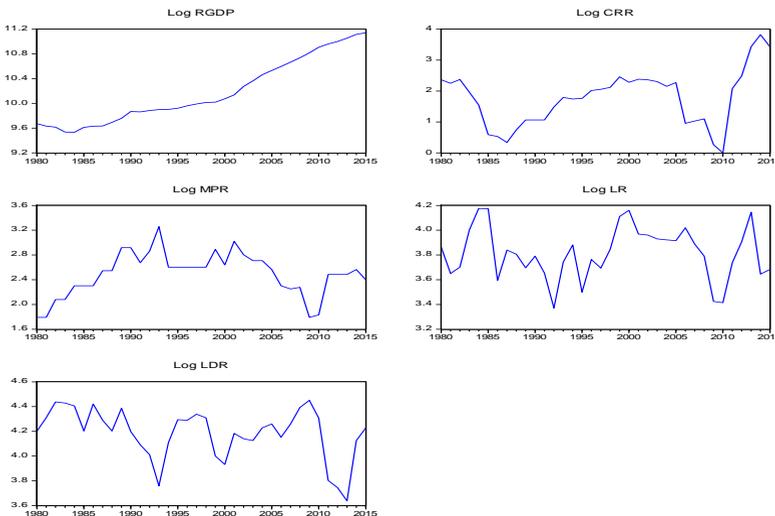
Thus the original Johansen equation can be re-written as:

$$Rt = X_0 + X_1 \Delta R_{t-1} + X_2 \Delta R_{t-2} + \dots + X_{p-1} \Delta R_{t-p} + \alpha(\beta^T R_{t-p}) + \mathcal{E}_i$$

Variable and data description

The regresand for this study is the real gross domestic product (RGDP). The regressors for the study are the monetary policy instruments: cash reserve ratio (CRR), monetary policy rate (MPR), liquidity ratio (LR) and loan-to-deposits ratio (LDR). The logarithmic values of RGDP, CRR, MPR, LR and LDR were 9.67, 2.36, 1.7, 3.86 and 4.20 in 1980 and 11.14, 3.43, 2.40, 3.68 and 4.23 in 2015 (tables 1-5).

Fig1-5: Log values of time series data of variables



Research Results

In this study the researcher employs ARDL approach to cointegration to examine whether there is existence of level relationship between monetary policy indicators and economic growth. The test procedure follows the usual format- unit root test, test of ergodicity,

LM test, Wald test, long run multiplier test and test of short run dynamism.

Unit Root Test on the Series of GDP, CRR, LR, LDR and MPR

Prior to the test of unit root, we determine the optimum lag length for the series. Table4. 1 presents the optimum lag selection results.

Table1: Optimum Lag Selection Results

Lag	Logl	LR	FPE	AIC	SC	HQ
0	-833.2439	NA	1.79e+15	49.30846	49.53293	49.38501
1	-677.2528	256.9264	8.20e+11	41.60311	42.94989*	42.06240*
2	-646.7738	41.23626*	6.58e+11*	41.28081*	43.74993	42.12285

Source: E-view Print Out

As shown in table1, the lowest value of final prediction error (FPE) and Akeike information criterion (AIC) can be traced to lag 2; while the lowest value of Schwarz and Hannan-Quine Information Criteria corresponds to lag 1. Thus, Scharz and Hannan-Quine select lag 1 while Akeike and final prediction error

select lag 2. The researchers are contented to follow the decision of Hannan-Quine in this study. In view of this the results of the unit test in table 2 is conducted using the maximum lag time (1) under the assumption of constant.

Table 2: Unit Test results on the Series of GDP, CRR, LR, LDR and MPR

Series	ADF	5% Critical Value	KPSS	5% Critical Value
GDP(0)	1.244539	-2.951125	0.636946	0.463000
GDP(1)	-3.360280	-3.548490	0.088081	0.146000
CRR(0)	-3.169035	-2.951125	0.347241	0.463000
LR(0)	-3.511210	-3.544284	0.079646	0.146000
LR(1)	-5.251192	-3.552973		
LDR(0)	-3.825946	-3.548490	0.067266	0.146000
LDR(1)	-2.898052	-3.544284		
MPR(0)	-2.968307	-2.948404	0.163174	0.146000
MPR(1)	-5.950910	-3.552973		

Source: E-view Print Out

The unit test is conducted using both the ADF and KPSS. The former is based on the null hypothesis that the series is not stationary while the later hinged on the null hypothesis that the series is stationary. The KPSS test is sometime investable because it is used in corroborating the ADF test. As indicated in table 2, the ADF test shows that the series of GDP is not stationary both at raw and first difference; but the KPSS reveals that the series of GDP is not

stationary at raw but stationary at first difference. The results of ADF and KPSS show that the series of cash reserve ratio is stationary at raw. The test of ADF shows that liquidity ratio, loan to deposit ratio and monetary policy ratio are stationary at first difference while KPSS indicates that the three series are stationary at raw. In summary, the two tests suggest that the series are I(0) and I(1) respectively. Therefore, there is overwhelming

evidence of mixed integration which undoubtedly informs applying bond test approach to cointegration in this study.

LM Test for the Unrestricted ARDL Residuals

One of the assumptions underlying bond test or ARDL approach to cointegration is that the residuals of the unrestricted ARDL must be free serial correlation. This assumption is confirmed in table3.

Table3: Test results of LM Serial Correlation Test

Lag	LM-Stat	P-Value
1	0.004973	0.9438
2	1.648279	0.1992
3	0.169527	0.6805
4	0.035016	0.8516
5	2.647192	0.1037

Source: E-view Print Out

Table3 shows that the LM statistics from lag 1 to 5 are very small and corresponded to large probability values. In each case, the probability value is larger than the alpha value at 5 percent implying that the null

hypothesis that there is no serial correlation cannot be rejected. Hence, the assumption of no serial correlation is satisfied. The next assumption is test of ergodicity which is reported in table 4.

Table 4: Results of the Test of Ergodicity or Stability

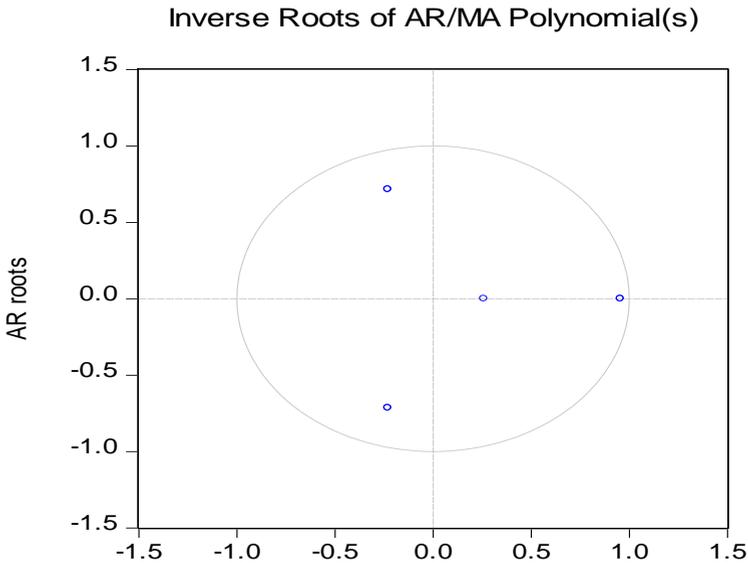
AR-Root	Modulus	Cycle
0.957549	0.957549	
-0.228425 ± 0.714433i	0.750062	3.341670
0.260535	0.260535	

Source: E-view Print Out

Looking at the values of the modulus in table 4, it is very overt that they are all respectively less than one (1). This

suggests that the ARDL system is stable. This result is re-enforced in figure 6.

Fig 6: Unit Cycle showing the Autoregressive Roots



The AR roots are colored blue and they all lie within the unit interval or cycle as shown in figure4.1. This further confirms the ergodicity of the ARDL model quoted in this study. Thus, all the preconditions to ARDL approach to cointegration have been met; I can now proceed to the bond test.

Bond Test

This test is analogously referred to ARDL approach to cointegration which can be conducted using Wald coefficient significant test. The test results are reported in table 5.

Table5: Wald Test result

Test Type	Value	DF	P-Value
F-statistic	3.269985	(5, 21)	0.0244
Chi-square	16.34992	5	0.0059

Source: E-view Print Out

The lower bound [I (0)] and upper bound [I (1)] values at 10% under the assumption of restricted constant and no trend are 2.08 and 3.00 respectively (see Pesaran, Shin & Smith, 2001) . The Wald test result shows that the F statistic is about 3.27 while the X² statistic is approximately 16.35. The F statistic 3.27 rests above the upper bound 3.00 indicating that there is level relationship. Also, the X² statistic 16.35

lies above the upper bound 3.00 implying the presence of level relationship. Therefore both the F and chi-square version tests attest that there is a long run relationship between monetary policy indicators and economic growth in Nigeria. In view of this evidence of long run relationship, we examine the long run multiplier effects among the variables. The results are shown in table 6.

Table 6: Long Run Multiplier Effects Results

Variable	Coefficient	Long Run Multiplier Effects
GDP(-1)	0.087585	
CRR(-1)	-103.562	1182.416
LDR(-1)	23.53083	-268.663
LR(-1)	71.42419	-815.484
MPR(-1)	108.0562	-1233.73

Source: E-view Print Out

The result in table 6 shows that 1 unit increase in cash reserve ratio will lead to 1182.416 units increase in growth but 1 unit increase in loan to deposit ratio, liquidity ratio and monetary policy will

lead to 268.663, 815.484 and 1233.73 respectively decrease in growth in the long run. Finally, the short run dynamic results and the ECM parameter are presented in table 7.

Table7: Short Run Dynamic Results

Variables	Coefficient	Std-Error	T-Value	P-Value
C	163.9340	257.9714	0.635474	0.5311
D(GDP(-1))	1.105481	0.315112	3.508212	0.0018
D(GDP(-2))	-0.094388	0.261582	-0.360837	0.7214
D(CRR(-1))	-47.55471	35.73881	-1.330618	0.1958
D(LDR(-1))	59.88540	20.51688	2.918836	0.0075
D(LR(-1))	46.20068	19.86990	2.325159	0.0288
D(MPR(-1))	97.86589	49.81064	1.964759	0.0611
ECM(-1)	-0.728373	0.402396	-1.810090	0.0828

Source: E-view Print Out

In table 7, the ECM parameter has a coefficient of -0.73 and corresponding to p-value of 0.08. Thus, the ECM has the right sign and is significant at 10 percent. This implies that nearly 73 percent disequilibrium between economic growth, cash reserve ratio, loan to deposit ratio, liquidity ratio and monetary policy rate is corrected within one year. The short run dynamic coefficient and corresponding p-values show that monetary policy rate, liquidity

ratio loan to deposit ratio maintain a significant association-ship with economic growth while cash reserve ratio display an insignificant coefficient.

Regression result

The resultant logarithmic equation from the OLS analysis is:

$$RGDP = 100896.5 + 884.29\ln(CRR)_t - 1521.49\ln(MPR)_t - 422.95\ln(LR)_t - 585.96\ln(LDR)_t + \mu_t \text{ (table 1)}$$

Table8: Regression results
 Dependent Variable: RGDP
 Method: Least Squares

Sample: 1980 2015
 Included observations: 36

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	100896.5	24632.34	4.096097	0.0003
CRR	884.2910	250.5944	3.528773	0.0013
MPR	-1521.490	564.8539	-2.693600	0.0113
LR	-422.9549	231.4934	-1.827071	0.0773
LDR	-585.9625	216.4205	-2.707518	0.0109
R-squared	0.617971	Mean dependent var		30311.90
Adjusted R-squared	0.555773	S.D. dependent var		17237.41
S.E. of regression	12716.33	Akaike info criterion		21.86741
Sum squared resid	5.01E+09	Schwarz criterion		22.08734
Log likelihood	-388.6133	Hannan-Quinn criter.		21.94417
F-statistic	8.327863	Durbin-Watson stat		2.328922
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000110			

The results for the intercept, CRR, MPR, and LDR are significant at 5% and the result for LR at 10%, with R^2 value at 0.56.

Research results and policy implications of findings

During the pre-SAP era, there were counter movements in monetary policies with the CRR declining steadily, and the MPR (then called the minimum rediscount rate), LR and LDR increasing. The resultant effect of these counter variations was a marginal decrease in GDP (fig 1-5). The SAP era witnessed increases in CRR and fluctuations in LR and LDR. In the post-SAP, CRR and MRR were fairly stable with fluctuations in LR and LDR. The counter movements of monetary policy instruments (an unclear non-directional monetary policy thrust) did not improve GDP. The bank consolidation era witnessed a consolidation of policy direction with CRR, MPR, LR and LDR declining sharply (an easy money policy

thrust), an indication of the government's desire to reflate the economy, increase spending and GDP. The effect was evident in the sharp increase in GDP. The post-global economic crisis era similarly witnessed a consolidation of direction in the monetary policy instruments (a tight money policy) with sharp increase in values of all monetary policy variables to curtail spending and inflation which further increased GDP.

OLS result of analysed logarithmic values of variables show that there exists a positive and significant relationship between RGDP and CRR with a coefficient of 884.29 (table 1) indicating that upward review of CRR by monetary authorities increases cash held by DMBs, increasing financial system stability, depositors' confidence, customer deposits with more funds available in the financial sector for lending for production expansion and growth. Furthermore, with reduced

funds for credit advancement, the level of prudence of DMBs in Nigeria improves with credits advanced to clearly identifiable businesses with low levels of defaults; overall increasing production capacity, production and operating profits manufacturing and financial sectors, and the economy.

The negative relationship existing RGDP and MPR indicates that upward movement in MPR increases cost of borrowing in the country, apathy to borrowing by businesses leading to reduction in investments and production capacity expansion; with spiral negative effects on the country's GDP.

The negative relationship existing between RGDP and LR also indicates that upward review of the ratio increases investments in low earning short-term liquid assets. Thus upward reviews in the value of this ratio hinders DMBs from investing in high earning long-term investments (financing of production capacity expanding machineries and infrastructures) and provide credit to economic agents, reducing GDP.

From table 1, a negative relationship is seen to exist between RGDP and LDR (with a coefficient of -585.96) indicating that restricting the amount of credit advanceable by DMBs to a percentage

of deposits held by them limits their credit advancing ability, with spiral negative effects on productive investments, spending, consumption and economic growth. Increasing deposits to increase credits may result in the introduction of unethical practices by DMBs with detrimental effects on financial stability and overall economic growth.

Recommendations

Findings from this study make upward review of CRR necessary to instill investment and financial discipline in the banking sector to ensure thorough scrutinization of credit requests and ensure that only viable investments are financed by DMBs. In addition, monetary authorities should consider an upward review of the value of MPR monetary policy instrument only as a last resort and in periods of hyperinflation, as its immediate and contagion effects may outweigh its benefits as indicated by the high level of the coefficient (table 1). Monetary authorities should also reduce the value of the LR ratio to increase investments in long-term assets to increase GDP; and lower the LDR rate to reduce unethical banking practices which may have negative contagion effects on Nigeria's economic growth.

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Demand for Branded Sausage Rolls in Ibadan Metropolis

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Abstract: With increasing urbanization and population growth in Nigeria, demand for fast food has increased considerably. The market for sausage roll of different brands in particular has continued to expand attesting to its competitive market. The need to determine the factors influencing the consumers' expenditure on branded sausage rolls and the extent of sales inequalities among sellers prompted this study. These objectives were achieved using multiple regression and Gini coefficient/Lorenz curve analyses. The study revealed that buying and selling of sausage rolls were common among the youths. Despite the expansion in the sausage rolls market, less than 1% (0.69%) of the respondent's monthly income was spent on sausage rolls. Gala has the largest market share (25.8%) and highest inequality in sales revenue (0.30). Fifty percent (50%) of the gala sellers controlled about 71% of the total sales for gala in the study area. Age, marital status, year of education and monthly income of respondents were factors influencing amount spent on sausage rolls per week in the study area. Brand dominance can be reduced if other competitors increase their market penetration and embark on market segmentation based on age and locations.

Keywords: Sausage rolls, Market share, Demand for fast food, Lorenz curve
JEL: C01, D11, D41

1.0 Introduction

Ready-to-eat foods can be described as the status of foods ready for immediate consumption at the point of sale and reasonably priced. Ready-to-eat

foods could be raw or cooked, hot or chilled and can be consumed without further heat treatment (Tsang, 2002; Habib, Dardak, & Zakaria, 2011). Different terms have been used to

describe ready-to-eat foods. These include convenient, ready, instant and fast foods. Examples of ready-to-eat foods include pastries such as meat pie, sausage rolls, burger; moin-moin, salad or coleslaw, fried meat, fried chicken, milk and milk products (Caserani & Kinston, 1974). In the last ten years, lifestyle and eating patterns have changed and as urban lifestyles get increasingly hectic, people no longer have enough time to cook meals at home, this has led to a gradual increase in demand for snack foods. Since these snacks and fast foods are readily available, many of the urban residents, especially the middle class, the youth and the children, obtain a significant portion of their diet from snacks and fast foods sold cheaply on the street (Olutayo & Akanle, 2009). Consumption of snacks is thus becoming a passion as snacks are sold everywhere, and may be eaten at every meal time as well as in between meals.

According to Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, sausage roll is a piece of sausage meat surrounded by pastry. It is sold along the roads in traffic, corner shops, open market, supermarkets and virtually in every nooks and crannies of major towns and cities in Nigeria. Among the fast foods, sausage roll is one of the most convenient fast foods. It is handy, tasty and affordable. The most popular branded sausage rolls in Nigeria are Gala, Meaty, Chopsy, Super bite/beef, Bigi, Yum yum and Rite spicy beef. According to Dailymail (2000), sausage rolls are an easily absorbed source of protein with some iron, zinc and B vitamins for a healthy immune and reproductive system. Studies (Jekanowski, Binkley & Eales, 2001; Schlosser, 2002) have shown that the

fast food industry has continually found ways to make its products more accessible, with retail outlets appearing in such varied locations as roadsides, motor parks, office buildings, department stores, and other public places. Fast food consumption is attributable to an increasing supply of convenience.

The major cities in Nigeria with high population density comprised of urban, semi urban and a few areas that are pre-urbanized. High demand for food including fast food (sausage roll) is common among residents and transiting travellers in these locations. According to Jekanowski *et al.* (2001), a distinguishing characteristic of fast food is its convenience. Consumption patterns of Nigerian in cities and urban centres have altered dramatically over the past several decades due to increase in the number of service industries like banking, oil and gas, marketing, telecommunication, education among others. This has led to increase in demand for meals prepared outside the home (fast food) because it is convenient and saves time. The study is aimed at adding to the existing literature (Kolade, 2015; Ladislav & Buchtova, 2015; Jekanowski *et al.*, 2001; Habib *et al.*, 2011) on the demand for fast food; sausage rolls in particular. The motivation for this study is based on the need to determine the market share of each brand of sausage rolls, the factors influencing the consumers' expenditure on sausage rolls per week and the extent of sales inequality among the sellers. To achieve the objective of the study, following research questions were raised:

- i. What are the socio economic characteristics of sellers and buyers of beefy sausages in the study area?

- ii. What is the market share of each brand of beefy sausage in the study area?
- iii. What are the factors influencing consumers' expenditure on branded sausage rolls?
- iv. What is the extent of sales inequality among the sellers branded sausage rolls?

2.0 Theoretical framework and literature review

According to Reynolds (2005), utility is the capacity of a good (or service) to satisfy a want. Concept of utility is one approach that explains the phenomenon of value. Factors that affect consumer behaviour include marketing factors (product design, price, promotion, packaging, positioning and distribution), personal factors (age, gender, education and income level), psychological factors such as buying motives, perception of the product and attitudes towards the product., situational factors (physical surroundings at the time of purchase, social surroundings and time factor), social factors (social status, reference groups and family) and cultural factors (religion, social class—caste and sub-castes). For instance, consumer's demand for a brand of sausage roll would be influenced by the price, packaging, size, consumer's income, taste, expiry date, and packaging among other factors. Specifically, demand theory establishes the relationship between the consumers demand for goods (e.g. sausage roll) and services and their prices. The demand analysis refers to the organized processes aimed at exploration of a certain variable behaviour (demand) in future, based on a systematic study of the existing historical data.

