

ISSN: 2382-7446 | Volume 8 Issue 2 | January - October 2020
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INTERNATIONAL ACADEMY JOURNAL OF MANAGEMENT, MARKETING AND ENTREPRENEURIAL STUDIES



Special Edition

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International Academy Journal of Management, Marketing and Entrepreneurial Studies

Special Edition

Volume 8, Issue 2 | ISSN: 2382-7446 | January – October 2020

Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal

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International Academy Journal of

Volume 8, Issue 2, PP 01-12, ISSN: 2382-7446, January, 2020



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In Association With
International Academic Journal for Global Research
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Employee Work Self-Estrangement and Employee Deviant Behaviour in the Hotel Industry within South-South, Nigeria

EVWIERHURHOMA, Ejiroghene Daniel and OGA, Kelechi Charles

Department of Management, Faculty of Management Sciences, University of Port Harcourt, Nigeria

Abstract: *The purpose of this paper is to examine the relationship between employee work self-estrangement and deviant behaviour in the hotel industry within the South-South Region of Nigeria. A survey design was adopted using questionnaire as the research instrument which was distributed to 291 employees of three selected hotels in the South-South region of Nigeria. The data derived were analyzed through the use of Spearman's Rank Order Correlation Coefficient Statistical as well as t-statistics to test the relationship between the variables of the study through the use of Statistical Package for Social Sciences within a significance level of 0.05. The findings showed that employee work self-estrangement has significant influence on deviant behaviour vis-à-vis production deviance, property deviance, political deviance and personal aggression as measures of deviant behaviour in the studied hotels. We therefore recommend that managers should encourage the free flow of communications between employees and managers in order to reduce boredom that might lead employee exhibiting deviant behaviour in the organization and managers should give more priorities to employee participation so as to reduce employee work self-estrangement and give necessary training to minimize the occurrence of deviant behaviours in the organization.*

Key words: *Work Alienation; Self-estrangement; Deviant Behaviour*

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Introduction

Due to today's complex and uncertain business environment, the study of employee behaviour in the organization has become of more importance than before in the sense that organizations need their employees to exhibit the right behaviour in order to enhance their productivity as well as performance in today's turbulent business environment. However, there are employees in the workplace who exhibit behaviours that are not in line with the organization's standards known as deviant behaviours. Deviant behaviours in the workplace have become one of the major quandary that has bedeviled the success of the organization of today (Bashir, Nasir, Qayyum & Bashir, 2012). Hence, Yildiz, Alpkan, Ates, and Sezen (2015) articulated that the understanding of these deviant behaviours has today become a significant area of research and emerging phenomenon. Deviant behaviour is also known as dysfunctional behaviour and organizational misbehaviour (Fox, Spector & Miles, 2001; Vardi & Wiener, 1996) which occurs among

workers in the organization (Novalien, 2017). These behaviours are intentional behaviours exhibited by employees that do not conform to set values and standards within the organization which threatens the organization's success and survival as well as its members (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Hence, deviant behaviours are acts displayed by employees that are not in line with the objectives of the organization. Nevertheless, the occurrence of deviant behaviour in the workplace is not without a cause which according to Kelloway, Lori, Matthew and James (2010) is as a result of employee work alienation. When an individual is suffering from alienation such as self-estrangement it means that either the individual cannot utilize his given qualities or he is not given the opportunities to utilize his or her given qualities (Weisskopf, 2006).