Various analytical tools methods have been used by scholars in demand

analysis. These are Almost Ideal Demand System (Adetunji & Rauf, 2012; Iwang, 2014; Motallebi & Pendell, 2013), The Linear Approximate Almost Ideal Demand System (LA/AIDS) (Green & Alston, 1991; Pashardes, 1993; Alston, Foster & Green, 1994; Buse, 1994; Hahn, 1994; Moschini, Moro & Green, 1994; Moschini, 1995; Asche & Wessels, 1997), Linear Expenditure System (Pollak, Robert & Wales, 1992), Double Hurdle model (Eakins, 2014; Blundell & Meghir, 1987; Newman, Henchion & Matthews, 2003; Akinbode & Dipeolu, 2012) and Quadratic Almost Ideal Demand System (Lakkakula, Schmitz & Ripplinger, 2016; Olorunfemi, 2013; Surabhi, 2010; Moro & Sckokai, 2000; Meenkashi & Ray, 1999; Gould & Villarreal, 2006; Banks, Blundell & Lewbel, 1997; Bopape & Myers, 2007). However, despite the wide usage of these analytical tools their shortcomings have been well documented in literature. For instance, AIDS model assumes non-linearity. The AIDS model may be difficult to estimate because the price index is not linear in terms of parameters estimated and particularly the income elasticity tends to be smaller as income increases. LA/AIDS models, as originally proposed by Deaton and Muellbauer (1980), did not consider the demographic variables. Also, the simplification in estimation of LA-AIDS is offset by difficulties in deriving the elasticities. According to Pollark and Wales (1969), Linear Expenditure System does not rest on a specification of the error structure, the properties of the estimator are not known. It should be noted, however, that it is not a maximum likelihood procedure since a maximum likelihood interpretation requires a disturbance covariance matrix proportional to the identity, whereas in

fact the covariance matrix of the system (although unknown) is singular. Determination of elasticities as expected in demand study is not obtained using double hurdle model. The study utilized Multiple Linear Regression (MLR) which is suitable for

the available data. It is an extension of simple linear regression. MLR is used to predict the value of a variable (dependent variable) based on the values of two or more other variables (independent variable). The explicit model of MLR is given as:

$$Y = \alpha_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i X_i + \epsilon_0 \dots\dots\dots(1)$$

Where:

- Y represents the dependent variable,
- X_i represents the independent variable
- ε₀ represents the error term

Measures of income inequality used in literature include Atkinson index (Lamporte, 2002; Atkinson & Micklewright, 1992, Regidor, Calle & Navarro., 2003), Coefficient of variation (Champernowne & Cowell, 1998; Campano & Salvatore, 2006), Generalised entropy index (Kawachi & Kennedy, 1997; Weich, Twigg & Holt, 2003; Hou & Myles, 2005; Cowell, 1995; Jenkins, 1991), Robin Hood index (Kennedy, Kawachi & Prothrow-Stith, 1996; Shi, Macinko & Starfield, 2003; Sohler, Arno & Chang, 2003) and Theil index (Cowell, 2003; Milanovic, 2002). While Atkinson index is subjective because the user can choose what subgroups to weight more heavily than others, the coefficient of variation would not be an appropriate choice of income inequality measure if a study's income data did not approach a normal distribution (Campano & Salvatore, 2006; Fernando, 2007). Also, the generalised entropy index result is often difficult to interpret. The Robin Hood framework does not incorporate a sensitivity parameter while Theil index is particularly sensitive to inequality

arising from extreme wealth and less sensitive to that arising from extreme poverty.

The study utilized Gini coefficient/Lorenz curve as a measure of income inequality. Gini coefficient is most sensitive to inequalities in the middle part of the income spectrum (Elisson, 2002; Hey & Lambert, 1980). It has been used extensively in literature (De Vogli, Mistry & Gnesotto, 2005; Beckfield, 2004; Blakely, Atkinson & O'Dea, 2003; Lopez, 2004) and it remains the most popular measure of income inequality (Fernando, 2007). The Gini coefficient measures inequality of a distribution (examples are income, sales revenue and output). It is defined as a ratio with values between 0 and 1. The numerator is the area between the Lorenz curve of the distribution and the uniform distribution line; the denominator is the area under the uniform distribution line (Garvy, 1952). The Gini index is the Gini coefficient expressed as a percentage, and is equal to the Gini coefficient multiplied by 100. It is expressed mathematically as:

$$G = 1 - \sum_{k=1}^n (X_k - X_{k-1})(Y_k - Y_{k-1}) \dots\dots\dots(2)$$

Where:

X_k is the cumulated proportion of the population variable.

Y_k is the cumulated proportion of the income variable, for $k = 0, \dots, n$, with $Y_0 = 0$, $Y_n = 1$.

3.0 Methodology

The study was carried out in Ibadan metropolis. The study made use of primary data collected with structured questionnaires in 2017. Multi-stage sampling technique was used. The first stage involved purposive selection of three local government areas (Ibadan North, Ibadan North East and Oluyole local government) out of six local government areas that make up Ibadan Metropolis. The choice of the local government was based on the large number of co-operate and commercial activities which encouraged demand for fast food (sausage rolls). The second stage also involved purposive selection of three major commercial centres from each of the selected local government areas. The third stage involved random selection of 15 sausage rolls sellers from the list obtained from the association of sausage roll sellers in the identified commercial centres. Also 20 respondents were selected from each of

the major commercial centers (3 per local government areas gave 60 respondents). A total of 180 and 135 questionnaires were administered for the sellers and consumers of sausage rolls respectively. However, 154 (sellers) and 122 (buyers) questionnaires were returned to time and good for analysis.

Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics, Gini coefficient/Lorenz curve and Multiple Linear Regression. Specifically, descriptive statistics was employed to profile the socioeconomic characteristics of the sellers and buyers of sausage rolls as well as estimating the market share of each of the identified sausage roll brands. Gini coefficient/Lorenz curve was employed to estimate the market concentration/extent of inequality of each brand of sausage rolls. The factors influencing the amount consumers spend on sausage roll per week was determined using multiple linear regression.

(i) *Gini- Coefficient*

$$G_1 = 1 - \sum_{k=1}^n (X_k - X_{k-1})(Y_k + Y_{k-1}) \dots\dots\dots(3)$$

Where:

Y_k is the cumulated proportion of the number of seller for each brand of sausage roll.

X_k is the cumulated proportion of the daily sales revenue recorded for each brand of sausage roll.

(ii) *Multiple linear regression model:*

$$ASS = a_0 + a_1MIC + a_2AGR + a_3SER + a_4YOE + a_5HHS + a_6MSR + \epsilon_0 \dots \dots \dots (4)$$

Where:

ASS represents the amount consumers spent on sausages per week in the study area.

MIC represents monthly income of respondent (consumer) (₦ in naira)

AGR represents age of respondents (in years)

SER represents sex of respondents (male = 1, female = 0)

YOE represents the years of education of respondents (consumer)

HHS represents household size of respondents (consumer)

MSR represents marital status of respondents (consumer)

ϵ_0 represents random term

4.0 Results and Discussion

Profile of sausage sellers and consumers: The study revealed that 58 percent of the sausage rolls buyers were male while expectedly 82.3 percent of the sellers were female. Female are more into trading in sausage rolls than male in Nigeria. The often employ youth to assisting hawking on the

highway. Also majority (52.0 percent) of sausage roll consumers were single while 45 percent were married. The buyers (96.0 percent) and the sellers (92.2 percent) were well educated. The large number of educated buyer means that the value for the money spent on the sausage rolls was assured (see Table 1).

Table 1: Socioeconomic characteristics of buyers and sellers of sausage roll

Variables	Percentage of buyers	Percentage of sellers
<i>Sex</i>		
Male	58	17.6
Female	42	82.3
<i>Level of education</i>		
No formal education	4.00	7.8
Primary education	4.00	27.5
Secondary education	12.00	39.2
OND/NCE	17.00	15.7
HND/BSc	43.00	9.8
Post graduate	20.00	0.00
<i>Marital status</i>		
Single	52.00	23.5
Married	45.00	72.5
Divorced	3.00	3.9

Source: Field Survey (2017)

The averages of the buyers and sellers ages were 26.5years and 37.7years respectively. Majority of the consumers and sellers were within the age bracket of 18 – 27 and 28 – 37years respectively (see Figure 1). Few

respondents above 47years of age consumed sausage rolls. This shows that the consumption and sales of sausage rolls was dominated by youths in their economic active ages.



Figure 1: Age distribution of buyers and sellers of sausage rolls

The study also showed that the average household sizes of the consumer and sellers were 4.3 and 4.2 respectively. The distribution revealed that most respondents had household size below the average values (positive skewness).

Among the brands of sausage rolls in the study area, Gala (big and small) had the highest market share of 25.8 percent. This may be attributed to its consistent

quality and taste over the years. The market share was followed by Bigi (17.8 percent) and Ritespicy (17.0 percent) (see Table 2). This may be due to its big size, attractive packaging and consumer friendly advertisement. Despite gala having the highest market share, ritespicy had the highest average daily sales of ₦288.10. This was followed by superbite and gala respectively.

Table 2: Market share (%) and average daily sales of sausage rolls

Sausage rolls	Number of buyers	Market Share (%)	Average daily sales (₦)
Gala	89	25.8	263.8
Chopsy	25	6.3	200.0
Superbite	51	12.8	288.1
Yummyum	42	10.5	263.5
Ritespicy	68	17.0	313.3
Bigi	71	17.8	203.1
Beefie	19	4.8	200.0
Meaty	20	5.0	200.0

Source: Field Survey (2017)

The study showed that most buyers of sausage rolls (59.0 percent) were within the monthly income ₦50,001 - ₦150,000 while the average monthly income was ₦101,082.50. The average monthly sales by sellers was ₦42,055.00. The price charged by different brands was the same (₦50 per one). The percentage of monthly income of respondents (consumers) spent on sausage rolls in the study area was

0.69%. This means that 0.69% of the buyer's monthly income would be spent on sausages (see Table 3). This may be attributed to occasional demand for sausage rolls by most consumers who did not consider it as 'must eat' unlike the staple food. This was corroborated by the study that majority of consumers (45%) bought two pieces of sausage rolls per week

Table 3: Distribution of monthly income of respondents (buyers and sellers)

Monthly income (₦)	Percentage of buyers	Monthly sales (₦)	Percentage of sellers
At most 50000	28.0	At most 20000	5.9
50001 - 150000	59.0	20001 - 40000	33.3
150001 - 250000	9.0	40001 - 60000	47.1
250001 - 350000	2.0	Above 60000	13.7
Above 350000	2.0	Total	100.0
Total	100.0		
Mean	₦101,082.50	Mean	₦42,055.00
Std. deviation	₦68,907.17	Std. deviation	₦14,111.45
Skewness	2.21	Skewness	-0.09

Average amount spent on sausage rolls per month by respondents = ₦700

Percentage of monthly income spent on sausage rolls by buyers = 0.69%

Source: Field survey (2017)

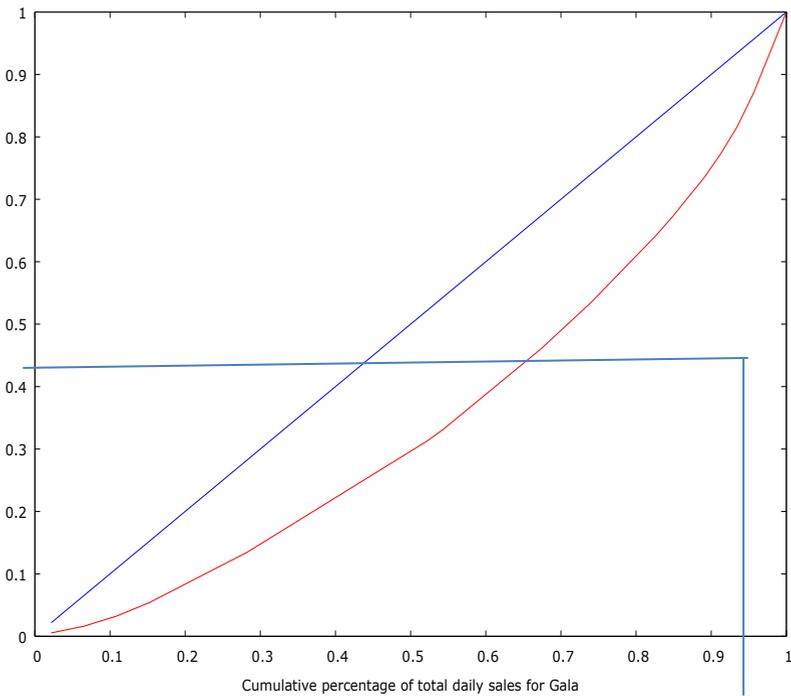
The extent of inequalities in sales revenue among sausage sellers: the study revealed that gala had the highest inequality (concentration) in average daily sales. This was followed by meaty and superbite (see Table 3). This result was confirmed by the Lorenz curves (see Figures 2, 3, 4 & 5). The figure shows that 50.0% of the gala sellers controlled about 71.0% of the total daily sales of gala sausage roll while 50.0% of

the meaty sellers controlled about 69.0% of the total daily sales of meaty sausage roll in the study area. Also, 50.0% of the super bite sellers control about 65.0% of the total daily sales of super bite in the study area. Since there was uniformity in the price per unit of sausage rolls, the inequality may be attributed to location of seller's stall/shop and how the seller relates with buyer.

Table 4: Gini coefficients of sausage rolls

Sausage rolls	Gini coefficient estimate
Gala	0.30
Meaty	0.28
Superbite	0.20
Bigi	0.19
Ritespicy	0.18
Yummyum	0.16
Chopsy	0.10
Beefie	0.09

Source: Field Survey (2017)



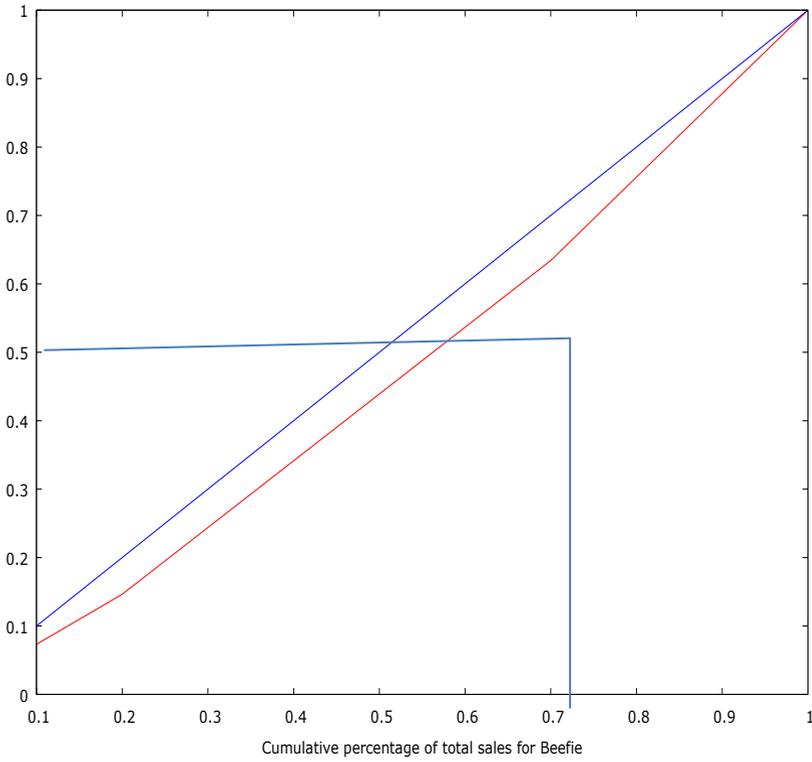
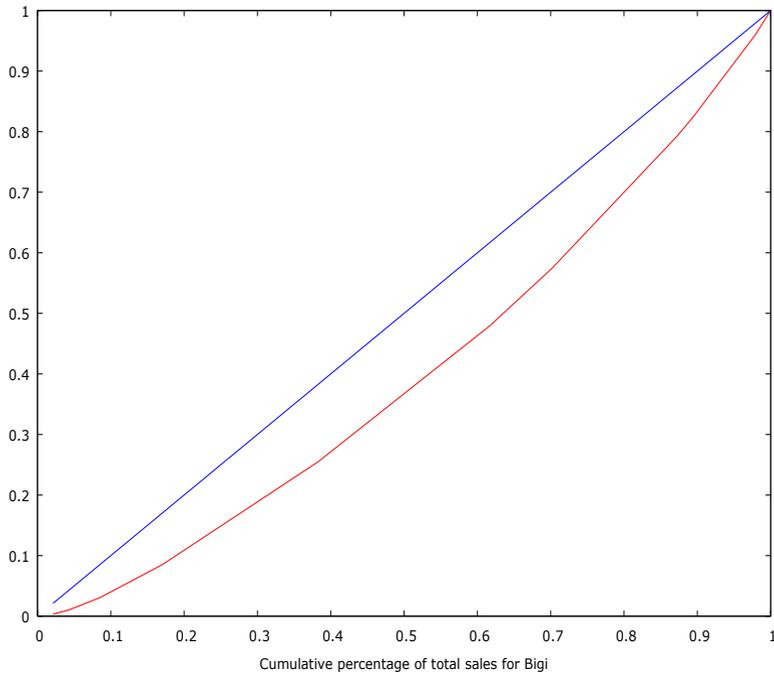


Figure 2: Sale revenue Lorenz curves for Gala and Beefie sausage rolls



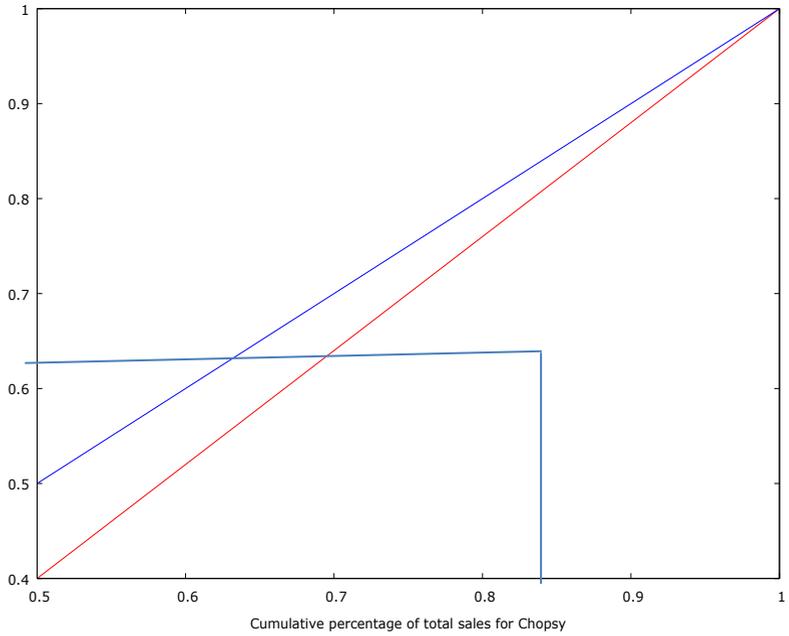
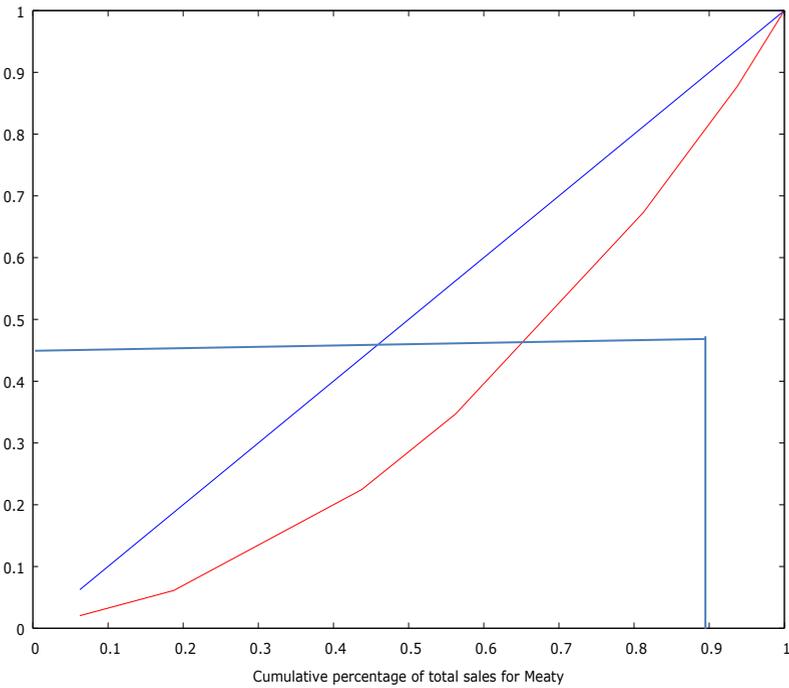


Figure 3: Sale revenue Lorenz curves for Bigi and Chopsy sausage rolls



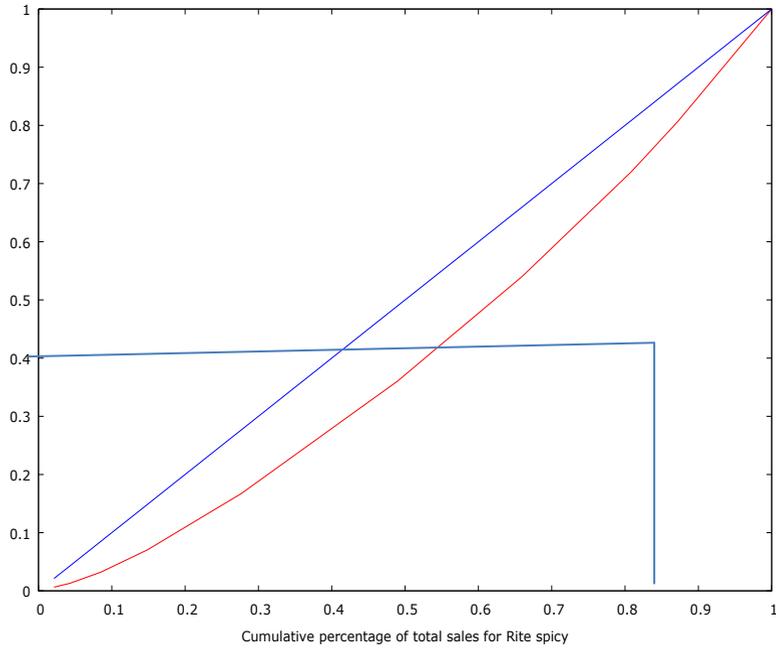
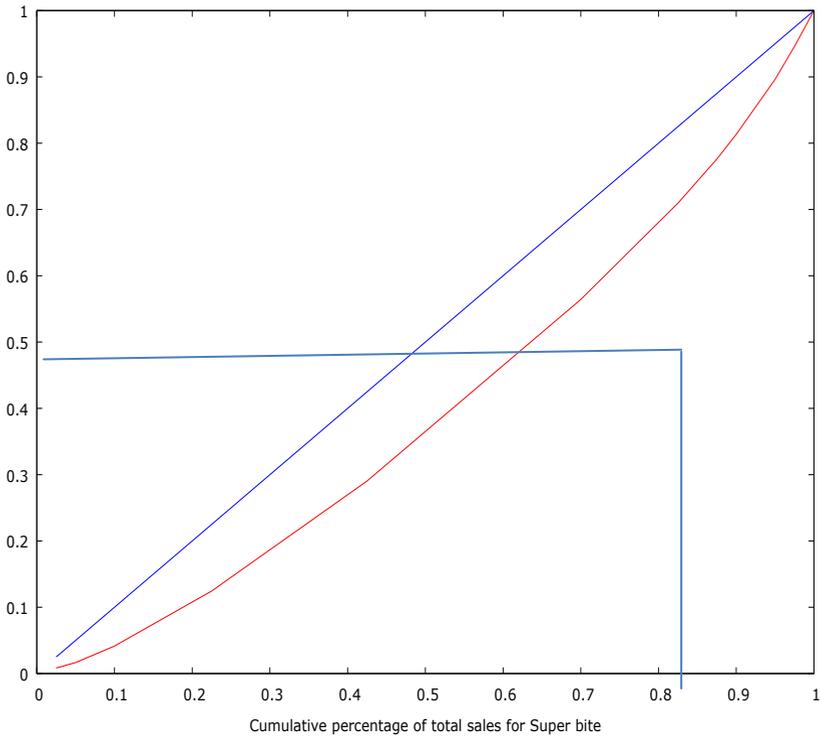


Figure 4: Sales revenue Lorenz curves for Meaty and Rite spicy sausage rolls



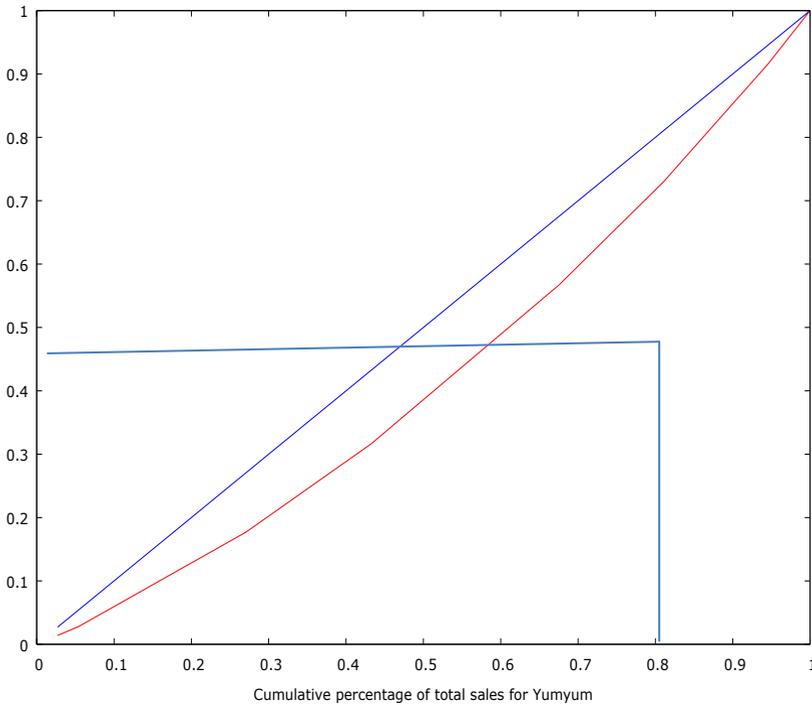


Figure 5: Sales revenue Lorenz curves for Superbite and Yumyum sausage rolls

Factors influencing consumers' expenditure on sausage rolls: the regression result is shown in Table 5. The model has F-value of 6.51, this shows that the model has a good fit ($p < 0.01$). The adjusted R-squared of 0.653 showed that 65.3 percent variation in the weekly amount spent on sausage rolls generally was explained by the significant independent variables. Out of six (6) independent variables considered, the coefficients of four (4) independent variables (age of respondent, marital status of respondents, year of education and monthly income of respondents) significantly influenced the amount consumers spend on sausage rolls per week. The coefficient of age was negative and significant ($p < 0.01$). This means that for unit increase in the age of respondent, amount spend on sausage

rolls decreases. This is in agreement with the earlier findings which showed that consumption of sausage rolls was common among the youth. There are some foods that one avoids as one is getting older which may be based on advice by nutritionist. The negative and significant relationship ($p < 0.01$) between the marital status and the weekly expenditure on sausage rolls may be because almost all married persons eat cooked meal at home. Hence, the reduction in weekly expenditure on sausage rolls for every married individual. Moreover, the positive and significant relationship ($p < 0.05$) between the weekly expenditure on sausage rolls and the year of education may be attributed to carry-over of eating habit from school on consumption of fast food because of tight schedule of students. Also,

increase in job responsibilities of the respondents give little time to cook, thus spending more on sausage rolls. This is

in agreement with the study of Amao and Ayantoye (2014).

Table 5: Result of regression analysis

Variables	Coefficient	Standard error	t-value	p –value
AGR	-5.202***	2.019	-3.18	0.0015
HHS	5.867	4.697	1.17	0.2420
MRS	-13.133***	5.005	2.62	0.0088
SER	19.212	22.694	0.84	0.4009
YOE	4.764**	2.380	2.00	0.0455
MIC	-2.243*	1.158	-1.94	0.0524
Constant	2.942	54.063	0.05	0.9570

Dependent variable: Amount spent by respondents on sausage rolls per week (ASS)
 $R^2 = 0.653$, $F(6, 93) = 6.51$, $\text{Prob} > F = 0.000$.

NOTE: *, **, *** represents 10%, 5% and 1% level of significance respectively.

Source: Field Survey (2017)

5.0 Conclusion and recommendation

The study examined the demand for trademarked sausage rolls by consumers in Ibadan metropolis. The results showed that most of the sausage rolls consumers were between the ages of 18-47 years while majority of the sausage roll sellers were within 28 - 37 years of age. Sales of sausage roll were dominated by female (82.3%). Most of the consumers and sellers were educated. The buyers and sellers had average household sizes of 4.3 and 4.2 respectively. The study revealed that gala brand had the largest market share (25.8%) as well as highest inequality in

daily sales revenue. The study affirmed that the buyers spent less than 1% (0.69%) of their monthly income on sausage rolls. Age, marital, year of education and monthly income of respondents were the factors influencing the weekly amount spent on sausage rolls by the consumers. The study showed that the sausage roll producers have to come-up with market segmentation in order to raise the amount spent on sausage rolls by consumers. Also strategy should be put in place not to allow the inequality in the sales of sausage rolls be too pronounced.

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Impact of Social Media on Brand Equity and Profitability in Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises in Nigeria

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Abstract: Social media has opened doors of endless opportunities for businesses at little or no cost and over the years social media has gradually been gaining ground in the world. The objective of this study was to assess the impact of social media on brand equity and profitability in micro, small and medium enterprises in Nigeria with particular emphasis on the Federal Capital Abuja. The survey method was adopted for the study and questionnaires were administered as method of primary data collection. The data was analysed by the simple descriptive percentage method and formulated hypotheses tested using Kendall coefficient of concordance method. And the findings revealed that there is need for social media in business interaction in Nigeria, there is significant impact of social media on brand equity and brand equity have impact on profitability in micro, small and medium enterprises in Nigeria and there is also a significant impact of social media on consumer purchase decision. The study among other things recommended that Micro, small and medium enterprises should create a social media plan that fits into their goals and objectives, post on social media platforms regularly, build relationships and be professional in their dealings with consumers, in order to improve on their profitability

Keywords: Social media, Brand equity, Profitability, Micro, Small & Medium Enterprises.

1. Introduction

Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises (MSMEs) has gradually continued to be

vital to nations not just in terms of monetary value but also in terms of economic development. They are a

strong source for providing employment and this improves the standard of living drastically and in turn reduces poverty rate in a nation. Most social media platforms are free and with millions of users every day, it provides a wide selection of customers for business to select from and this result in high performance and little cost. Social media platforms have provided business and individuals an opportunity to interact efficiently on business and personal level. It has provided an opportunity for word-of-mouth communication far and wide without limitation of distance and at very little cost as compared to traditional method of communication. According to Fournier & Avery (2011), Muniz & Schau (2011), and Ulusu (2010), social media aids in improving sales, including consumers in their brands, boosting brand awareness, positive associations and enhancing consumer loyalty towards a brand. Managing social media properly can help to attract a lot of consumers, and consumers when they are satisfied will bring in more through referral which will enhance profitability.

A lot of people spend time on the internet searching for information on what to buy and where to buy, so the method in which a business does its marketing will go a long way in influencing the decision of consumer. In as much as social media is used for business communication among businesses and consumers, it is also used for consumer to consumer communication as reviews and suggestions are shared. As compared to traditional methods of marketing, social media creates platforms for consumers to interact among themselves rather than just watch and accept whatever that they see or hear. They have the opportunity

to ask for opinions from others who have had experience with the product, service or brand. Social media has also created a platform where businesses can answer enquiries and request thereby building relationship between brands and consumers. Social media gives the freedom for businesses to market their product, service or brand with no restriction to location or distance and for consumers to get and also share opinions and information with fellow consumers and if the reviews are positive, it can boost the businesses.

However, MSMEs are yet to partake in this social media tradition as most are still wary. The aim of most MSMEs is to build brands and make profits, social media shows all the signs of achieving these. It is in view of this that this study aims to create knowledge about the impact of social media on brand equity and profitability in micro, small and medium enterprises in Nigeria

1.1 Statement of The Problem

According to the United Nations Industrial Development Organisation (UNIDO) and investment and technology promotion office (ITPO) Nigeria, only 20% of MSMEs survives (onlinenigeria.com, 2017). A lot of micro, small and medium enterprises start but are faced with a lot of challenges as regards to reaching a larger consumer base, and traditional method of reaching them are quite costly. Social media shows prospect of providing a solution to both problems. Social media also provides an opportunity for businesses to create and build relationships with consumers.

Although a lot of MSMEs are aware of social media, most do not know the business value and strategy attached to using it to boost business, build brand equity, enhance profitability and

influence consumer purchase decision. There are not many studies on the advantages and challenges of using social media for marketing in MSMEs, that would help MSMEs in Nigeria to know what social media marketing would benefit to their businesses and which particular techniques to use to achieve success. This gap arises from lack of adequate studies on the use of social media to build brand equity among MSMEs, this study among other things intends to fill. The study will focus on the impact of social media on brand equity and profitability of micro, small and medium enterprises with particular emphasis on consumers in the federal capital territory of Nigeria.

1.2 Objective of the Study

The broad objective of the study is to assess the impact of social media on brand equity and profitability in MSMEs in Nigeria using the Federal Capital Territory as a case study. However, the framework of this study seeks specifically to:

- i. Assess the need of social media in business interaction in Nigeria.
- ii. Determine the impact of social media in building brand equity.
- iii. Examine the impact of brand equity on profitability of Micro, small and medium enterprises in Nigeria.
- iv. Analyse the relationship between social media and consumer purchase decision.

1.3 Research Questions

It is in view of the problem of the impact of social media on brand equity in SMEs in Nigeria that this study seeks to provide answers to the following questions:

1. Are there needs for social media in business interaction in Nigeria?
2. Do social media have any significant impact on brand equity?

3. Does brand equity have any significant impact on micro, small and medium enterprise profitability in Nigeria?
4. Is there any impact of social media on consumer purchase decision?

1.4 Hypotheses of the Study

The following hypotheses have been formulated for validation in line with the research questions.

- H01. There is no need for social media in business interaction in Nigeria.
- H02. There is no significant impact of Social media on brand equity.
- H03. There is no significant impact of brand equity on micro, small and medium enterprises profitability in Nigeria.
- H04. There is no significant impact of social media on consumer purchase decision in FCT, Nigeria.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Conceptual Framework

2.1.1 Social Media

Social media has created a platform for both businesses and customers to communicate worldwide. Mangold and Faulds (2009) describe social media as “a set of online word of mouth forums or social networks”. Social media is used to discuss and share information among people and business. Businesses and consumers can use the functions of social media as a criteria for market segmentation, where they want to reach professionals they concentrate on linkedIn or artist they use instagram to show or view pictures. This has enabled productive marketing and time management. Kwok & Yu (2013) stated that customers trust reviews from other customers more than those posted by businesses. Fishler & Reuber (2011) discovered that better results were achieved if twitter was adequately used

and twitter was much valuable in respect to building relationships. There are two types of social media word of mouth communication: firm-generated and user-generated. Firm-generated word of mouth is generated by the firm and user-generated content is dependent on the customers. Social media has provided customers the opportunity to investigate more and get more information about products, services and business before making a decision. Satisfied people share their positive experience and dissatisfied ones share their negative ones. As much as positive information boost the brand, negative information may cause damage to the brand image (Bambauer-Sachse & Mangold, 2010).

DEI Worldwide (2008) found that 70% of the customers go on social network site to get information about products, services or brand and 49% of this customers base their buying decision on these information. Social media provides a platform for firms and organisations to gather intelligence information by studying behaviour of the target market on social media. (Gillin & Schwartzman, 2011). One of the main benefit of social media is said to be cost saving. The use of social media in small businesses is to enhance brand exposure and this happens when a customer becomes aware of the product, service or brand, consciously or unconsciously. (Rugova & Prenaj,

2016). A lot of social media sites have so many information for their users and businesses can use this information to reach their target market (Celine, 2012). Social media has created a platform for customers to write reviews, make enquiries and share their experiences easily. According to Rugova & Prenaj (2016) this can enhance better relationships between MSMEs and their customers and also aids MSMEs to enhance their brand image, improve sales and treat customers better. Although firms use social media for marketing, communication about the brand continues to take place independent of the firm (Kietzmann, Hermkens, McCarthy & Silvestre, 2011). Therefore, it is important for businesses to know how to manage social media to build brand equity, thereby improving profitability.

2.1.2 Social Media Model (Honeycomb Model)

According to Honeycomb Model of Smith (2007) social media sites are built upon seven functional blocks: identity, conversation, sharing, presence, relationships, reputation, and groups. This study attempts to explain the different use and functions of social media sites and the implications of these functions in businesses. The aim of these model is to create a better understanding of the social media.

Figure 2.1: Honeycomb Model (Smith, 2007)



i. Identity

This identity block is about the rate individuals or businesses disclose their identity publicly (i.e. name, age, interest) on social media. They also set out to disclose other details about themselves consciously or unconsciously such as thoughts, feelings, likes, and dislikes (Kietzmann et al., 2011).

ii. Conversation

The conversations block is about the degree individuals or organisations interact with each other on social media. As much as people post on social media to meet new people, others post for other reasons or causes like politics or to create awareness.

iii. Sharing

The sharing block is mainly about the degree to which users share information, opinion or reviews on social media. This information shared tends to spread more and more among other users. This may be either positive or negative information.

iv. Presence

The presence block is the degree to which users know other users are available on social media. This can be from information about their status or locations. Businesses can use this

information to create conversations and make their businesses more influential among the users.

v. Relationships

The relationships block is about the relationship of a user to other users on social media, if the assemblage of relationships the user has is large, this is likely to make the user more influential on social media.

vi. Reputation

The reputation block is about the user's position on social media, and this can be earned through posted shared, likes and dislikes. Business will have to share valuable contents in order to build their relationship and strengthen their reputation.

vii. Groups

The Groups block is the degree to which a user can create or be a part of a group on social media. The more the fans, followers, likes, the more influential the group will be. They are users who define themselves based on the groups they are a part of.

2.1.3 Social Media Networks

In this study, we selected the top social media networks known to the public

Facebook: this is well known social media platforms today. Facebook started as a network among Harvard students on 4th February, 2004. It was founded by Mark Zuckerberg, Andrew McCollum and Eduardo Saverin. Facebook created a platform for businesses to have direct access to customers in 2007. A lot of people can now register with Facebook for free, meet and interact with other users, create groups, post photos and share personal details with users that they have accepted as friends. Based on data, Facebook has 1.71 billion active users per month (statista.com, 2017). It has also recently introduced the Facebook messenger, a prompt messaging application that is used with individual Facebook accounts to end instant messages.