In the workplace as well as in our society of today, alienations comes in the form of squat output, reduced drive, increased employee's absenteeism, reduced organization's dedication, turnover which result in different kinds of social vices like enhanced rate of crimes, disruption, vandalism, as well as a dejected society (Erjem, 2005). Employee suffering from alienation is not always happy but tries as much as possible to saves time though the employees tries to save time he or she has the tendencies of wasting the same time he is trying to save (Fromm, 2014). The symptoms of alienated employee in the workplace includes separation, boredom, lack of commitment to one's job, low participation to organization's activities, withdrawing, detachment as well as seclusion (Erjem, 2005) which often times lead to the exhibition of deviant behaviours such as absenteeism, late arrival and so on. An employee who is alienated in the form of work self-estrangement sees his or her work as a tool to just meeting needs, hence, he or she is not excited about work and not personally involved in the day to day operations of the organization as a result do not care to participate in the organization success. When workers in the organization have the feeling that they are alienated from their organization's work environment, they may not have the tendency to be committed to their job which can result in the exhibition of negative attitude towards the organization such as coming late and misusing the organizational properties at the detriment of the organization. Thus, Nelson and O'Donohue (2006) expressed that employee self-estrangement has the capability to cause diminished motivation and work involvement as well as hinder employees from being good organizational citizens. When a worker is estranged from his or her work, he or she might develops pessimistic and hostile behaviour towards people around him or her in the organization. This is because work alienation in the form of work estrangement decreases the worker's passion and emotionally separates him or her from the organization which reduces his or her level of participation in the organization (Banai, Reisel & Probst, 2004).

All employees in the organization have tendency to exhibit deviant behaviour; however its occurrence may be higher in some jobs than others (Griffin & Lopez, 2005). Furthermore, been an everyday occurrence in the workplace, the issue of deviant behaviour in the hotel sector is not an exemption, centered on the consistent facts from media as regards to workers poor work attitude, absenteeism, late arrival and early departure, sabotage among other deviant behaviours. Thus, this study looks forward in reducing the occurrence of deviant behaviours in the hotel sector in the south-South Region of Nigeria by studying the relationship between employee work self-estrangement and deviant behaviours. This study would be of great impact to managers in the hotel industry as well as other sectors in the Nigerian economy because understanding deviant behaviour and what influences it is the first step for knowing how to manage its frequent occurrence. This study would provide information about the effect of employee work self-estrangement on deviant behaviours, thus through the outcomes of this research; managers of organization in general and the studied hotels particularly will able to reduce deviant behaviours

by effectively managing such behaviours in their organization by avoiding employee work estrangement in their workplace.

Research Questions

The research questions this paper seeks to answer are as follows:

- i. What is the relationship between employee work self-estrangement and production deviance of Hotels in the South-South Region of Nigeria?
- ii. What is the relationship between employee work self-estrangement and property deviance of Hotels in the South-South Region of Nigeria?
- iii. What is the relationship between employee work self-estrangement and political deviance of Hotels in the South-South Region of Nigeria?
- iv. What is the relationship between employee work self-estrangement and personal aggression of Hotels in the South-South Region of Nigeria?

Research Hypotheses

The research hypotheses are stated in the null form and they are as follows:

H0₁: There is no significant relationship between employee work self-estrangement and production deviance of Hotels in the South-South Region of Nigeria.

H0₂: There is no significant relationship between employee work self-estrangement and property deviance of Hotels in the South-South Region of Nigeria.

H0₃: There is no significant relationship between employee work self-estrangement and political deviance of Hotels in the South-South Region of Nigeria.

H0₄: There is no significant relationship between employee work self-estrangement and personal aggression of Hotels in the South-South Region of Nigeria.

Literature Review

Theoretical Framework

This study is anchored on social exchange theory which suggests that behaviour is the product of exchange process with aim of minimizing cost and maximizing benefits by each party involved (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Employees often time analyze the difference between the cost and benefit provided by their organization and once the relationship is fair enough they exhibit behaviours that will also benefit the organization. On the other hand, if employees sense that the organization is not taking their interest seriously they might exhibit behaviours that are deviant in nature to the values and objectives of the organization. Therefore, Blau (1964) expressed that if employees feel lack of participation and belongingness (feel alienated) they are likely to display harmful behaviour. Since work alienation can be as a result of lack of participation (Yen & Teng, 2013), we propose that employee alienation brought about by low participation can be a source of deviance behaviour in the organization. Thus, if employees are self-estranged from their work environment they are more likely to exhibit deviant behaviours in the workplace.

Employee Work Self-estrangement

Employee self-estrangement as used here is a dimension of employee work alienation and alienation is a disconnection from ones job, situation or oneself (Nair & Vohra, 2010). It is the degree at which an employee has low emotional commitment to a particular job which borders on circumstances where employees does not take interest in the work he or she is performing and commit little efforts in doing the work as well as work basically for extrinsic remuneration (Weisskopf, 2006). Employees suffering from alienation manifest behaviour such as flaccid abandonment from work and regularly been absent from work. Furthermore, self-estrangement

in the workplace occurs when an individual do not feel any happiness of achievement because he/she is unable to connect to the things that he/she wants to realize and achieve with the work he/she does (Banai & Raisel, 2007). Self-estrangement occurs according to Mottaz (1981) when workers do not find their work exciting to them. For this reason, the employees cannot draw a link with the things they actually wants to do and what they are doing as a result they are not happy (Eryilmaz & Burgaz, 2011). Ashforth and Humphrey (1993), sees it as a form of alienation, whereby the worker is not in reality with himself and feels he is behaving against the normal way of others. Self-estrangement is an emotion of withdrawal, disaffiliation, or recoil from some object, condition, or situation perceived to be unpleasant or toxic (Kavanagh & Bower, 1985). In self-estrangement, the estranged self is seen as repugnant and undesirable. Here disgust is not considered as an elementary, visceral reaction to repulsive or contaminated material, but rather as a socio-moral connotation triggered by a person, behaviour, or condition seen as aversive, degraded, or polluted. The self-estranged individual experiences disgust and a feeling of disaffiliation upon perceiving that one's actual self is significantly inferior to the self that one has aspired to become (Blauner, 1964). The effect of isolation and loneliness culminates, where an individual feels unable to tackle or face their oddness, thus resulting to estrangement concerning oneself and others. This estrangement prevents the individual from effective relationship with others. The self-estranged individual experiences sadness upon perceiving a failure to satisfy fundamental human needs; an inability to engage in activities that are intrinsically rewarding; a sense that the actual self is not the ideal or moral self to which they aspired; a loss of a true, or authentic, self, or the sense that one possesses a false self; loss of knowledge of what one's true self might be; a loss of memories of biographical episodes that have been significant to one's life and formation of one's present self; and a loss of a feeling of self-efficacy; a concomitant need to adhere to social constraints and social demands (Kavanagh & Bower, 1985).

Deviant Behaviour

Deviant behaviour is a purposeful act engaged by individual that is not in conformity to the interest of the organization. It is an employee behaviour that is intended to have negative effect on co-workers and the firm (Gruys & Sackett, 2003; Fox *et al.*, 2001). More so, according to Schnake (2011), employee deviance is an intentional behaviour exhibited by employees that could violate substantially the standards and norms of the organization thereby affecting the success of the organization and its stakeholders. In other words, deviant behaviour in the organization is behaviour that tends to impinge on the capability of the organization to attain set goals and its general success. There are two basic features of deviant behaviour vis-à-vis they are done intentionally and the primary goal of this kind of behaviour is to harm the firm and its stakeholders (employees, customers, shareholders and host of others). Its features includes low work quality, sabotage, lack of commitment, deliberately working slowly, stealing, gossiping, misuse of organizational resources, absenteeism and coming late to work, nepotism and partiality, use of abusive words as well as verbal assault among others. Furthermore, Bennett and Robinson (2000) categorized employee work deviant behaviour to include production deviance, property deviance, political deviance and personal aggression which were also adopted in this study. Political deviance (interpersonal and minor) including deviant behaviours like favourism, gossiping about fellow co-workers, as well as raining blames on co-workers, organizational vulgarity, unhealthy competition between co-workers; these deviant acts contributes towards a negative working environment which breeds hostile work environment, demoralizing employee morale and destroying leader- member and/ or managers-employee relationship. More so,