WhatsApp: WhatsApp Messenger is a free instant messaging application. WhatsApp was founded by Brian Acton and Jan Koum in 2009. The application allows users to send messages, create groups, share photos, documents and other information to users that he/she has access to their mobile phone numbers and are registered with whatsapp. Facebook acquired WhatsApp in February 2014. WhatsApp had a user base of over one billion, making it the most popular messaging application at the time (statista.com, 2017).

Instagram: Instagram is a photo-sharing application that allows users share photos and videos publicly or privately with accepted followers. Instagram was founded by Kevin Systrom and Mike Krieger, and launched in October 2010. It allows users post photos and videos and allows them to add hashtags to them, making it available during search. Instagram accounts can be linked to facebook,

where if a user post on instagram, it shows on facebook. Instagram was acquired by Facebook in April, 2012. Instagram has 700 million (statista.com 2017).

Twitter: twitter is an online news social media platform where users post and interact with messages called "tweets". On twitter registered users can view and post tweet while non-registered user can only view tweets. Jack Dorsey, Noah Glass, Biz Stone, and Evan Williams founded twitter. It was launched in July 2006. Twitter has more than 319 million monthly active users (<https://about.twitter.com/company>),

LinkedIn: LinkedIn was founded by Reid Hoffman and launched in 2003. LinkedIn is a social media network that allows professional to communicate with other professionals, where members can view or post job offers and share professional information. Today LinkedIn has more than 443 million members in 200 different countries of the world (<https://www.linkedin.com/>, 2017).

Youtube: YouTube was founded in 2005 by Char Hurley, Steve Chen, Jawed Karim. Youtube is a social media network that allows registered users share their videos and advertise their products, services or brand. Google acquired Youtube in 2006. YouTube has over 1 billion users and is available in 76 languages (<https://www.youtube.com>, 2017).

2.1.4 Social Media in Nigeria

Since the conception of social media, the use of social media continues to grow steadily in Nigeria . Below is the statistics of social media users in Nigeria.

Table 2.1: Statistics of Social Media Platforms in Nigeria

Social Media Platforms	Population (in Millions)
Facebook	16
WhatsApp	24.2
Black Berry Messenger	4.03
Instagram	3.24
LinkedIn	1.07
Twitter	1.82

Source: (Lawore, 2016)

2.2 Brand Equity

Brand equity is simply defined as the value of a product, service or brand. Aaker (1991) defines brand equity as a “set of brand assets and liabilities linked to a brand, its name and symbol that add to or subtract from the value provided by a product or service to a firm and/or to that firm’s customers”. Brand equity can be defined both from consumer and firm based perspectives. The consumer based aspect is mainly about value of the brand in the consumer’s mind. The firm based aspect talks about product market outcomes such as price premium, market share, relative price, and financial market outcomes such as brand’s purchase price and discounted cash flow of license fees and royalties (Ailawadi, Lehmann, & Neslin, 2003; Keller & Lehmann, 2001). Keller (1993) proposes the definition of customer-based brand equity as “the differential effect of brand knowledge on consumer response to the marketing of the brand”.

The theory of Aaker (1991) and Keller (1993) explain brand equity clearly. According to Aaker (1991), brand equity is a concept with first four major element as brand awareness, perceived quality, brand associations and brand loyalty and Keller’s (1993) brand equity focuses on brand knowledge with its two element; brand awareness and brand

image. A brand is set to have a positive or negative customer based brand equity when consumers react more or less positively to the marketing program (Keller, 1993). If the consumer has a positive impression of value in his mind about a brand it is called brand equity (Orji, Akhimien, Boman, Ikegwuro, 2014). Kotler and Keller (2006) define brand equity as the added value endowed to product and services. The value can be viewed in terms of the impression the customer have towards the brand, this includes market share, prices, how the customer think, feel and act in respect to the brand(Orji et al, 2014). Aaker (1991) stated that brand equity can be positive or negative and positive brand equity is created by effective promotion and consistently exceeding the customer’s thoughts, while negative brand equity is caused by bad management. Brand equity can be managed in three ways of; brand reinforcement which has to do with restructuring and relevance, brand revitalization which is to revive the fading brand and brand crisis and by managing brand crisis swiftly and sincerely (Kotler and Keller, 2006). This study lays emphasis on consumer based theory of brand equity.

2.3 Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises in Nigeria

Micro, Small and medium enterprises have been generally acknowledged as the foundation of the industrial development of any country (Hakeem, 2013). Businesses in Nigeria has been classified as micro, small, medium and large. However, an MSME can be explained by the criteria of project costs, capital, number of employees, sales volume, annual business turnover and the financial strength (Ayozie, Oboreh, Umukoro & Ayozie, 2013). There has been no specific definition of MSMEs in Nigeria and worldwide. In Nigeria, the small scale industries association of Nigeria (1973) defined small scale business as those having investment (i.e. capital, land, building, and equipment of up to N60,000 and employing not more than fifty persons; the Federal Ministry of Industries defined it as those enterprises that cost not more than N500,000 including working capital to set up; the Centre for Management Development (CMD) view of small industry in the policy proposal submitted to the federal government in 1982, defined small scale industry as, “a manufacturing processing, or servicing industry involved in a factory of production type of operation, employing up to 50 full-time workers” (Ayozie, et al, 2013).

Shokan, (2000) stated that one of the contribution of MSMEs to Nigeria economic development include employment provision. A fact confirmed by Onwuchruba (2001), who stated that over 80% of registered businesses are MSMEs. The activities of MSMEs have enhanced the standard of living by contributing to the development of the labour market and directly tackled unemployment and

contributed to the nation’s gross national product (Ayozie, et al 2013). MSMEs are known to be very vital to the development of every economy. The 2012 Enterprise Baseline Survey reveals that MSMEs in Nigeria employ over 32,414,884 people in Nigeria, and employment generation capacity of about 58% of global working population (Alochenu, 2014). According to Alochenu, (2014), SMEs contribute up to 46.7% of national GDP in nominal terms and offer veritable outlets for technological advancement especially in businesses with rudimentary technology requirements. Despite new initiatives and repeated attempts by both the government and the private sectors to promote the activities of MSMEs in Nigeria, research still documents that 70% of MSMEs do not make it past their first three years of operation (Akingbolu, 2014). In developing countries, there is a need to create an environment to encourage MSMEs to grow. In Nigeria, the role of MSMEs often offer prospect for creating employment opportunities and enhancing the standard of living (Ayozie, et al, 2013).

2.4 Profitability

Profit as universally known is the difference between the total expenses incurred in producing or acquiring a commodity and the total revenue accruing from sales and this difference may be expressed in a return on capital, the total profit over a year being related to the amount of capital employed (Orji, Andah, Chima, Boman, 2017). Profit is a residual reward payable to the entrepreneurs after all the other costs of the business have been met. While the firm may survive one year and perhaps two without making a profit, it will in the long run go out of business if it

cannot pay a dividend to its shareholders (Orji et al, 2017). While the word profitability is composed of two words, namely, ‘profit’ and ‘ability’ the term ability in this regard means the power to earn or perform. Thus, profitability may be defined as the ability of a given investment to earn a return from its use, profitability is a relative concept whereas profit is an absolute connotation (Tulsian, 2014). Although they are similar and interrelated, they are different. Profit should not be used in measuring the efficiency of a business and low profitability does not mean the business has failed; therefore to measure the productivity of capital employed and to measure operational efficiency, profitability analysis is considered as one of the best techniques (Tulsian, 2014).

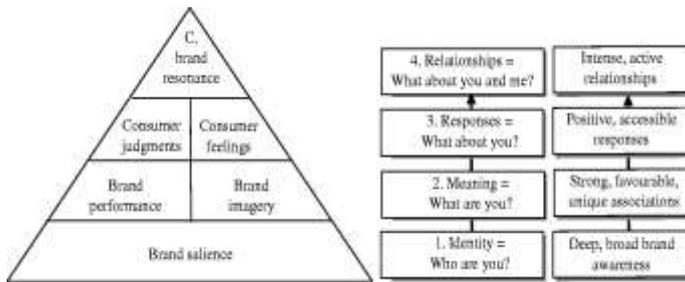
2.5 Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework upon which this study is based on is the customer base brand equity theory (CBBE) by

Keller (2001). Keller (2001) defined consumer base brand equity as differences in customer response to marketing activity. The concept is basically on the value of a product, service or brand in the mind of the customers based on their experiences with them.

According to Keller (2001) the customer-base brand equity theory are in 4 steps; the first is to make sure that the customer identifies and associate with the brand, secondly is to create the brand meaning in the mind of customers, thirdly is to get the appropriate customer response to the brand identity and brand meaning and lastly is to create a brand relationship between the customer and the brand by establishing brand response and based on these steps Keller’s theory identifies 6 elements which include ; brand salience, brand performance, brand imagery, brand feeling, brand judgement and brand relationship (Keller, 2001).

Figure 2.2 Keller’s Customer-Based Brand Equity Pyramid



Source: Keller (2001b, p.10)

i. Brand identity: Achieving the right identity involves creating brand salience which has to do with creating brand awareness of the brand; brand awareness is the ability for a customer to remember a brand. This stage is the foundation in developing brand equity (Keller, 2001).

ii. Brand meaning: brand meaning is made up brand performance and brand imagery and these can be established based on a customer’s own experience with the brand. Brand performance is the way a product or service tries to meet the needs of the customers and Brand imagery this refers to what the

customer thinks about the brand (Keller, 2001)

iii. Brand response: The way customers react towards a brand either through thought or feelings is referred to as brand response and it is made up of two dimension; Brand judgement: this can be seen as the perceived quality of the brand by the customer and Brand feeling which is the emotional reaction a customer has towards a brand. This can be negative or positive (Keller, 2001).

iv. Brand relationship: this is refers to the relationship between the customer and the brand (Keller, 2001).

This is to simply say that to maintain a strong customer-base brand equity it involves establishing and creating the appropriate identity, establishing right brand meaning, creating the proper brand responses, and creating the right brand relationship with customers (Keller, 2001).

2.6 Impact of Social Media on Brand Equity on MSMEs Profitability

Social media offers great opportunities. Lawore (2016) stated that the advantage of social media to conventional media is its ability to reach large audience, target the right audience, high return on investment (ROI), cost effective, easy growth management, researches and expansion evaluation. Rugova and Prenaj (2016) says that customers become aware of the product or service if MSMEs adopt and implement the social media in their businesses.

Social media enhances brand equity when it is effectively used in marketing (Babac, 2011). Social media campaigns enhances brand loyalty significantly and this results in high profitability (Menezes & Devi, 2016). The use of social media businesses can build brand equity of products, service or brand, which will result in attracting customers

and subsequently result into profitability (Severi, Ling, & Nasermoadei, 2014).

2.6.1 Impact of Social Media on MSMEs in the Federal Capital Territory

The federal capital territory commonly known as FCT is a capital territory in Nigeria. FCT was formed in 1976 from parts of Nasarawa, Niger, Kogi State. According to the United Nations (UN) Abuja is one of the fastest growing city in the world and the fastest growing city in Africa; It grew by 139.7% between the year 2000-2010 and it is a highly populated state with an estimated population of 6 million persons in the metropolitan area (<https://infoguidenigeria.com>, 2017). Social media has created a platform where businesses and consumers can communicate effectively and efficiently as it makes available to both consumers and businesses information that will ensure better interaction. The MSMEs in FCT is estimated to be 485,055 (SMEDAN & National Bureau of Statistics Collaborative Survey, 2013), and if the MSMEs in the capital of the country can implement social media in their businesses and build brand equity and enhance profitability, other states are likely to adopt the same, hence the need for this research.

3. Methodology

Considering the nature of this research, the survey method was adopted, this method is preferred over others because it is versatile and practical and useful in identifying the present conditions and needs as regards social media and brand equity. It involves the systematic gathering of facts about the impact of social media on brand equity among MSMEs in Nigeria and how it can maximize profitability. The study is focused on MSMEs in the Federal

Capital Territory of Nigeria. The MSMEs in FCT is estimated to be 485,055 MSMEs; 482,365 micro enterprises, 2,244 small enterprises and 446 medium enterprises (SMEDAN & National Bureau of Statistics Collaborative Survey, 2013)

Before calculating a sample size, the following assumptions about the target population were made:

- i). Population Size –The approximated population size is very large.
- ii). Margin of Error (Confidence Interval) – no sample will be perfect, so we need to decide how much error to allow. The confidence interval determines how much higher or lower than the population mean we are willing to let our sample mean. This study adopted a Proposition Z, with a margin of error of ± 5%.
- iii). Confidence Level – how confident do we want to be that the actual mean falls within our confidence interval? The most common confidence intervals are 90%, 95% and 99% (Smith & Albaum 2010). This study assumed 95% confidence level.
- iv). Standard deviation – How much variance do we expect in our responses? The safe decision chosen in this study is 0.5.

The constant values needed are the z-scores for the most common confidence levels: a) 90% – Z score = 1.645; b) 95% – Z score = 1.96; c) 99% – Z score = 2.326.

With our choice of the confidence level of 95%; Standard deviation of 0.5; Margin of error (confidence interval) of ±5% , the equation for a very large population size whose number is not certain according to Smith & Albaum (2010) and Orji (2016) is :

$$= (Z \text{ score})^2 \times \text{StdDev}^*(1 - \text{StdDev}) / (\text{margin of error})^2$$

$$\text{Required sample size} = \{(1.96)^2 \times .5(.5)\} / (.05)^2$$

$$= (3.8416 \times .25) / .0025$$

$$= 0.9604 / .0025$$

$$= 384.16$$

$$= 385 \text{ respondents}$$

are needed

The required sample size is 385. However, this was increased to 501 by adding 30%. According to Isreal (1992) and Orji (2016) 10% to 30% could be added as addition sample to make up for some that may not be returned valid. Thus, 30% of 385 = 115.5 + 385 = 500.5=501 Respondents. The researchers used judgemental sampling and face to face administration of questionnaire, where the researchers selected units to be sampled based on their knowledge and professional judgement.

The data gathering technique that was adopted involved the use of questionnaire which is the primary method of data collection and books, journals and the internet as secondary method of data collection. However, the questionnaire measurement of the study used a four point Likert rating scale as justified by Orji (2016) who argued that respondents have behaviour of either survey optimizing or satisfying thus, including neutral point could lead to decrease in measurement quality.

Weight was assigned as follows:

Strongly Agreed 4, Agreed 3, Disagree 2, Strongly Disagree 1

The method of data analysis for this study is the simple descriptive percentage method and Chi-square method derived from Kendall coefficient of concordance. The percentage is for the comparisons of

respondent that responded for or against a particular question in relation to the overall respondents expressed as a percentage in order to see the pattern of response. The Chi-square derived from Kendall coefficient of concordance is a method used in testing a hypothesis concerning the differences between a set of observed frequencies of a sample and corresponding set of expected or theoretical frequencies. It is represented by the following formula:

$$W = \frac{12 \sum (R_i - R)^2}{K^2 (N^3 - N)}$$

Where K = Number of Responses; N=Number of weighted questions; R = Mean; W = Kendal coefficient of concordance

$$X^2 = K (N - 1) W; X^2 = \text{Chi-square}$$

The Ninety – Five (95%) confidence level was used, where computed value is greater than critical value at 0.05 level of significance, the null hypothesis will be rejected and alternative accepted and vice versa Siegel, (1986). Weights were assigned using likert scale as follows:

Strongly Agreed 4, Agreed 3, Disagree 2, Strongly Disagree 1. This method is justified on three reasons: Kendal coefficient of concordance allows all relevant questions in the questionnaire to be part of the test and result (Siegel, 1986). This position buttressed by Siegel, (1986) is also statistically straight-forward. The study data under analysis was based on the sample drawn from different respondents that cut across every strata of the FCT Nigeria, as every MSME of the population cannot be reached. Kendal coefficient is suited for this purpose.

4. Results/ findings

While carrying out the research, the researchers distributed a total number of 501 questionnaires. Only 80 were returned invalid due to mistakes made by respondents in filling the questionnaires. The 421 considered valid were used in the data presentation and analysis of the study. The figures are indicated in the table below:

Table 4.1 : Kendal coefficient of concordance Table 1 : Impact of social media on brand equity and profitability in micro, small and medium enterprises in Nigeria

S/No	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Weight	4	3	2	1
Question 7 There is need for social media in business interaction in Nigeria	8	54	272	87
Question 8 Social media establishes brand performance and brand image	93	229	62	37
Question 9 Social media enables better brand responses	221	155	26	19
Question 10 Brand awareness impacts SMEs in Nigeria	381	35	5	0
Question 11 Brand performance improves	154	234	29	4

profitability of MSMEs in Nigeria				
Question 12 Brand responses impacts SMEs profitability in Nigeria	119	249	49	4
Question 13 Social media creates recognition of needs/wants.	95	162	97	67
Question 14 Social media is a tool used for information research.	70	294	52	5
Question 15 Social media influences purchase decision and post purchase decision.	111	268	27	15

Source: Field Survey, 2018

Each cell of respondent will be multiplied by the weight assigned e.g. $4 \times 8 = 32$

Table 4.2 : Kendal coefficient of concordance Table 2:
Impact of social media on brand equity and profitability in micro, small and medium enterprises in Nigeria

S/No	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Ri	Ri - R	$(Ri - R)^2$
Weight	4	3	2	1	-	-	-
Question 7 There is need for social media in business interaction in Nigeria	32	162	544	87	825	-483	233,289
Question 8 Social media establishes brand performance and brand image	372	687	124	37	1,220	-88	7,744
Question 9 Social media enables better brand responses	884	465	52	19	1,420	112	12,544
Question 10 Brand awareness impacts SMEs in Nigeria	1524	105	20	0	1,649	341	116,281
Question 11 Brand performance improves profitability of MSMEs in Nigeria	616	936	58	4	1,614	306	93,636
Question 12 Brand responses impacts SMEs profitability in Nigeria	476	747	98	4	1,325	17	289
Question 13	380	486	194	67	1,12	-181	32,761

Social media creates recognition of needs/wants.					7		
Question 14 Social media is a tool used for information research.	280	882	104	5	1,271	-37	1,369
Question 15 Social media influences purchase decision and post purchase decision.	444	804	54	15	1,317	9	81
Total					11,768		497,994

Source: Field Survey, 2018

R_i = Addition of Rows

$$\bar{R} = \text{Mean} = \frac{\sum(R_i)}{N} = \frac{11,768}{9} = 1,308$$

$$W = \frac{12 \sum(R_i - \bar{R})^2}{K^2(N^3 - N)} = \frac{12(497,994)}{4^2(9^3 - 9)} = \frac{5,975,928}{11,520} = 518.7$$

$$X^2 = \text{Chi-square} = K(N - 1)W$$

$$= 4(9 - 1)518.7$$

$$= 16,598.4$$

Decision

Based on the data analysis, the decision rule is to reject the Null Hypotheses (H₀) and accept the Alternative hypotheses since the calculated X² (16,598.4) is greater than the tabulated (36.415). The tabulated X² was arrived at by determining the degree of freedom.

The degree of freedom (df) = (c - 1)(r - 1)

c = column total of observed value

r = row total

$$= (4 - 1)(9 - 1)$$

$$= 3 \times 8 = 24$$

Df at specified level of significance at 0.05 = 36.415. Therefore, we reject the Null Hypotheses at 95% confidence level and critical value of 0.05% level of significance. This means that:

1. There is need for social media in business interaction in Nigeria

because Social media establishes brand image

2. There is significant impact of social media on brand equity because Social media enables better brand responses.

3. There is significant impact of brand equity on profitability in micro, small and medium enterprises in Nigeria because Brand performance improves profitability of MSMEs in Nigeria

4. There is a significant impact of social media on consumer purchase decision because Social media creates recognition of needs/wants as a tool used for information research

These decisions were arrived at because of the nature of the statistical tool used. As stated earlier Kendal coefficient of concordance allows all relevant questions in the questionnaire to be a part of the test results hence answering them and making them a part of the decision.