victims of political deviance suffer from depression which can lead to other workplace deviance such as absenteeism and intentionally doing work wrongly (Everton, Jolton & Mastrangelo, 2007). In the same vein, Sarwar, Awan, Alam, and Anwar (2010) expressed that political favouritism in the organization increase in the employee negative behaviour; hence, such favouritism can cost the organization a lot; personal aggression (interpersonal and serious) which include deviant behaviour like, embarrassing others, maltreatment of other workers, verbal abuse of co-workers, sexual persecution and endangering of co-workers; production deviance (organizational and minor) include deviant behaviour such as intentionally working slowly on a given task, going on undue breaks, using work time for personal use, coming late to work, leaving workplace earlier than the scheduled time, sleeping on duty, wasting organization's resources; and property deviance (organizational and serious) include deviant behaviours such as thievery, sabotage, using organizational properties without due permission.

Methodology

The study adopted the survey research design vis-à-vis correlational design that examines the relationship between employee self-estrangement and deviant work behaviour. The time horizon adopted is cross-sectional while the unit of analysis was on the employee of three (3) selected Hotels in the South-South, Nigeria. One each from Rivers State, Akwa-Ibom State and Cross-Rivers State and a visit to the 3 Hotels (the various hotels' human resource managers), we discovered that they have 1014 employees made up of junior staff, middle-cadre staff, senior staff, and management cadre. Out of the 1014 employees in the 3 hotels, 291 employees were used as the sample size gotten through the use of Krejcie and Morgan (1970) sample size determination. We also used cluster sampling to get the number of respondents in each hotel, a hotel been a cluster. More so, selection from the clusters to arrive at sample size was by proportionate sampling complemented with simple random sampling techniques which was done using Bowley's (1964) technique in the determination of unit sampling. More so, the study adopted questionnaire as the research instrument. Employee self-estrangement is the predictor variable and is used as a dimension of work alienation thus it is operationalised as a uni-variable using Merkhe (2015) questionnaire which consist of four respond choices with 5 Point Likert scales ranging from 1 to 5 indicating strongly disagree, disagree, indifference, agree and strongly agree respectively. The criterion variable is deviant behaviour with measures as production deviance, property deviance, political deviance and personal aggression which was operationalised using Bennett and Robinson (2000) deviant behaviour questionnaire consist of four respond choices each with 5 Point Likert scales ranging from 1 to 5 indicating strongly disagree, disagree, indifference, agree and strongly agree respectively. Face and content validity was also used for the validity of the research instrument while the reliability of the research instrument indicates a Cronbach Alpha value higher than 0.7; specifically the employee self-estrangement = 0.917; production deviance = 0.914; property deviance = 0.931; political deviance = 0.928 and personal aggression = 0.919. From the 291 questionnaire distributed, 276(94.81%) copies of questionnaire were retrieved while the remaining 15(5.19%) were not retrieved. More so, out of the 276 number of questionnaire retrieved, 13(4.71%) copies was not useful because it was not filled properly while the remaining 263(95.29%) copies of the retrieved questionnaire were filled correctly which were used for data analysis. The data derived were analyzed through the use of Spearman's Rank Order Correlation Coefficient Statistical as well as t-statistics to test the relationship between the variables of the study through the use of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Windows version 25 within a significance level of 0.05.

Data Analysis and Results

Relationship between Employee Self-estrangement and Production Deviance

Table 1: Correlations Analysis showing the strength of Relationship between Employee Self-estrangement and Production Deviance

			Self-Estrangement	Production Deviance
Spearman's rho	Self-Estrangement	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.966**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	263	263
	Production Deviance	Correlation Coefficient	.966**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	263	263

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Source: SPSS Windows Version 25

Table 1 above indicates that $\rho = 0.966$ and a $PV = 0.000$ less than 0.05; it means that the relationship between employee self-estrangement and production deviance in the studied Hotels is very strong, positive and significant. The relationship is further tested applying t-statistics as shown in Table 2 below:

Table 2: Effects of Employee Self-estrangement on Production Deviance

Coefficients ^a						
		UnStandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.
1	(Constant)	1.687	.357		4.726	.000
	Self-estrangement	.369	.080	.292	4.595	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Production Deviance

Source: SPSS Windows Version 25

The table 2 above shows a ($t_{\text{cal.}} = 4.595$ and $t_{\text{crit.}} = 1.96$) at significant level of ($P = 0.000 < 0.05$) which indicates a significant relationship between employee self-estrangement and production deviance. Thus, we reject the null hypothesis; we therefore conclude that employee self-estrangement had a positive and significant relationship with production deviance in the studied Hotels in Nigeria.

Relationship between Employee Self-estrangement and Property Deviance

Table 3: Correlations Analysis showing the strength of Relationship between Employee Self-estrangement and Property Deviance

			Self-Estrangement	Property Deviance
Spearman's rho	Self-Estrangement	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.986**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	263	263
	Property Deviance	Correlation Coefficient	.986**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	263	263

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Source: SPSS Windows Version 25

Table 3 above indicates that $\rho = 0.986$ and a $PV = 0.000$ less than 0.05; it means that the relationship between employee self-estrangement and property deviance in the studied Hotels is very strong, positive and significant. The relationship is further tested applying t-statistics as shown in Table 4 below:

Table 4: Effects of Employee Self-estrangement on Property Deviance

Coefficients ^a					
Model		UnStandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta	
1	(Constant)	6.584	.390		16.890
	Self-estrangement	.808	.088	.530	9.216

a. Dependent Variable: Property Deviance

Source: SPSS Windows Version 25

The table 4 above shows a ($t_{\text{cal.}} = 9.216$ and $t_{\text{crit.}} = 1.96$) at significant level of ($P = 0.000 < 0.05$) which indicates a significant relationship between employee self-estrangement and property deviance. Thus, we reject the null hypothesis; we therefore conclude that employee self-estrangement had a positive and significant relationship with property deviance in the studied Hotels in Nigeria.

Relationship between Employee Self-estrangement and Political Deviance

Table 5: Correlations Analysis showing the strength of Relationship between Employee Self-estrangement and Political Deviance

		Self-Estrangement	Political Deviance
Spearman's rho	Self-Estrangement	Correlation Coefficient	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.688**
		N	263
	Political Deviance	Correlation Coefficient	.688**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
		N	263

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Source: SPSS Windows Version 25

Table 5 above indicates that $\rho = 0.688$ and a $PV = 0.000$ less than 0.05; it means that the relationship between employee self-estrangement and political deviance in the studied Hotels is strong, positive and significant. The relationship is further tested applying t-statistics as shown in Table 6 below:

Table 6: Effects of Employee Self-estrangement on Political Deviance

Coefficients ^a					
Model		UnStandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta	
1	(Constant)	.277	.203		8.367
	Self-estrangement	.145	.046	.115	3.173

a. Dependent Variable: Political Deviance

Source: SPSS Windows Version 25

The table 6 above shows a ($t_{\text{cal.}} = 3.173$ and $t_{\text{crit.}} = 1.96$) at significant level of ($P = 0.002 < 0.05$) which indicates a significant relationship between employee self-estrangement and political deviance. Thus, we reject the null hypothesis; we therefore conclude that employee self-estrangement had a positive and significant relationship with political deviance in the studied Hotels in Nigeria.

Relationship between Employee Self-estrangement and Personal Aggression

Table 7: Correlations Analysis showing the strength of Relationship between Employee Self-estrangement and Personal Aggression

		Self-Estrangement	Personal Aggression
Spearman's rho	Self-Estrangement	Correlation Coefficient	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.885**
		N	.000
	Personal Aggression	Correlation Coefficient	.885**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	1.000
		N	.000

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Source: SPSS Windows Version 25

Table 7 above indicates that $\rho = 0.885$ and a $PV = 0.000$ less than 0.05; it means that the relationship between employee self-estrangement and personal aggression in the studied Hotels is very strong, positive and significant. The relationship is further tested applying t-statistics as shown in Table 8 below:

Table 8: Effects of Employee Self-estrangement on Personal Aggression

Coefficients ^a					
		UnStandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	T
1	(Constant)	4.305	.282		15.273
	Self-estrangement	.781	.063	.593	12.327

a. Dependent Variable: Personal Aggression

Source: SPSS Windows Version 25

The table 8 above shows a ($t_{\text{cal.}} = 12.327$ and $t_{\text{crit.}} = 1.96$) at significant level of ($P = 0.000 < 0.05$) which indicates a significant relationship between employee self-estrangement and personal aggression. Thus, we reject the null hypothesis; we therefore conclude that employee self-estrangement had a positive and significant relationship with personal aggression in the studied Hotels in Nigeria.

Discussion of Findings

Employee self-estrangement is an individual's inability to find intrinsically rewarding activities that engages him/her. The inability of the employee to find his or her work not rewarding (that is not finding his or her work satisfying) may result in deviant behaviour such as watching YouTube, checking Facebook, playing video games, online shopping, and so on during work hours which can result in the reduction of organizational productivity. More so, Blauner (1964) observed that workers experienced estrangement when they felt their work was neither self-fulfilling nor intrinsically rewarding, but that their tasks were merely a means to accomplishing something else. So, for the estranged worker, nothing is inherently gratifying about work; work

is merely an instrumental activity which is done only for extrinsic rewards (Blauner, 1964), which can lead the employee to lose interest on the job and indulge in deviant behaviour such as arriving late, leaving early and indulging in absenteeism. Also, when an employee feel estranged in his or her workplace, the employees lacks pride on what he or she is doing, lacks identification with his/her work duties, he/she feels essentially detached from his/her employer, and he/she is involved in activities that are mainly instrumentally necessary, such as a paycheck, as opposed to activities that are mainly intrinsically rewarding (Blauner, 1964; Seeman 1959), this can make him or her to indulge in behaviour such as outright theft and organizational sabotage, since he or she does not feel any sense of pride or identification in his job. More so, self - estrangement is a crucial dimension of employee work alienation, this situation happens when employees' realize that they are strangers from the work process and there is a gap separating them from the product, in other words, they are alien and independent from their contributions (Sarros, Tanewski, Winter, Santora & Densten, 2002). The feeling of been estranged to work can make employees lose commitment to work that may lead to absenteeism and arriving late to work.

Furthermore, Bugental (2005) observed that self-estrangement is a feeling of being caged in a glass, where one can see the entire world and as people move by but one cannot do same. It occurs in the organization when workers do not feel a sense of wholeness as well as association. More so, self-estrangement is a combination of isolation, meaninglessness and powerlessness. Rose (1988) expressed that it comes into manifestations when employees feel that the work he or she is doing is not in conformity with his or identity which can lead to deviant behaviour. Employee work estrangement results in job dissatisfaction which is very distasteful to employees and employees naturally have the tendencies to react to distasteful situations through the search to look for way to minimizing the distasteful situation by looking for better job placement in the organization. This can make them indulge in political deviance such as spreading rumours or gossiping about others in a bid obtain better position in the organization as well as to better adapt. Self-estrangement which has to do with workers separations from their work operation and lack of identity with the organization has a lot to do with behaviour of the employee in the organization. Self-estrangement prevents employees from interacting with others and not being interacted with can lead to aggressive behaviour towards others such as verbal abuse, threats of physical harm, and endangering other co-workers. Employees are social beings and when he or she becomes unwanted, detested, or relegated to the background by others, they may display aggressive behaviour (Dodge, Coie & Lynam, 2006). Warburton, Williams, and Cairns (2006) observed that when employees are rejected in the organization they display aggressive behaviour. More so, Williams (2001) expresses that employee's segregation with organizations brings about a negative impact to fundamental worker human needs and that such frustrated makes the worker to feel frustrated which result in increased aggression towards others in the organization. The detrimental part of self-estrangement is that it hinders workers development, self-realization as well social connection between employees that may lead them to indulge in deviant behaviour.