5. Conclusion

A lot of small and medium enterprise tends to avoid social media, not taking advantage of it in establishing their brand, despite the high growth in consumers using social media and the identified advantages of using social media like strengthening of customer relation. Based on the findings of this study, the study concluded that there is a positive impact of social media on brand equity among the micro, small and medium enterprises in Nigeria, because Social media establishes brand image, and enables better brand responses.

6. Recommendations

Based on the findings above, this study offers the following recommendation:

1. The study recommends MSMEs to create a social media plan that fits into their goals and objectives and work towards it to build a strong brand equity as better performance will result in better responses from consumers. And the better the responses from customers the more they value the brand and purchase the products or services which will result to profitability in MSMEs.
2. MSMEs should try as much as possible to post on social media platforms regularly and be professional in their dealings with consumers on social media as this will reflect positively on the brand as social media has created a platform where MSMEs can increase awareness for their brand,

enable good brand response, use the information to perform better, build good relationship which can result in creating a good brand image for them.

3. MSMEs should also utilise social media platforms as a means to build relationships with consumers by responding to their enquiries as soon as possible; as consumers will become loyal to a brand they perceive as having high brand equity and will participate in the social media activities of the MSMEs which may lead to actual purchase.
4. The study also recommends that MSMEs with consumer targets age of 36 and above should have an office location alongside the social media pages as this age group is still wary of social media.

7. Suggestion for further study

This study was conducted in limited areas of the Federal Capital Territory namely Bwari, Gwagwalada and Abuja Municipal. Therefore there may be need for wider scope as suggestion for further studies. Thus the researchers recommends a similar study to be conducted particularly with a view on the firm based brand equity as this research only focused on the customer based brand equity. The researchers also recommends further theoretical and empirical investigation aimed at better understanding social media use in greater fields across industries.

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Appendix Questionnaire

Please tick (✓) against your appropriate choice

SECTION A

1. What is your gender?
(a) Male [] (b) Female []
2. What is your age?
a. 18 - 25 years [] b. 26 - 35 years []
c. 36 - 45 years [] d. 46 years and above []

3. What is your qualification?
 - a. Primary school leaving certificate []
 - b. Senior school certificate examination []
 - c. Ordinary national diploma/NCE []
 - d. HND/BSc []
 - e. Masters Degree and above []

SECTION B

4. Which of the following platforms of social media do you use?
 - a. Facebook []
 - b. WhatsApp []
 - c. Black Berry Messenger []
 - d. Instagram []
 - e. LinkedIn []
 - f. Twitter []
 - g. YouTube []
5. How long do you spend on social media daily?
 - a. 5 - 50 minutes []
 - b. 1 - 2 hour []
 - c. 3 - 5 hours []
 - d. 6 - 8 hours []
 - e. Others []

S/N	Questions	SA (4)	A (3)	D (2)	SD (1)
7.	There is need for social media in business interaction in Nigeria.				
8.	Social media establishes brand performance and brand image.				
9.	Social media enables better brand responses				
10.	Brand awareness impacts SMEs in Nigeria				
11.	Brand performance improves profitability of MSMEs in Nigeria				

12. Brand responses impacts SMEs profitability in Nigeria
 13. Social media creates recognition of needs/wants.
 14. Social media is a tool used for information research.
 15. Social media influences purchase decision and post purchase decision.
-



Factors Influencing Non-Utilization of Modern Methods of Family Planning Among Couples in Paikon-Kore, (FCT) Nigeria

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Abstract: Sex is one of the psychological needs of every human being, but sex without caution leads to plan less family, demographic problems and a lot of social phenomena. A family without planning breeds several social vices. Non-utilization of family planning is a global phenomenon caused by several factors. Hence, this survey research embarks on the examination of factors influencing non-utilization of modern methods of family planning among couples in Paikon-kore Community, Abuja. Literature pertinent to the study was reviewed. This explorative study employed both quantitative (survey) and qualitative (in-depth interview) methods to source for raw data from 1500 couples in the community. The findings of the study revealed that religious, education, cultural factors, level of exposure, employment status and so on influence the practice of family planning in Nigeria. The study concluded that family planning among couples in Nigeria is safe, if it is aware and well used. Several factors hinder the use of modern methods of family planning in Nigeria. At the end, the study recommended that more awareness campaigns should be created through workshops and seminars by government and medical practitioners should enhance education and re-orientation of couples about family planning and education curriculum should be built to increase peoples' level of knowledge on it.

Keywords: Awareness, Culture, Education, Family Planning, Non-utilization, Religion.

Word Counts: 207

Introduction

One of the basic psychological needs of human beings is sex. Incessant sex within couples without precaution has led to so many vices in Nigeria and beyond. In order to curtail these social vices in the country, there is need for family planning. The major instrument for population policy is family planning. Globally, family planning is promoted as a mechanism to address the productive health needs of men and women. Family planning is a practice by which couple(s) space the number of years between each child they want to give birth to and reduce the number of their children through the use of contraceptive methods. Family planning practices help couples to avoid unwanted pregnancies, regulate the intervals between pregnancies, control the time of birth in relation to the age of parents and determine the number of children in the family.

Awareness of birth control methods is therefore the logical first step necessary for their use by couple(s), since intensity of awareness is related to the available information and experience, the extent of use of birth control method is also dependent on the intensity of awareness of these methods. It is worthy to note that the level of awareness usually precedes the use of family planning. Factors influencing the awareness of family planning are: location, medical advice, empowerment, education of the benefactors, age, economic factors as well as socio - cultural factors. While the utilization of family planning depends on some factors surrounding the couples such as: poor living standard, religious beliefs, accessibility to medical centers, level of income, socio – cultural factors, level of awareness, decision making power, among many others.

The implications of not using family planning are always hazardous because it will bring about over population in a society and other aftermath service effects. In a society that is characterized with over-population, there will be high rate of crime, prostitution and many other social vices. And at the end, this over-population will lead to food scarcity, job scarcity, malnutrition, poverty and survival of the fittest, child mortality, no child spacing and host of others. It is on this background that this study aims to examine the factors influencing the non-utilization of modern methods of family planning among the people (couples) in Paikokore community in Nigeria.

Statement of Problem

The issue of family planning in term of its awareness and utilization is a global phenomenon. Several people have interest in planning their family, but it is either they are not aware due to several factors, or some are very much aware of it, but they avoid family planning due to personal and religious reasons. Yet, level of education has a lot to do on the issue of family planning in Nigeria. Religious reasons, traditional belief and other reasons serve as the back - up to couples not being aware and not using family planning. Islam for example believes that, “family planning is prohibited and that one should marry a woman whose family has more children”. It is also believed in Islam that more children own by a woman, the more her Ummah (Muslim brotherhood) will grow. While in Christian, it is believed that, God created man and woman, and commanded them to multiply. With these religious injunctions, most couples in Nigeria are holding unto it and disregard family planning. This has turned out to be

socio-economic and demographic problems in Nigeria, which Paikon-kore happens to be included.

Contrarily, some couples are aware of family planning, but they are not using it, because the tradition or patriarchal culture that the husband has the final says in the family. This brings about argument in deciding the approval of family planning among husband and wife. This is a major constraint as women in Nigeria cannot take decisions for themselves without the approval of their husbands who are regarded as the head of the family. Therefore, it makes women more unlikely to use contraceptives, if their husband disagrees even though they are aware of family planning methods. While some couples are aware, but do not know the type to use and/or who to discuss such kind of confidential family affairs with. Awareness goes along with education, studies have shown that the rural couples in developing countries e.g. Nigeria are mostly uneducated compared to developed world. Therefore, family planning method to use is not known to couples within the rural settlement because they lack information or are ignorant of modern method of contraceptives. In addition, some of the people in Nigeria are aware and also utilize family planning, but they misuse or unable to carefully follow the family planning instruction guide due to several factors. Hence, this study examines the factors influencing the non-utilization of modern methods of family planning among couples in Paikon-kore, Abuja Nigeria in order to establish what, how and why they do not utilize it.

Aim and Objectives of the Study

The broad aim of the study is to examine the factors influencing the non-

utilization of modern methods of family planning in Nigeria. While, the specific objectives are to:

- i. Identify the methods of family planning in Nigeria.
- ii. Examine the factors causing the non-utilization of modern methods of family planning among couples in Nigeria.

Brief Literature Review

The definition of family planning is approached in different ways by different authors. These various approaches either overlap or are observable in agreement with one another as what family planning should mean based on the writer's perspective and social context. Family planning refers to the use of contraception and other methods of birth control to regulate the number, timing, and spacing of human births. Samuel (2010), defined family planning as the practice that helps individuals or married couples to attain certain objectives, such as avoiding unwanted pregnancies, bringing about wanted babies at the right time, regulating the interval between pregnancies, controlling the time at which birth occurs in relation to the ages of parents and determining the number of children in the family. Thus, family planning is a means of reproductive health (Ngwu, 2014).

Family planning helps in empowering the couples living in poverty, through enabling them to have fewer children and reduces the tension of competition of available resources at the household and prevents Sexually Transmitted Infections (STIs) and Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) through the promotion of contraceptives, such as condom thereby preventing unwanted pregnancies among HIV positive married women therefore averting

mother to child transmission of the disease. Planning of the family and implementing the plans is based on mutual understanding and pure voluntary on the part of the couple. Family planning is self-imposed discipline by husband and wife in order to be healthy, wealthy, happy and at the same time contributing to social welfare, national progress and world peace at large. High fertility rate can be reduced through the awareness and utilization of family planning. Family planning simply means the propensity or tendency of having intercourse without the result of pregnancy. Thus, one did not abstain from sex, yet nothing like pregnancy for the period of time the couples want. Thus, it is a conscious attempt by couples to space birth to guarantee health of the mother and child or children. Invariably, it results into birth/fertility control (Alana, 2017).

Concept of Contraceptive

Contraception involves the use of various drugs, devices, agents, sexual practices, or surgical procedures to prevent conception or pregnancy (Koc, 2000). Reshma (2015) asserts that, contraception is a method of family planning that hinders the survival of infants, as it supports birth control or spacing and reduces high risk pregnancies. This means that, in achieving adequate birth spacing, it could significantly reduce child mortality by 20 per cent or more, particularly in developing countries of the world with numerous socio-economic problems (WHO, 2001). However, Nigeria will be a beneficiary of contraception because it is considered to be an underdeveloped nation; hence it will make the population to be reasonably managed by the government of Nigeria.

Somba, Mbonile, Obure, and Mahande, (2014) viewed contraceptive as family planning method which comprises the used of both scientific and traditional techniques such as injections, pills, condoms, spermicidal, Intra-Urine Devices (IUD), diaphragm, virginal rings and other methods for protection against sexually transmitted infections (Fawcett, Owens, and Ply, 2012). The use of family planning also aids in the prevention of sexually transmitted diseases in Nigeria. It could thereby be deduced that non-awareness and/or non-utilization of family planning enhances the high rate of sexually transmitted diseases and high population in Nigeria.

Types/Methods of Family Planning

There are two major types/methods of family planning. These are: Traditional family planning methods and Modern family planning methods. These methods can be sub-divided as follows:

A. Traditional Method of Family Planning

Several traditional family planning methods pre-dated the emergence of modern methods of family planning. Before the advent of condoms and hormone-altering drugs, couples utilized primitive methods for preventing conception. Traditional methods have several methods and among these are:

- i. Oral Medication: Oral medication is a route of administration where a substance is taken through the mouth. In line with family planning, it is contraceptive taken that prevents pregnancy. Ojusanya (1984) asserted that, it involves the use of salt, alum, vinegar, lemon juice, washing soap and potassium solution which is usually taken orally by the woman immediately after coitus. It is believed that the sperm will be excreted by the kidney and passed to

the urine. This type of pregnancy prevention is mostly taken by uneducated couple(s) because some educated couple(s) will never agree to all the processes involved in oral medication because they believe the method is unscientific in nature.

- ii. **Virginal Ring Insertion and Amulet:** Ring in this case is used as a contraceptive material otherwise known as virginal ring. Vaginal ring is a flexible, transparent, plastic ring. It is placed in the vagina where it releases two hormones (estrogen and progesterone). The vaginal ring is a form of contraception for women. A vaginal ring is a contraceptive ring which sits inside the vagina and it stops ovaries from releasing an egg each month. The vaginal ring is inserted into the vagina on the first day of a woman's menstrual cycle and stays in there for three weeks in a row and is then removed while the woman has her period (Hanson, Burke and Anne, 2010). On the other hand, Ojusanya (1984) described an amulet as an object whose most important characteristic is the power ascribed to it to protect its owner from getting pregnant. It also protects against getting harm. Potential amulets include gems, especially engraved gems, statues, coins, drawings, pendants, rings, plants, animals, and even words in the form of a magical spell or incantation to repel evil or bad luck. Amulet is also for the protection of pregnant women against infertility and miscarriage, and of newborn children against "the evil lilit" on the eve of the ritual circumcision. The negative side of amulet is that difficult rules are ascribed to it in order to make it effective and most couples find these rules difficult to follow, Hanson et al.

(2010). The pictures below depict a vaginal ring.

Figure1: Vaginal Ring



Source: Hanson, et al. (2010) and WHO, (2016)

- iii. **Incisions and Concoction:** The contraceptive incision is a form of a cut, especially done by a scalpel or similar medical tool. It is done for women. Incision according to Mobalanle (2005) the woman must not be pregnant or at risk of pregnancy when implant is inserted. Incision contraceptive losses its potency to menstruation as it does not last for more than a year. It is done on the woman private part. Concoction on the other hand, means a mixture of things, especially drinks or medicines. Abiodun (2015) refers to concoction as a mixture of substances with unproven efficacy, such as salt and hot water, soft drinks, a local brand of analgesic known as Alabukun, Lime and Potash. He further noted that, these concoctions were highly efficacious as after-sex contraceptives. If unprotected sex happens, instantly, there are some drugs like Lime and "Alabukun" taking at the same time with a mixture of cold "7UP" (a brand of carbonated drink) to wash the womb. However, concoction can be sum up to be a type of contraceptive with mixture of various herbs, animal, mineral substances, and so on to avoid pregnancy in accordance with the belief of a culture (group of people), it does not necessarily need qualified personnel to run the medication and no certain kind of standard is followed. Hence,

this difference makes it hard to be used by most couples, especially urbanized couples.

iv. Waist Beads: Beads are huge traditional symbols to represent many values and among these values are the protections against pregnancy. Albert (2014) believes that, beads are used for traditional ceremony, music without beads is incomplete. He also asserted that, family planning method is promoted by the use of beads. Women wear beads to inform their husband that she is in her menses and she is not in the right time for sex. The signal of abstinence is achieved through the use of beads. Husband respect the beads when sited on the woman's waist and they will not force their wife to sex, while knowing she is in her menses. However, it is obvious that this method will be very effective, if only the husband will not force his wife to sex and not every man has that ability to subdue their hunger for taste just by seeing beads around his wife's waist especially when they are drunk (Albert, 2014). Hence, it is difficult to practice.

v. Abstinence from sex: This is the avoidance of sexual intercourse among married couples for a particular period of time. Samuel (2010) believes that, abstaining from sex is the commonest and most effective traditional family planning method which can also prevent sexually transmitted infections and HIV/AIDS provided it is strictly and honestly practiced. However, it is obvious that this method will be very effective, but the vital question is how long would they abstain from sex when sex is one of human's

psychological needs. Hence, it is difficult to practice.

B. Modern Methods of Family Planning

Modern methods of family planning are the contemporary type of birth control that is totally different from the traditional aspect. These are divided into two categories, namely: Temporary method of family planning and Permanent method of family planning. They are discussed as follows:

1. Temporary Modern Method of Family Planning: As the name implies, these methods are not permanent, rather it only prevents pregnancy for very short period of time. The temporary modern methods of family planning include the followings:

- i. **Male Condom:** Condom is a flexible skin sleeve made of latex or other impermeable material such as sheep-skin (durex) worn over an erect penis during intercourse as a contraceptive or as a way to prevent the spread of STIs. In the same vein, Samuel (2010) posits that condom is a thin tube that the man puts over his penis and this obstructs the sperm from getting to the egg. Samuel (2010) further stated that, it should be well inspected before and after use to detect any perforation by blowing air into it. Idowu and Akinsanya (2016) argue that, some people do not like the use of condom because they are allergic to latex rubber or its lubricant. Also, it is also not 100% guaranteed as it is only effective to the level of 85 – 97% to prevent pregnancy. Ngwu (2014) concluded that, many urban couples used condom (male) more than the other devices. However, sex is a sensational experience and

the use of male condom did not allow the enjoyment of the natural sensitive friction of copulation. Hence, despite its effectiveness, some couples are not interested in using it to prevent pregnancy or as a means of family planning (Alana, 2017).

Figure 2: Male condom



Source: Hanson, et al. (2010).

ii. Diaphragm (Female Condom):

This is like the male condom as contraceptive, but it is inserted in the woman's vagina to cover the cervix. The diaphragm has proved itself very reliable as it covers the mouth of the uterus (womb) completely, and it is used with contraceptive cream/jelly. It is used when a woman wants to have sex and prevent pregnancy (Idowu and Akinsanya, 2016: 98). The diaphragm is a thin rubber and basin-shaped cup stretched over a collapsible metal ring designed to cover the cervix or mouth of the vagina and prescribe a flitting diaphragm. The spermicidal cream or jelly is smeared on the side of the diaphragm that rests on the cervix. The diaphragm acts as a barrier to keep the sperm from entering into the cervix. The contraceptive jelly kills the sperm in the vagina. Diaphragm also protects against Sexually Transmitted Infections (STIs). The diaphragm has the disadvantage of

slipping off during intercourse without the person not being aware of its absence. However, the failure of the female condom to prevent against unwanted pregnancies and STIs usually result from inconsistency/incorrect use with every act of sex for greatest effect varies (Idowu and Akinsaya, 2016: 98). The diagram below depicts a female condom (diaphragm).

Figure 3: Female condom



Source: Hanson, et al. (2010).

iii. Withdrawal Method: This involves removing the penis from the vagina before ejaculating. Thus, ejaculation should be away from the introitus. However, it requires extreme self-control on the part of the man. The man controls his emotion so as not to reach a climax during intercourse. Mobalanle, (2005) asserted that, the method is very unreliable as a small amount of semen may escape or ejaculation may occur unexpectedly. Not all men can control this and it could lead to emotional disturbances and psychological complication. Thus, the woman find their own sexual responses upset. However, the withdrawal method demands the sudden removal of the penis from the vagina. This process makes sex uninteresting, unsecured, dangerous to prevent unwanted pregnancy and STIs.

iv. Spermicide: This is a contraceptive substance that destroys sperm and it is inserted vaginally prior to intercourse to prevent pregnancy.

Bartman, Stolpen, Pretorius and Malamud (2001), believe that as contraceptives, spermicide may be used alone. However, the pregnancy rate experienced by couples using only spermicide is higher than that of couples using other methods. Therefore, it is usually combined with contraceptive barrier methods such as: diaphragms, condoms, among others. Combined methods are believed to result in lower pregnancy rates than either alone. Some people are allergic to the spermicide and it irritates at times. The tube of the spermicide is shown below:

Figure 4: Spermicide



Source: World Health Organization, (2016).