Conclusion

From the result of data analysis, we discovered that employee self-estrangement has direct and significant effect on all the measures of deviant behaviour in the studied firms. In other words, if employees' self-estrangement are allowed to increase, there will be a higher tendency that deviant behaviours will increase in the organization. Inevitably, employees who do not feel powerful and valuable in the organization will have no enthusiasm towards the organization as well put less importance on their job as times goes by and display behaviour that may be

detrimental to the firm. This means that when employees are not connected to their job makes them to questioning their sense of belongingness and if appropriate managerial precautions are not taken may degenerate into display of deviant behaviours in the organization. However, while we recognize that employee self-estrangement can result to display of deviant behaviours; is not applicable to all employees due to fear of been sanctioned.

Recommendations

We therefore recommend that:

1. Managers of hotels in the south-south region in Nigeria should make sure workers do not waste organization's time for their personal use by monitoring workers activities during work hours electronically, such as checking histories of internet browsing and so on.
2. The managers should encourage the free flow of communications between employees and managers in order to reduce boredom that might lead to employee deviant behaviour in the organization.
3. More so, Managers should give more priorities to employee participation so as to reduce employee work self-estrangement and give necessary training to minimize the occurrence of deviant behaviours in the organization.
4. Also, managers should organize get to gather once a while in the organization to enhance its social environment so as to reduce boredom and deviant behaviour.

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Brand Appeal and Customer Patronage of Fast Food Firms in Rivers State, Nigeria

Ogonu, Gibson Chituru and Didia, James U. D.

Department of Marketing, Rivers State University, Port Harcourt

Abstract: *The aim of this paper was to examine the degree to which brand appeal influence customer patronage of fast food firms in Rivers State, Nigeria. The simple random sampling technique was employed to select 130 respondents from 65 fast food firms to participate in the study. The study utilized structured questionnaire to collect primary data. The study obtained a 79.4 per cent response rate. The simple regression statistic was used to test the hypotheses. The results suggest that brand appeal has a significant and positive influence on customer patronage in terms of patronage intention, actual patronage and repeat patronage. The study concludes that brand appeal, if emphasized in fast food firms can increase customer patronage. The implication for management of fast food firms is that they should focus on higher levels of brand appeal practices to attain optimal customer patronage. The study recommends that managers of fast food firms should focus on brand appeal strategies to attract customer patronage in the form of patronage intention, actual patronage and repeat patronage.*

Key words: Brand appeal, Customer patronage, patronage intention, repeat purchase

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INTRODUCTION

Brand appeal is influential in the interaction between customers and firms (Harcourt & Ikegwuru, 2018; Ateke, Onwujiariri & Nnennanya, 2015; Adiele & Opara, 2014; Koll & von Wallpach 2014, Trump 2014, Hollebeek *et al.*, 2014); as customers' patronage behaviour is increasingly nudged by brand appeals (Hutchinson, 2000; Keller 1993, Alba). Brand image in particular is consequential to business performance because it modifies customers' attitude towards a firm (Ateke *et al.*, 2015). Studies (Ahluwalia, Unnava, & Burnkrant, 2001, Cheng, White, & Chaplin, 2012, Lisjak, Lee, & Gardner, 2012) suggests that customers who have vigorous relationship with a brand demonstrate non-negative reaction to adverse remarks concerning the brand. This is in view of the perception of customers that they have a peculiar association with the brand and that an injury or damage to the brand is injury or damage to their own personality (Trump, 2014; Cheng *et al.* 2012, Lisjak *et al.*, 2012).

As firms face difficulties in positioning and promoting their products, they contrive strategic options anchored on obtainable source of supply or support, potentialities, and other distinguishable faculties to address dynamic customer demands (Porter, 1985). Relatedly, Kuti

and Harrison (2012) in Amue, Adiele, and Nkoro (2013) remark that successful operation of firms require strategic designs that are appealing enough to evoke customer patronage. Several studies have been conducted in the fast-food industry internationally (Mattila, 2001) and in Nigeria to determine the connection between brand and branding and customer patronage from distinct perspectives (Ateke *et al.*, 2015; Adewuje, Ayinla & Bakare, 2014; Salami & Ajobo, 2012 among others). This study therefore, only joins the discourse as it attempts to investigate the influence of brand appeal on customer patronage in the fast-food industry in Rivers State, Nigeria.