- v. Pills (Oral contraception):** This is very effective and the reliable. The pills prevent ovulation and consequently obstruct contraception. Pills enable women to control their fertility with ease and little or no upset while still enjoying their sexual act maximally. The side effects include: not given birth again, irregular menstrual periods, nausea, over-weight, instar-menstrual bleeding and fluid retention. In most cases, these pills are taken continuously for a period of 21 days within a month. The most danger is that it could be forgotten to be used due to one reason or the other (Alana, 2017). Some samples of the oral contraceptives are displayed below:

Figure 5: Oral Contraceptives

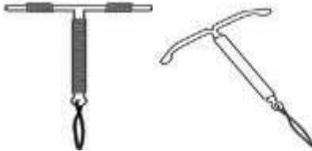


Source: World Health Organization, (2016)

- vi. Injectable (implants):** Injectable contraception is a form of contraception that is injected into a muscle (usually buttock or upper arm) to stop pregnancy by releasing progestogen into the body. Progestogen is a hormone which works by stopping the release of ripe eggs by the ovary (ovulation), making the mucus (sticky fluid) at the opening of the uterus thicker so sperm cannot get through and changing the lining of the uterus so a fertilized egg cannot take hold. It is very effective method of contraception (99.7%) and it is usually effective for three months. This means it needs to be given regularly at 3 months' interval to maintain effectiveness. This can prevent pregnancy for up to 5 years and it is suitable for women who want to avoid pregnancy, breast feeding, among others (Opalaye, 1985). Notably, injections and implants are useful for women who have problem of remembering to take their oral pills or who run into problem using other kinds of birth control method.
- vii. Intra Uterine Devices (IUDs):** The IUD is a small, often T - shaped device that is inserted by

well – trained medical personnel into a woman’s uterus to prevent pregnancy for up to 4 – 5 years. The types of IUDs are; No hormonal copper IUD, IUD with progestogen, among many others. The major disadvantage is that of heavy bleeding during menstruation (Noone, 2000). IUD is used for preventing implantation of fertilized ovum in the uterus by insertion of a spring like coil of plastic or metal of varying shapes into the uterus by qualified person. Besides the pains experienced, there are some discomforts noticed during menstruation. In addition, IUD could fall out of some women and in that wise it causes pain, discomfort, heavy bleeding during a period and sometimes serious problems, but except that, it is the simplest and most economical method. The samples of Intra Uterine Devices (IUDs) are shown below:

Figure 6: Intra Urine Devices



Source: World Health Organization, (2016).

viii. Emergency Contraceptive Pills

(ECPs): This simply refers to a situation after having an unprotected sex, then it is possible to use pills within 72 hours (3 days) of the intercourse. Trussell, Elizabeth, Cleland and Kelly (2014), described Emergency Contraceptive Pills as drugs that are intended to disrupt or delay ovulation or fertilization which are necessary for pregnancy. Emergency Contraceptive Pills and

abortion pills are not the same. They also concluded that, Emergency Contraceptive Pills work by preventing or delaying ovulation and therefore preventing pregnancy, not by abortion. Gemzell-Danielsson, Kristina, Rabe, Thomas, Cheng, and Linan (2013), identify types of emergency contraceptive pills as: Combined estrogen and progestin pills, progestin-only (levonorgestrel) pills, and anti-progestin (ulipristal acetate or mifepristone) pills. However, the major implication of this method is if these pills are abused or constantly use, it affects the body system and at time damage the womb permanently.

ix. Rhythm/menstrual Calculation:

This method of contraceptive according to Trussell (2011) estimates a woman’s likelihood of fertility based on a record of previous menstrual cycles. The method requires to keep accurate records of menstrual cycles, and to abstain from unprotected intercourse, when couples are not ready. Therefore, this method is not very sure to prevent pregnancy, but it has advantage of not costing anything. It is more likely to work for a woman whose periods come very regularly, more or less every 28 days. However, it needs to be used with other applicable method. In addition, about 12 – 14 days of a female period begins; she is considered to be most fertile. This is when she ovulates (release egg). This period is mostly likely for her to get pregnant. This period is known as the dangerous period because there is no sure way to

know when a woman will ovulate. So figuring out when to have sex to avoid pregnancy can be very difficult, if not possible. Five (5) - Seven (7) days before her period and Five (5) - Seven (7) days after her period are considered as safe period. Though, in this regards, individual differences is considered (Alana, 2017).

- x. **Natural Method of Prolonged Breast Feeding:** This is another method of temporary method of family planning and it is the most widely used without the woman even realizing its effects. Thus, while a woman is breast feeding her baby, she is less likely to conceive especially when breast milk is the only food for her baby. The woman's body naturally produces a substance which prevents pregnancy. In addition, of course breast feeding gives the baby a healthy and stuart in life. The chance of the woman becoming pregnant is much greater after 4 to 6 months when the baby begins to get food in addition to the breast milk. Even then, breast feeding can help prevent pregnancy, if she breast feeds frequently both day and night (exclusively) and gives breast milk as the main food (Idowu, 2005, cited in Alana, 2017).

2. Permanent Method of Family Planning: This method involves minor surgical operation and it is usually done by professional medical personnel. The permanent methods are more effective for preventing pregnancy than the temporary methods. The decision to proceed with a permanent method should only be made if the couples or a person is absolutely sure that no more

children. Under this permanent method of family planning, both the men and women can be sterilized. The permanent method can be divided into the following:

- i. **Tubal Ligation:** This method is used for the females. This could also be called "Tuba tie". It is a contraceptive device by which the fallopian tubes are cut and tied separately with small part cut off during surgical minor operation. This procedure blocks the path between the ovaries and the uterus. Hence, the woman cannot conceive again because the fallopian tubes are tired. According to Trussell (2011), the sperm cannot reach the egg to fertilize it and the egg cannot reach the uterus. The reliability rate is 100%. It provides for fullest sexual enjoyment since there is no fear of unwanted pregnancy. But it entails permanent sterility since the tie is irreversible and irrevocable. Also, it is not good for a woman who is suffering from diabetes, heart diseases or clothing discord, serve malnutrition, obesity and so on (Idowu, 2005, cited in Alana, 2017).

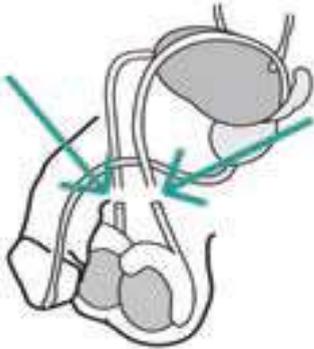


Source: Source: World Health Organization, (2016).

- ii. **Vasectomy:** Vasectomy is a surgical procedure for male sterilization or permanent

contraception. Trussell (2011) believe this operation is done where by a small vasectomy deference is cut off and the separated ends are tied. It is a surgical procedure that consists in cutting the tubes that carry sperm. This procedure blocks the path between the testes and the urethra due to which the sperm cannot leave the testes and hence cannot reach the egg. Vasectomy does not interfere with sexual desire, erection, ejaculation, orgasm and sexual pleasure. However, the method is irreversible and it leads to permanent impotence. Also, it is not for a man suffering from diabetes, heart disease or clothing disorders, inguinal, hernia, obesity and enlarged or painful testicles (Idowu, 2005, cited in Alana, 2017).

Figure 8: Vasectomy



Source: World Health Organization, (2016).

Factors Influencing Non-Utilization of Modern Methods of Family Planning in Nigeria

Researchers have shown that there are number of factors influencing the utilization of family planning among married couples. Hence, Duze and Muhamed (2006) posited that variety of factors might influence the non-

utilization of modern methods of family planning among couples and these factors among others include:

i. Non-Awareness of Modern Family Planning Methods by Couples:

Awareness of family planning methods is the logical first step necessary for their use by couples. It is worthy to note that a certain level of awareness usually precedes the use of a particular family planning method (Undelikwo, Osonwa, Ushie and Osonwa, 2013). Despite the high level of general awareness of birth control methods, the use of more complicated methods was rare. The majority of young couples who were aware of birth control methods received information from friends. However, awareness obtained from friends about the use and practices of contraception are often misleading as they contain a lot of misinformation, distortion, falsehood, misconception, and often times self-centered. Hence, it has led to non-utilization or failure in many practices in Nigeria. To Samuel (2010), health workers were the major source of information on emergency contraception in Nigeria. According to Oyediran, Ishola and Feyisetan (2002), there was a low level of awareness of contraceptives in city slums of Nigeria, due to the fact that residents lived in poor conditions with low level of education and therefore did not appreciate contraceptive knowledge as compared to those who are rich and educated.

Longwe, Huisman and Smits (2012), posited that there is evidence that family planning messages through media play an important role in increasing the knowledge of family planning methods and through this, increased awareness also including their acceptance and use, especially in those areas where the literacy level is low. Ngwu (2014)

established that in Nigeria, mass media and social networks played important roles in disseminating contraceptive knowledge and women transformed this knowledge into behaviour that would help to reduce fertility. The main sources of awareness about contraception include - parents, spouse, books, magazines, friends, teachers and other mass media. It is only what the couples are aware about that they utilized.

ii. Level of Education: According to Sebastian (2014), the determinants of family planning use among women of reproductive age in Nigeria found out that women with no formal education were significantly less likely to use modern family planning relative to those with some formal education. Similarly, women whose partners had no formal education were also significantly less likely to practice modern family planning. Therefore, informal education also has influence on the non-utilization of modern family planning. Hence, the utilization depends on the level of socialization. Educational factor is one of the major factors influencing the awareness and utilization of modern birth control methods. This was because education increases people's responsiveness and understanding of modern birth control methods (Ngwu, 2014). Furthermore, maternal education has once been linked with reduction of child mortality among rural dwellers. Women's education enhances their capability and also their reproductive rights to decide freely and responsibly the number, spacing and timing of their children and to have other necessary information regarding reproductive rights. Women with low level of education have many children and a few of them practices modern methods of

family planning when compared to women that have high level of education.

iii. Proximity to the Medical Centers and Facilities: Sebastian (2014) observes that, family planning facilities/methods availability showed greater odds of influencing family planning use compared to method non-availability. Therefore, the proximity of the family planning facility and medical centers have a lot to do with the utilization of modern method of family planning methods. Lwelamira, et al. (2012) observed that, the distance to nearest health facility can impede the acceptability and utilization of modern methods of family planning among married women. Reshma (2015) argued that, poor access to health care centers negatively affect the utilization of modern methods of family planning services, as some of the health care centers may be geographically be inaccessible. Access to family planning services is determined by physical and logistical factors.

iv. Socio-Economic Status: Elhers, Kabeer, Ziyane and King (1999) posited that, low socio-economic status of African women puts them in a situation where they are dependent on their husbands for financial support. They therefore, cannot independently decide on the number of children required in their families, the use of contraceptives, the husbands' use of condoms, nor about the husbands' polygamous marriages and/or extra-marital affairs. Women's low socio-economic status puts them in a submissive role, where they lack self-confidence, assertiveness and self-value. Husbands might have to grant their wives permission to use contraceptives. The higher the woman's socio-economic status, the more

assertive she becomes and the more she can enjoy her reproductive rights. Women who are not earning an income or who earn smaller incomes falling below the breadline will always depend on their husbands for support, therefore forfeiting the right to decide about the reproductive issues generally, and the use of contraceptives specifically (Troskie and Raliphada - Mulaudzi, 1999).

v. Religion: Religion is one of the factors which affect the pattern of contraceptive use as method of family planning. Islamic women for example tend to let men decide on the number of children required; such women are unlikely to use contraceptives. Also, the Roman Catholic Church is opposed to many birth control methods and are very rigid in their views of family planning. Thus, the strong religious desire for more children prevented married women from using family planning. In addition, Ngwu (2014) shows that, children come from God and therefore, there is no need planning or controlling fertility. In Nigeria, religion has been identified as one of the determinant factors that affect family planning practices (Alana, 2017). However, based on religion kicking against family planning among married couples, it has shown that religion is a strong setback of family planning in Nigeria.

vi. Culture of the land: The level of affiliation of an individual to his/her cultural beliefs influence childbearing behaviour, and thus also contraceptive usage and/ or non-usage. In many Nigeria cultures, husbands pay bride prize in the form of money, or a particular kind of gift to the bride's family. Men because of this payment, they regard their wives as possessions that they have bought. Women end up

not being able to decide on the number of children desired nor about use of contraceptives. In some circumstances the men can claim back his pride price if a wife fails to bear children (Ngwu, 2014). In polygamous marriages, the wife with most children is likely to be the husband's favourite wife. Women in this kind of a marriage are not likely to use contraceptives, if they are competing to be the husband's favourite with the largest number of children, (Ekundayo, 1985). In this instance, even adolescents might not be willing to use contraceptives since they know the values, culture and beliefs about children in their societies. It implies that culture poses a barrier to the use of contraceptives.

vii. Residential Location: Couples with urban background had slightly better level of awareness than rural. Longwe, et al. (2012) posited that, urbanization influences family planning awareness and utilization. According to them, women living in rural areas tend to use fewer contraceptives and have more children than their urban counterparts. Sub-Saharan African countries, like Nigeria still show very high fertility rates in rural areas, whereas fertility in the cities has decreased considerably (Tadesse and Headey, 2012). However, there is still a gap to point out the reasons why some couples in the urban settlement still refuse to practice family planning while among rural settlement some couples still watch the number of children they procreate.

viii. Lack of Consensus between Husband and Wife (Lack of Communication): Khan and Patel (2005) observed that, studies in many developing countries of the world have shown that men often dominate in taking important decisions in the family,

including reproduction, family size and contraceptive use. Ogunjuyigbe (2002) opined that, inter-spousal communication in Nigeria is also a factor in the adoption and sustained use of family planning. Lwelamira, Mnyamagola and Msaki, (2012) noted that, the unawareness of husbands towards family planning methods, modern contraceptive and lack of spousal consent on family planning could impede the acceptability and utilization of modern family planning. This implies that male involvement is important in the awareness of family planning, as well as, its adoption, usage and continuation. However, this argument does not justify in every human society and it depends on the cultural setting of the communities. For instance, a matriachical society does not recognize the approval or consent of the men.

ix. Employment Status: Ngwu (2014), identified employment status as a major influence on the use of birth control methods as it related to urban working women who were busy following professional development path and were less likely to produce children as compared to non - professional women based in rural areas. Similarly, women whose husband had no good and lucrative jobs were also significantly less likely to practice family planning compare to women whose husband had good jobs (Alana, 2017).

Methodology

This study centered on the factors influencing non-utilization of modern methods of family planning and its implications among the couples in Nigeria, and it chose Paikon-kore Community Gwagwalada Area Council, Abuja Nigeria as the case study area. This study adopts both quantitative and

qualitative methods of research. The qualitative method seeks to get data from the field using In-depth Interview (IDI). While, the quantitative methods embrace calculation as it gives systematic knowledge, that allows and relies on empirical inducement in collecting data using Survey (questionnaire) as it involves large population and therefore makes use of sample to get statistical information from the large respondents. The nature of the research is explorative as it seeks for first-hand-information from the field as this kind of study requires. The research design is both analytical and descriptive in nature. The target population of the study was the married couples (indigene and non-indigene) living within Paikon-kore community. Multi-stage sampling techniques were employed to select the sample in stages from the Community, Wards, Streets, Households to the Individual respondent.

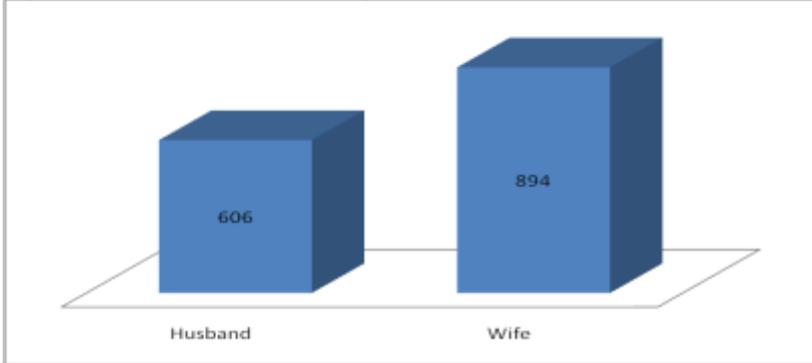
One Thousand Five Hundred (1,500) respondents were scientifically selected for the quantitative data collection and Fifteen (15) respondents were purposively selected for the qualitative data collection, which included the community leaders/health workers. The methods of data collection employed in the study were survey (questionnaires) and In-Depth Interview (IDI). The data collected from the field were analyzed with combination of qualitative and quantitative methods of data analysis. The quantitative data collected using questionnaires will be organized, processed, coded and analyzed with descriptive statistics method in form of frequency count and percentage. With the aid of frequency tables, graphics or/and charts. The qualitative data collected using In-Depth interview (IDI) were jotted down (or recorded, where

allowed) gathered, transcribed, organized and analyzed using verbatim reporting.

The data collected from the field both quantitative and qualitative data were analyzed and presented as follows:

Findings

Figure 9: Distribution of Respondent by Gender



Source: Fieldwork, 2017.

Figure 9 above revealed the gender of respondents. Wives have the higher frequency than husbands according to the figure above. Husbands that responded were 606 (40.4%); while Wives were 894 (59.6%). The reason for this margin is not far-fetched from the fact that Husbands considered family planning to be female issues. In addition, Husbands finds it disgusting and difficult to talk about family planning to some member of the society except, if it is official in most times by medical practitioners and peer group.

Also, this study involved people of the following ages: Below 16 years (71), 16 – 25 years (434), 26 – 35 years (511), 36 – 45 years (248), 46 – 55 years (171), Above 55 years (59), and 6 respondents did not respond to any of the age brackets. These are the groups that are more sexually active and produce more children. Therefore, their participation in the study gave it more edge and advantages. While the people that fell on 46 years old and above have more experience to share on family planning. With reference to the number of

children, 80 respondents had no children, 417 respondents have 1 to 3 children, 491 respondents have 4 to 6 children and 512 respondents have more than 6 children. With the level of economic challenges/recession in Nigeria, many children should be discouraged with the aid of family planning. This is glaring from the above as 1,003 (66.9%) among the respondents have at least 4 children.

Furthermore, the involved 984 (65.6%) Muslims, 481 (32.1%) Christians and 35 (2.3%) Traditional religion worshippers. We can therefore infer that, there are more Muslims in Paikon-kore community with particular reference to couples than Christians. In the other hand, the fear of God/Allah in both the Muslim and Christians will deter couples away from family planning. This reason for the wide margin could be inferred that Paikon-kore is a Muslim dominated Community. However, the religions will help us to understand the position of religion on family planning in Nigeria.

Table 1: Distribution of Respondents by Educational Status

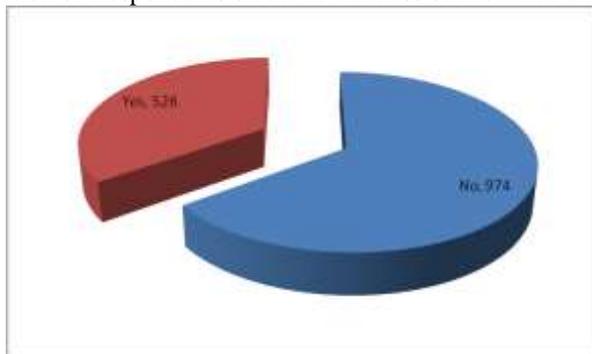
Educational Status	Frequency	Percentage (%)
No Formal Education	331	22.1%
Primary Education	412	27.5%
SSCE	552	36.8%
Undergraduate	153	10.2%
Graduate	47	3.1%
Postgraduate	5	0.3%
Total	1,500	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2017.

Table 1 above, highlights the respondents' educational status. 331 (22.1%) respondents have never attended any formal education, 412 (27.5%) attended Primary school, 552 (36.8%) were SSCE holders, 153 (10.2%) respondents were Undergraduate, while 47 (3.1%) were Graduate, and Postgraduate were 5 (0.3%). This shows that the respondents are not adequately literate as a greater percentage of them 1,295 (86.3%) had

secondary education and below. And the remaining 205 (13.7%) respondents had above secondary education and there is likelihood that they do not have their education in Gwagwalada metropolis. The reason for this is not far-fetched as the area is dominated with high level of illiteracy and educational value-system is still very poor. Hence, as stated in the literature review, high level of illiteracy will make them neither to be aware nor not utilize family planning.

Figure 10: Distribution of Respondents on the Awareness of Modern Family Planning



Source: Fieldwork, 2017.

Figure 10 highlights the respondents' status on the awareness of modern methods of family planning. 974 (64.9%) of the respondents were not aware and 526 (35.1%) were aware of the modern methods of family planning.

Findings from an In – Depth interview conducted, it was said that:

People especially couples (women) got to know (aware) about family planning through seminars and crusades organized by Medical Practitioners brought to our community in Paikon-kore

(IDI, Community leaders, 17/08/2018).

Respondents that were aware of family mentioned their source to be their family/relatives, friends, doctors/nurse (medical practitioners), mass media, work/seminar, and so on. In an In – Depth interview conducted on the source of family planning, affirmed that:

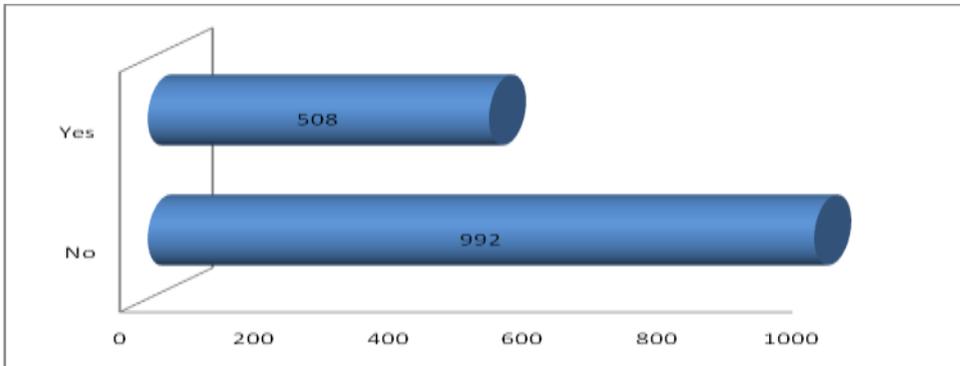
The source of family planning came from my mum. She is a medical practitioner at the same time. She enlightens me and my wife on the aftermath effects of not practicing family planning and as well as, the positive side of it (IDI, Community leaders, 17/08/2018).

In another In-depth interview with one of the respondents, it was said that:

The source of knowledge about family planning came from mass media. Wazobia Fm Abuja is one of the source of my knowledge about family planning, because they speak Pidgin - English which is very understanding to me on the issue (IDI, Community leaders, 17/08/2018).

From the analysis above, it was clearly seen that majority of the couples are aware of family planning and they also state their source of awareness of family planning. However, the study reveals that awareness and the source of awareness about family planning do not justify its usage. There are several other factors that can determine the use of family planning than the awareness.

Figure 11: Distribution of Respondents by the Use of Modern Family Planning Methods



Source: Fieldwork, 2017.

Figure 11 highlights that, 508 (33.9%) said Yes; while 992 (66.1%) said No that they are not using the modern methods of family planning. From the analysis above, it was clearly revealed that majority of the couples are not practicing modern methods of family planning. This is due to factors like culture of the people, religion among other factors.

When asked about who taught them (couples) on how to use family planning

methods in an in - depth interview, it was said by a respondent that:

I was taught how to use the safe period of family planning by a medical Practitioner. Since my husband was complaining of not enjoying sex with me while on condom. Though a friend gave me the hint about calculating my safe and dangerous period, but I went further to a doctor to confirm if it actually work or not (IDI, Community leaders, 17/08/2018).

The study revealed that, it is believed that schools, spouse and medical practitioners are the reliable places where couples are been taught about family planning. The involvement of medical practitioners among these reliable places where family planning knowledge is gotten from the couples of Paikon-kore community confident about family planning, because they

considered medical practitioners (hospitals and clinics) a better place of knowledge about family planning acquisition than other places, reason because couples in Paikon-kore believed that medical practitioners (hospitals and clinics) are recognized by the Federal Government of Nigeria. Other sources include: peers, parents, in-laws and so on.

Table 2: Distribution of Respondents on the most used Method of Family Planning

Method of Family Planning	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Condom	226	15.1%
Withdrawal Method	104	6.9%
Spermicidal	19	1.3%
Pills (Oral Contraception)	15	1.0%
Injectible (Implants)	27	1.8%
Intra Uterine Devices (IUDs)	8	0.5%
Emergency Contraceptive Pills (ECPs)	31	2.1%
Rhythm (Menstrual Calculation)	27	1.8%
Prolonged Breast Feeding	38	2.5%
Tuba Ligation (Female)	8	0.5%
Vasectomy (Male)	5	0.3%
No Response	992	66.1%
Total	1,500	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2017.

The above table revealed that 495 (33.0%) among the respondents who utilize modern methods of family planning engaged in temporary methods. Among these respondents 226 (15.1%) and 104 (6.9%) respondents used condom and withdrawal methods respectively. In the same vein on the permanent methods, 8 (0.5%) and 5 (0.3%) respondents used tubal-ligation

and vasectomy respectively. 992 (66.1%) respondents did not give any response to the question. The implication is that majority of the couples in the study are not using modern methods of family planning due to their low level of awareness. Therefore, there is still need for publicity on it.

Table 3: Distribution of Respondents on Factors Encouraging Couples to Use the modern method of Family Planning

Factor of Utilization	Agreed	Disagreed
Level of Exposure	863 (57.5%)	637 (42.5%)
Culture of the land	210 (14.0%)	1,290 (86.0%)
Government Policy	871 (58.1%)	629 (41.9%)
Medical Advice	1,053 (70.2%)	447 (29.8%)
Educational Level	867 (57.8%)	633 (42.2%)
Financial Status	850 (56.7%)	650 (43.3%)
Religious Affiliation	311 (20.7%)	1,189 (79.3%)
Health Status	848 (56.5%)	652 (43.5%)

Source: Fieldwork, 2017.

Table 3 highlights the distribution of respondents in regards to factors encouraging couples to use family planning in Paikon-kore community. The above table revealed glaringly that culture of the community and religions being practiced are the major factors discouraging the use of modern family planning in Nigeria. While, the other factors like the level of exposure, government policies, medical advice, high level of education, financial status, health of the couple encourage the use of the modern methods of family planning in the family.

The other factors aside from culture and religion hindering the effective use of family planning methods among couples in Paikon-kore community gotten from in – depth interview:

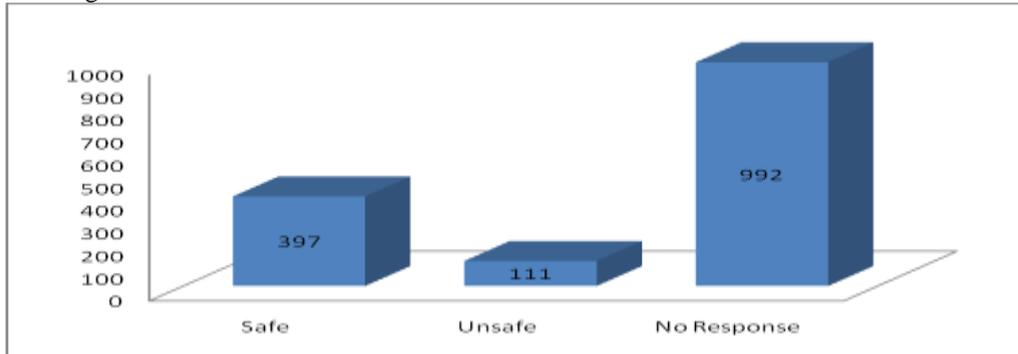
Historical background, competition between friends and families in regards to numbers of children given birth to especially male children and if in a situation they do not have a male child in the

course of child birth they continue giving birth and hoping to give birth to a male child, through this many children were born and in the course of this activities the issue of family planning is not regarded either traditional or modern type. These factors mentioned are among the core existing factors (culture and religion) contributing to the factors preventing couples from utilizing family planning (IDI, Community leaders, 18/08/2018).

Furthermore, during an in-depth interview it was gathered that:

Farmers in those days give birth to scores of children just to help them in farming activities and after harvest the children were asked to sell the crops in order to make money for the family. It is the same trend that most farmers are still following till today. That is, most farmers are found not utilizing family planning methods (IDI, Community leaders, 18/08/2018)..

Figure 12: Distribution of Respondents on how they feel Using Modern Methods of Family Planning



Source: Fieldwork, 2017.

Figure 12 highlights the respondents' in regards to how they feel using modern methods of family planning. Out of 1500 respondents involved in the study, 397 (26.5%) confessed that they felt safe when using family planning, and 111 (7.4%) respondents was of contrary view and admitted that with family planning they felt unsafe when using it. From the analysis above, the result is crystal clear that majority of couples that have used family planning methods testify that the use of family planning is safe to them. Lastly, the bulk of 992 (66.1%) respondents gave no response; may be as result of their non-utilization due to their non-awareness of the modern methods of family planning. The implication is that there are still more to be done for people to understand the relevance of the modern family planning system in Nigeria.

Conclusion

In this study, a critical look was taken on the factors influencing non-utilization of family planning among couples in Paikon-kore community. Obviously, Nigerian couples are saddled with the task of given birth to children after marriage which is the primary reason for marriage in a typical African setting. However, if the birth rate is not controlled, population of Nigeria may

grow at sky-rocket rate that the economic factors cannot catered for. Hence, the need for family planning arises, but there are a lot of factors hampering the awareness and utilization of the modern methods of family planning in Nigeria. Religious affiliation and Culture have created a very bad impression about family planning in Paikon-kore community. These factors are perceived to be hostile to the issue of family planning. It must be noted, however, that other factors like level of exposure, doctor/nurse (medical practitioner) advice, educational level and so on, are doing well in terms of creating the awareness and utilization of family planning in Paikon-kore community.

The research revealed that the reduction of awareness and use of family planning in Paikon-kore community is attributed to the issue of low quality of education in the community. Also, low level of employment among couples in the community serve as factor militating against the use of family planning. According to the outcome of the study, couples are aware of family planning, but the traditional methods of family planning is well known by couples in the community, reason because they value their tradition so much. In same

regard, couples in the community use more traditional methods of family than the modern methods, due to their culture negative perspective on modern methods, distance to health centers, due processes in health centers. The distance to health centers from the community couples intending to utilize modern family planning methods are discouraged.

In addition, mass media through radio (Wazobia Fm Abuja) serve a source in the spread of awareness of family planning and also how to use the methods of family planning, while couples that are still attending schools are informed in their various schools. With all these source of family planning mentioned above, family members/Relatives and friends also informed other members of the community who are not aware. At the end of it all what determine and who use the knowledge gotten from these sources is been spelt out by factors like religion, culture, employment status, educational status, level of exposure, government policy among several others. Finally the study concluded that, there are still a lot to be done to ensure the awareness and encourage the utilization of modern methods of family planning in Nigeria.

Recommendations

Based on the findings and conclusion, the study offers the following recommendations:

Firstly, majority of couples in the study are aware of family planning, but many are not aware of the modern methods of family planning. Couples need quality and fundamental re-socialization, re-orientation and re-education about family planning. Thus, it requires religion and culture to create the awareness and encourage couples to use

family planning methods in Nigeria. Also, medical practitioners during seminars and mass media advertisements on family planning, the message should be targeted on creating awareness and utilization of the modern methods of family planning to couples in rural areas and urban areas in order to know the type of methods that will suit their body system in order to prevent any future negative effects. This will not only motivate the couples to use family planning, but will prevent unnecessary cost and damages. Giving birth to scores of children in order to farm works, hard labour jobs among other physical strength jobs will not help the Nigeria people. The Nigeria government should create job opportunities, enhance small scale entrepreneurship and encourage gender equality. These will engage the youths and others, and there will be no time for frivolities. There is need for economic emancipation of youths in Nigeria.

Men should be (inclusively) targeted and taught about family planning where they are seen the most. Teaching men about family planning could save the women arguments when means of family planning are to be used. Men could help with remembering information when emergency contraceptives are to be used. Men should be viewed as partners and potential clients with their own sexual and reproductive needs, as they hold a dominant role in decision-making, regarding fertility and sexual relations and many other issues that shape gender relations and directly affect women. If men were included in contraceptive education efforts this could improve communication within relationships and foster respect and shared responsibilities pertaining to the reproductive health

processes. The Nigeria government should also put more effort in building more schools especially in the rural areas. This development will go a long way in educating the young generation about the bad effect of over-population and the remedy to control it is by controlling or regulating child birth. By the time such ideology is planted in primary and secondary schools pupils and students by the time they advance

their study in the university they will not be a novice about the modern methods of family planning and this knowledge will help them in their family and government should encourage and improve value of education. Finally, all hands should be on deck to make sure that modern methods of family planning are practiced by couples in order to control over-population and its aftermath effects in Nigeria.

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United Nations Peace Keeping Force and Sexual Exploitations in Africa: Implications for the United Nations

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Abstract: Conflict, wars and political instability that characterised the international system and the need for international peace and security is the central idea behind the formation of the United Nations as an international institutional framework that will guarantee global peace and security. Since its establishment in 1945 the United Nations has recorded remarkable achievements in the area of peace keeping, conflict resolution /management through the instrumentality of her peace keeping missions in different part of the globe and Africa in particular. Post-colonial Africa has been characterised by all forms of political instabilities precipitated by the internal contradictions within the continent and further manifested in the forms of ethno-religious crisis, militancy, terrorism, electoral violence etc. these situations has made UN intervention inevitable. However, in the recent past the involvement of UN Peace Keepers in Sexual abuse and exploitations in Central African Republic, Darfur, Mali, Liberia, and Sierra Leone etc. poses a lot of threat to the credibility of the UN. It is based on this that this paper attempts an investigation into the involvement of UN Peace Keeper in sexual exploitation and the relationship between peace keeping and sexual abuses with a view to ascertaining the factors that instigates peace keeper into sexual exploitations and the factors that also exposes people to sexual exploitation. Bearing in mind the nature of the research problem, this paper employed both the Organski's collective security theory and Abraham Maslow's theory of needs to examine both the political and psychological dimensions of the phenomenon. It is the position of this paper that the participation of UN Peace Keepers in sexual exploitation is a deviant behaviour and it undermines the

credibility that the UN is known for. The paper also recommends among others the need for the UN to empower host countries to punish perpetrators of sexual exploitations.

Keywords: United Nations, Peace Keeping, Peace Keepers, Sexual Abuse, Exploitation, Conflict, Collective Security

Background

Post-colonial Africa has been bedevilled by galaxies of challenges ranging from ethno-religious conflicts, trans-border crimes, Arms Proliferations, militancy, ethnic militias, terrorism etc occasioned by the inability of the political elites to promote the culture of good leadership within the continent. The ceaseless rate of political instability within the continent has made Africa a perpetual customer for United Nations Peace Keeping Missions.

Many regions around the globe are faced with difficulties of developing stable infrastructures from the crumbling remains of their colonial predecessors. These regions have experienced series of brutal civil conflicts in the early years following independence, often leaving tens of thousands dead. It is arguable to say that, no other region in the world has experienced more civil conflict in the post-colonial years than sub-Saharan Africa (Havlik, n.d). Conflicts, such as the ethnic violence between Hutus and Tutsis in Rwanda and the clashes between local warlords over food supplies in Somalia, are merely a small representation of the overwhelming suffering and civil strife that have plagued Africa since the first colonies were able to break away from their European administrators. Sub-Saharan Africa has myriad examples of failed states that have become so mired in civil conflict since independence that few people living within those troubled borders have any idea what constitutes a legitimate state (Havlik, n.d).

Sub-Saharan Africa is at the bottom of many economic indicators measuring the relative wealth of certain regions. For example, the entirety of Sub-Saharan Africa had a gross national income of \$311 billion dollars in 2001 while members of the European Monetary Union had a GNI of more than \$6 trillion in that same year (World Bank, 2003). This disparity of wealth is the factor to which some scholars attribute the differing levels of civil conflict in Africa; those that are not wealthy try to become wealthy, and those that are wealthy try to hoard it from those that are not (World Bank, 2003).

As a replacement of the League of Nations the United Nations was to promote global peace and security. Since its establishment in 1945 the UN has played remarkable role in terms of peace and conflict resolutions in different parts of the world. The contribution of troops by some member states has been the instrument and channel through which the UN carries out its peace keeping missions. However, the involvement of UN peacekeepers in sexual exploitation and abuse (SEA) is one of the less acknowledged negative consequences of UN peacekeeping operations, though such behaviour fundamentally undermines the very ethics of peacekeeping. Prevailing allegations of SEA risk jeopardizing the future of UN peacekeeping, as they can cause it to be viewed as an activity that does more harm than good (Chun, 2009).

This situation is becoming alarming and it poses a lot of threat to the credentials and credibility of the United Nations. One may wonder what the relationship between peace keeping and sexual exploitation, which in itself constitute serious human right violation. It was to further buttress this point that Bastick, Grimm & Kunz (2007) maintained that, human rights transgressions and abuse, whether in war or other military deployment, remain an inescapable reality. Sexual abuse in armed conflict has a long history and has always been considered normal wartime behaviour, with perpetrators acting with unreserved impunity. Perpetrators range from members of official armed and security forces, paramilitary groups, non-state armed groups to civilians, including refugees and displaced persons (Bastick, Grimm & Kunz, , 2007).

If the Secretary-General's zero tolerance policy is to become a reality, the UN as a whole including troop contributing countries (TCCs) must recognize that sexual abuse perpetrated by peacekeepers is not a mere disciplinary matter, but a violation of the victims' fundamental human rights, and in many cases a violation of international humanitarian and criminal law. Regardless of whether the peacekeepers were acting under direct UN command or not, victims must be made the priority one of the central mandates of the UN's peacekeeping mission in CAR is the protection of civilians, in particular women and children affected by armed conflict. Unfortunately in the case of the Allegations, the UN and its local partners failed to meet their obligation to protect the child victims (Chair et al, 2015).

Conceptual and theoretical issues

"Conflict related sexual violence" is understood as referring to incidents or patterns of sexual violence that include rape, forced prostitution, or any other form of sexual violence of comparable gravity against women, men or children. Such incidents or patterns occur in conflict or post-conflict settings or other situations of concern (e.g. political strife). They may also have a direct or indirect nexus with the conflict or political strife itself, for example, a temporal, geographical and/or causal link (UN, 2017).

According to UN (2005), "sexual exploitation" and "sexual abuse" are used to distinguish those who are physically forced to have sex and those who are coerced into it owing to a lack of alternative survival tactics or through ignorance of their rights. "Sexual exploitation" is defined as "any actual or attempted abuse of a position of vulnerability, differential power, or trust for sexual purposes, including, but not limited to, profiting monetarily, socially or politically from the sexual exploitation of another" and "sexual abuse" as "the actual or threatened physical intrusion of a sexual nature, whether by force or under unequal or coercive conditions"

Peacekeeping is defined by the United Nations (2005) as "a unique and dynamic instrument developed by the Organization as a way to help countries torn by conflict create the conditions for lasting peace". The term "peacekeeper" is used broadly to include all international or regional troops that have been authorized or mandated by the UN Security Council to support peacekeeping missions.

Theories are important instrument for understanding political and socio-

economic phenomenon. It also serves as signpost which gives direction and clarity. To shed on the topic under investigation the theory of Collective Security and Abraham Maslow Humanistic Psychological theory is employed.

According to Asogwa (1999), collective security is a system of world order in which aggression by any state will be met by a collective response. He said it is a system which could be global or regional in which all member countries insure each other against every member, no state is singled out in advance as the enemy and each might be an aggressor in the future. In the view of Orakhelashvili (2011), he sees collective security as a collective action in response to a collectively identified threat. Hass (in Onoja, 1998) described collective security as the strategies used by inter- governmental organizations to restrain the use of force among the members. It provides the functions and the modus operandi for dealing with acts of aggression. It also includes the norms and procedures for inducing members to delay hostilities, summed up under the label “*pacific settlement of disputes*” (Hass cited in Onoja, 1998).

Morgenthau (1948) states that three prerequisites must be met for collective security to successfully prevent war:

- i. The collective security system must be able to assemble military force in strength greatly in excess to that assembled by the aggressor(s) thereby deterring the aggressor(s).
- ii. Those nations, whose combined strength would be used for deterrence as mentioned in the first prerequisite, should have identical beliefs about the security of the

world order that the collective is defending.

- iii. Nations must be willing to subordinate their conflicting interests to the common good defined in terms of the common defence of all member-states

The theory of collective security as associated with Organski has been widely applied by scholars of international relations, defence and strategic studies. There are five basic assumptions underlying the theory of collective security as listed out by Organski (1958) and they include:

- i. In an armed conflict, Member Nation States will be able to agree on which nation the aggressor is
- ii. All Member Nation-States are equally committed to contain and constrain the aggression irrespective of its source or origin;
- iii. All Member Nation-States have identical freedom of action and ability to join in proceedings against the aggressor;
- iv. The cumulative power of the cooperating members of the alliances for collective security will be adequate and sufficient to overpower the might of the aggressor
- v. In the light of the threat posed by the collective might of the nations of a collective security coalition, the aggressor nation will modify its policies or if unwilling to do so, will be defeated.

The foregoing clearly shows that but for collective security sake, there would not be such thing as UN peace keepers or peace keeping Force. The peace peeping force becomes inevitable when the internal security mechanism of a state cannot curb or counter aggressor from within or without. Peace keeping

operations are products of collective security framework which could be regionally or globally based depending on the scope and geo-politics of the institutions. As part of the fundamental objectives of the United Nations, states contribute troops to help address security threats in any part of the international system. However, sexual exploitation is not part of the mandate of peace keepers. In fact it is a violation of the rules of engagement in military operations.

The Maslow's hierarchy of needs as a theory is also used to attempt a psychological explanation to sexual exploitation by UN Peace Keepers and the psychology of the exploited in relations to their political and socio-economic material conditions that also makes them vulnerable. This theory is sometimes called "A Theory of Human Motivation" or Maslow Humanistic theory of Needs. Maslow's hierarchy of needs is a theory in psychology proposed by Abraham Maslow in his 1943 paper "A Theory of Human Motivation" in *Psychological Review*.

Maslow subsequently extended the idea to include his observations of humans' innate curiosity. His theory parallel many other theories of human developmental psychology, some of which focus on describing the stages of growth in humans. Maslow used the terms "physiological", "safety", "belongingness", "love", "esteem", "self-actualization", and "self-transcendence" to describe the pattern that human motivations generally move through (Maslow, 1943).

The most fundamental and basic four layers of the pyramid contain what Maslow called "deficiency needs" or "d-needs": esteem, friendship and love, security, and physical needs. If these

"deficiency needs" are not met – with the exception of the most fundamental (physiological) need – there may not be a physical indication, but the individual will feel anxious and tense. Maslow's theory suggests that the most basic level of needs must be met before the individual will strongly desire (or focus motivation upon) the secondary or higher level needs. Maslow also coined the term "metamotivation" to describe the motivation of people who go beyond the scope of the basic needs and strive for constant betterment (Goble, 1970:6). This theory suffered a lot of criticisms especially on Maslow's position on sex and motivation in the pyramid. He placed sex in the physiological needs category along with food and breathing; it lists sex solely from an individualistic perspective. For example, sex is placed with other physiological needs which must be satisfied before a person considers "higher" levels of motivation. Some critics feel this placement of sex neglects the emotional, familial, and evolutionary implications of sex within the community, although others point out that this is true of all of the basic needs (Kenrick, 2010). These criticisms notwithstanding, this theory is very pivotal for understanding human behaviour in relations to human needs. Human military sexuality can be better understood generally within the context of human sexuality. Sex is a psychological need of humans which is usually responded to. Troops who engage in sexual activities are only attempting to meet their basic need for sex. This is not to say that sexual satisfaction should not be done within the ambit of the law or rules of engagement. It is also important to note that need for security and other socio-economic needs of the victims of sexual

exploitation increases their vulnerability. If hitherto victims of sexual abuses have their basic needs met, the chances of being sexually abused will be very minimal. This view was corroborated by Ndulo (2009, 144) when he posits that:

Victims are strongly influenced by their tough local conditions during and after the armed conflict. They live in abject poverty, so they have a lack of livelihood options and a consequent inability to meet basic survival needs. They are also exposed to a high unemployment rate. As a result, prostitution in such environments sometimes becomes the only source of income for girls and women (Ndulo 2009, 144).

The report of United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and Save the Children UK (SCUK) (2002: 8), confirms that in West Africa the involvement of children and women in sexually exploitative relationships has become a mechanism for survival for many refugee families. This situation is exploited by some peacekeepers who abuse their power to get what they want (Ndulo 2009, 145).

Peacekeepers, sexual exploitation and its implications for the United Nations

Sexual misconduct has been identified by Aoi, De Coning and Thakur (2010) as one of a number of unintended consequences of peacekeeping operations. They contend that while peace operations are considered to be an indispensable instrument in the international conflict management toolbox, the post-Cold War shift of focus and modification in the role and scope of peace operations have exposed them (especially UN operations) to a new range of what they refer to as “potential unintended consequences”.

In the context of a country experiencing extreme conflict, the primary and most important purpose of a peacekeeping operation, whether authorized or mandated by the Security Council, is to protect the civilian population. Where peacekeepers exploit the vulnerability of the very people they have been sent to protect by sexually abusing members of the local population, it is a fundamental betrayal of trust. When the United Nations (the “UN” or “Organization”) fails to address such crimes quickly and decisively, that betrayal is compounded and the important contributions of peacekeeping missions are undermined. This is precisely what occurred in the UN peacekeeping mission in the Central African Republic (CAR) in the spring of 2014 (Chair et al, 2015).

The ill-discipline engendered by SEA also degrades the effectiveness of the peacekeeping operation, especially in times of crisis. Instances of sexual exploitation and abuse may also constitute violations of international humanitarian law, international human rights law, or both. A peacekeeping operation cannot legitimately advise any government on adherence to international human rights standards and legal and judicial reform if its own peacekeeping personnel are engaging in acts of sexual exploitation and abuse, including such crimes as rape.

Most recently, UN troops in Haiti and Sudan have been accused of sexual abuse of children (Williams, 2015). In Central African Republic at least 98 girls said they had been sexually abused by international peacekeepers (Oakford, 2015). According to Nichols (2016) the UN identified 41 troops from Burundi and Gabon accused of sexual abuse and exploitation in Central African Republic in 2014 and 2015. The identified troops

have now left the country. In 2015, a UN report interviewed over 200 Haitian women a third of whom were minors who told how they were forced to have sex with UN soldiers in exchange for material aid (Yigal, 2015).

A UN study on the impact of Armed Conflict on Children, prepared by Ms. Graca Machel (former first lady of Mozambique) clearly showed several ways in which children are sexually abused during armed conflict even by UN Peacekeepers. According to the UN report (1996) Children may also become victims of prostitution following the arrival of peacekeeping forces. In Mozambique, after the signing of the

peace treaty in 1992, soldiers of the United Nations Operation in Mozambique (ONUMOZ) recruited girls aged 12 to 18 years into prostitution. After a commission of inquiry confirmed the allegations, the soldiers implicated were sent home. In 6 out of 12 countries studies on sexual exploitation of children in situations of armed conflict prepared for the present report, the arrival of peacekeeping troops has been associated with a rapid rise in child prostitution (UN, 1996:24). The table below shows the several peace keeping operations in Africa by UN and AU.

Table 1: UN and AU Peacekeeping Operations Deployed in Africa

S/N	Mission Name	Mission Name	Location	Start Date	End Date
1.	AMISOM	(AU) African Union Mission in Somalia	Somalia	January 2007	Present
2.	MINURSO	United Nations Mission for the Referendum in Western Africa	Western Sahara	April 1991	Present
3.	MINUSCA	United Nations Multidimensional Integrated Stabilization Mission in the Central African Republic	Central African Republic	April 2014	Present
4.	MINUSMA	United Nations Multidimensional Integrated Stabilization Mission in Mali	Mali	April 2013	Present
5.	MONUSCO	United Nations Organization Stabilization Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo	Democratic Republic of the Congo(DRC)	July 2010	Present
6.	UNAMID	African Union-United Nations Hybrid Operation in Darfur	Darfur, Sudan	July 2007	Present
7.	UNISFA	United Nations Organization Interim Security Force for Abyei	Abyei Area, Sudan	June, 2011	Present
8.	UNMIL	United Nations Mission in Liberia	Liberia	September 2003	Present
9.	UNMISS	United Nations Mission in the Republic of South Sudan	South Sudan	July, 2011	Present
10	UNOCI	United Nations Operation in Côte d'Ivoire	Côte d'Ivoire	April 2004	Present

Source: Céline Fürer (2017:34) A quantitative analysis of variation of sexual exploitation and abuse in UN peacekeeping operations in Africa

According to the United Nations (2017), allegations of sexual exploitation and abuse have continued to come up to a total of 107 allegations in 2007, 60 in 2012 and 103 in 2016 (United Nations 2017). The phenomenon of sexual exploitation and abuse by peacekeepers obtained global media attention after the British non-governmental organization, Save the children, together with the UNHCR released a report in 2002 on “Sexual Violence & Exploitation: The Experience of Refugee Children in Guinea, Liberia and Sierra Leone” (Kent 2005, 87). The report brought to light, that young girls were forced by peacekeepers and humanitarian workers to have sex with them, compensated by food, money or shelter (Kent 2005, 87). Countries like Burundi, the Democratic Republic of Congo and the Central African Republic) have recorded high cases of sexual abuse by peacekeepers.

The existence of sexual exploitation by Peacekeepers was confirmed when the United Nations Secretary-General, António Guterres cited in UN (2017:2) posits that:

Indeed, the vast majority of UN troops and personnel serve with pride, dignity and respect for the people they assist and protect, very often in dangerous and difficult conditions and at great personal sacrifice. Yet our Organization continues to grapple with the scourge of sexual exploitation and abuse, despite great efforts over many years to address it. We need a new approach. One of my most unforgettable experiences has been listening to the victims of rape, sexual violence, exploitation and abuse. Their haunting stories and chilling testimony will stay with

me forever. Such acts of cruelty should never take place. Certainly no person serving with the United Nations in any capacity should be associated with such vile and vicious crimes.

This view was further corroborated by Atul Khare, when he claimed that:

The wrongdoings of some people should not tarnish the sacrifice of the more than 100,000 peacekeeping personnel, and their respective countries. “Protectors cannot be predators. Protectors cannot be somebody who is exploiting the people. When blue helmets, or troops supported by the UN, violate the fundamental human rights of others, they defile the precious legitimacy that is critical to the UN’s effectiveness and for which their comrades laid down their lives (Khare cited in UN, 2017:2).

The report led former Secretary-General Kofi Annan to declare that:

SEA by humanitarian staff cannot be tolerated. It violates everything the UN stands for. Men, women and children displaced by conflict or other disasters are among the most vulnerable people on earth. They look to the UN and its humanitarian partners for shelter and protection. Anyone employed by or affiliated with the UN who breaks that sacred trust must be held accountable and, when the circumstances so warrant, prosecuted (OIOS, 2002:9-13).

Kofi Annan view is similar to that of Humberto Loitey when he asserts that:

Despite the United Nations (UN) zero-tolerance policy against sexual exploitation and abuse, continuing reports of allegations of sexual

exploitation and abuse against uniformed peacekeepers contradict the principles upon which peacekeeping is based. Sexual exploitation and abuse inflicts irreparable damage on the very people the UN is sworn to protect (Humberto cited in UN, 2017:2).

In an editorial by the New York Times when marking the sixtieth anniversary of UN says:

Nothing discredits the United Nations more than the continuing sexual abuse of women and girls by soldiers belonging to its international peacekeeping missions. And yet almost a year after shocking disclosures about such crimes in Congo, far too little has been done to end the culture of impunity, exploitation and sexual chauvinism that permits them to go on. The whole purpose of these missions is to help countries ravaged by civil or international conflict restore stability, guarantee public security and instil the rule of law. When United Nations peacekeepers rape the people they were sent to protect and coerce women and girls to trade sex for food, as they were found to have done in Congo last winter, they defeat the purpose of their mission and exploit some of the world's most vulnerable people (New York Times, October 24th).

Allais (2011:3) corroborated the above views when he posits that:

Sexual violence and abuse constitute atrocious violations of the human rights of the victims of the abuse. Regardless of the degree of overt physical force, there are severe physical and psychological consequences for the victims. Direct injuries include chronic pain, infection and infertility. Brutal rape can result in traumatic

gynaecological fistula. Rape may also lead to abortion, which carries its own risk. The psychological implications are equally serious. Survivors often experience severe trauma and depression, sometimes leading to suicide. Some victims are infected with sexually transmitted diseases, including HIV. Many have little or no access to care or counselling (Allais, 2011:3).

The sexual exploitation and abuse of women is viewed as something tightly, naturally and inevitably linked to the breakdown of law in a conflict-ridden state. Moreover, it is well known that the systems, the infrastructure and the attitudes operating during a conflict are likely to continue in peacetime. Especially for women, harsh conditions get even worse in the aftermath of war. Far from being integrated, they are socially stigmatised and even rejected by their families for having being raped by the enemy. It is reasonable to bear in mind that sexual crimes are not natural or inevitable at all. Rather, they are conscious and evitable political acts deeply rooted in the political economy of war (Martin, 2008).

Sexual misconduct by peacekeeping personnel can also expose both themselves and the mission to blackmail and violent retaliation, especially during times of breakdown of law and order in the country. Sexual misconduct also increases the incidence of medical problems. This includes the risk of contracting or transmitting sexually transmitted diseases and HIV/AIDS. The consequences for victims include possible psychological trauma as a result of their experiences. Babies born from liaisons between victims and peacekeepers may face stigmatisation by their families and communities, which may deprive them of economic, social

and emotional support, which in turn may result in victims being driven into further exploitative relationships with peacekeepers in order to survive (UN, 2005).

Chair et al (2015) was of the view that where allegations of sexual abuse by peacekeepers are reported to the UN, two distinct policy frameworks may apply. The first framework consists of policies adopted by the Secretary General specifically to respond to sexual exploitation and abuse (“SEA”) by UN staff and related personnel, including troops under UN command.

They further claimed that:

The institutional failure to respond immediately and effectively to incidents of sexual violence is not only damaging to victims, but also allows the actions of a few predatory individuals to taint the important and valuable work of peacekeepers as a whole, many of whom risk their lives to bring peace and stability to populations at risk. This seriously threatens the relationship of trust between civilian populations, troop contributing countries (“TCCs”), the UN, and the international community, and undermines the sustainability of peacekeeping missions in the longer term (Chair et al, 2015:5).

For instance the revised MoU 2007 (Doc A/61/19 Part III) provides as follows:

Military members and any civilian members subject to national military law of the national contingent provided by the Government are subject to the Government’s exclusive jurisdiction in respect of any crimes or offences that might be committed by them while they are assigned to the military component of [United Nations peacekeeping

mission. The Government assures the United Nations that it shall exercise such jurisdiction with respect to such crimes or offences (Annex, paragraph 3, article 7 *quinquies* 1).

In relations to the UN zero tolerance for sexual misconduct, TCCs are still unable to prosecute defaulters. Hence the UN is still grappling with and struggling to encourage state to sanction accused soldiers. It is based on this that Stecklow and Lauria (2010) claimed that:

The lack of action can be ascribed to both TCCs and the United Nations itself. The record of TCCs in addressing matters of SEA has been very mixed. Many troop-contributing countries are still slow to take appropriate measures, both preventative (consisting of training of troops prior to deployment) and punitive (where personnel are repatriated because of misconduct). Troop contributors have also been slow in accepting the need for training and enforcement of the uniform designed rules due to cultural difference in the acceptance of certain types of behaviour (UN, 2006).

The allegations of sexual exploitation and abuse by UN peacekeepers of those they have been mandated to protect are particularly disturbing because of the unique nature of peacekeeping. The UN Security Council deploys military troops in order to protect vulnerable populations from the violence of civil conflict and the UN “should not in any way increase the suffering of vulnerable sectors of the population which has often been devastated by war or civil conflict” (UN, 2005).

The violation of codes of conduct may damage the impartiality of missions in the eyes of the local population, which, in turn, may impede the implementation

of its mandate. UN Secretary General, Kofi Annan, issued a bulletin in 2003. The bulletin, Special measures for protection from sexual exploitation and sexual abuse (ST/SGB/2003/13) (UN, Secretary General’s Bulletin 2003), characterises sexual exploitation and abuse as acts of serious misconduct and subject to disciplinary action. The bulletin sets forth several specific standards to clarify the already existing obligations of UN staff with regard to sexual exploitation and sexual abuse, and specifies that:

- i. acts of sexual abuse and exploitation are prohibited, and constitute serious misconduct that
- ii. will be subject to disciplinary action including summary dismissal;

- iii. sexual activity with children under the age of 18 is strictly prohibited;
- iv. any exchange of money, employment goods or services – including any exchange of assistance due to beneficiaries of assistance – for sex is prohibited;
- v. sexual relationships between UN staff and beneficiaries are based on inherently unequal power dynamics and therefore undermine the credibility and integrity of the work of the United Nations;
- vi. United Nations staff members who suspect other UN workers must report concerns; and
- vii. Managers at all levels have a responsibility to support and develop an environment that prevents sexual exploitation.

Table 2 Do’s and Don’ts when serving in United Nations Peacekeeping Operations

S/N	DO’S	DON’T’S
1.	Protect civilians against any form of sexual exploitation.	Do Not engage in any form of exploitative behavior or sexual acts with the local community regardless of local culture.
2.	Dress, think, talk, act and behave in a manner befitting the dignity of a disciplined, caring, considerate, mature, respected and trusted peacekeeper.	Do Not get involved with prostitution, even if it is legal in the host country, and do not visit any areas that are out of bounds.
3.	Promptly report any allegation(s) of sexual exploitation and abuse by fellow United Nations colleagues to the Conduct and Discipline Team (CDT) or other sexual exploitation and abuse Focal Point.	Do Not rely on self- judgement as to what conduct should be considered as sexual exploitation and abuse. If you suspect there has been possible sexual exploitation and abuse, you must report it
4.	Familiarize yourself with the existing guidelines and procedures that are mission specific.	Do Not harbour or protect perpetrators of sexual exploitation and abuse. Failure to respond or report misconduct is a breach of the UN standards of conduct and may result in sanctions against you.
5.	Cooperate with the investigating officer.	Do Not retaliate against alleged perpetrator(s), complainant(s), victim(s) or investigator(s) when confronted with an allegation of sexual exploitation and abuse. Act according to the rules.

Source: United Nations (2017) Commanders’ guide on measures to combat Sexual Exploitation and Abuse in United Nations military

Conclusion and Recommendations

It is the position of this paper that the United Nations as a collective security mechanism its achievements in international peace and security particularly in Africa is highly commendable. These achievements notwithstanding, the involvement of Peace Keepers in sexual exploitation and abuse does not only increase the suffering of an already vulnerable population, but it also undermines UN's credibility. This paper therefore recommends that:

- i. There is the need to establish a coordinating unit/centre within the UN that will address all issues associated with conflict related

sexual exploitations whether by peacekeepers, militia groups or terrorist organizations

- ii. Civil societies need to increase advocacy in areas of sexual exploitations by peacekeepers and victims of sexual violence should also report without hesitation cases of abuse.
- iii. The UN must ensure that TCCs take drastic measures on troops that perpetuate sexual violence and abuse so as to ensure that TCCs prosecute crimes of sexual violence by peacekeepers
- iv. There is a need to emphasize that sexual violence by peacekeepers is a violation of human rights.

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