Statement of the problem

Organizations are today facing challenges on how to out-perform one another. As the business topography becomes more and more undulating, firms such as fast-food companies continue to search for the right strategic bearing to navigate. On the other hand, customers' needs, desires and preferences remain the sole target of these firms. As customers' tastes change, accessing them through the right strategy becomes every firm's priority. Consequently, in an attempt to gaining sustainable differential advantage over competing firms, brand appeal comes in as a veritable tool. The activities of fast food firms in an economy borders on rendering need satisfying services that meet customers' expectation profitably. They accomplish this by turning in actions and ingenious eatery services that create value for customers, and empower the fast food firms to attain corporate objectives. In spite of the numerous plans and programmes put in place by these firms to satisfy customers, there is still evidence of low patronage. The question that begs for answer is: what could have begot the low customer patronage in the fast food industry in recent times? It seems that customer patronage might not be incoherent with brand appeal. In view of this incertitude and skepticism, this study investigates the nexus between brand appeal and customer patronage in the fast food industry in Rivers State of Nigeria.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES

Brand Appeal

The term "*appeal*" represents "*the power to attract, please, stimulate, or interest*". *Appeal borders on how entice customers and then keep them coming back and sharing the brand experience.* An appeal can also be described as the persuasive framework selected by the advertiser to make an item attractive to customers. Wells, Moriarty and Burnett (2006) states that appeal is the particular way in which a commercial associates with specific tastes and preferences of customer; a linkage between the emotions or logic of the advertisement and the consumer's reaction to the advertisement (Bulbul *et al.*, 2010). A brand is generally designed to inform and appeal to consumers about a company and its products. Brand appeal constitutes one of approximately twenty advertising strategies marketing professionals adopt to convince customers to buy a product, donate to a cause, or in a different way be convinced (Middleton, 2018). A brand appeal alludes to the approach used to attract the attention of consumers in order to influence their feelings toward a brand. It attempts to remind people about a brand they are already familiar with, to appeal to their desire to continue with the brand (Rossiter & Percy, 1987). Brand appeal is effective when a company's target audience is already very aware of the brand that is advertised. It is also good for audiences who feel a love or affection for a brand which requires reinforcing; as well inducing switching behaviour. Emotional appeal, fear appeal, humor appeal, rational appeal, sexual appeal and scarcity appeal are different types of brand appeal (Middleton, 2018; Belch & Belch, 2012).

Customer Patronage

Firms that crave sustained patronage in today's highly competitive business environment are required to have the satisfaction of their customership as a primary focus. Customer patronage represents the degree to which buying units concentrate purchases over time to a given product or brand based on positive reinforcement and expressed through repetitive buying behaviour (Nyakweba, Wesonga, & Bosire, 2015). Customer patronage also deals with the processes that customers engage in when selecting a product or brand among alternatives; as well as the factors and attributes used in the selection. Behavioral scientists thus propose that customer patronage results from a trial that gets reinforced through satisfaction, and leads to repeat purchase; while cognitive psychologists contend that customer patronage builds through mental processes, based on the belief that consumers engage in extensive problem solving behavior involving services (Nyakweba *et al.*, 2015). Customer patronage is important and essential to business sustainability in the fast food industry. Hence, marketers strive to determine customers' preference with a view to adapt or generate value that elicits customer patronage (Njite, Njoroge, Parsa, Parsa & van der Rest, 2015).

The phenomenon of brand switching makes customer patronage a topic of perennial concern to marketers; just as business sustenance in today's highly competitive business environment requires firms to win and keep the patronage of customers (Nwiele & Ateke, 2016). Babin and Darden suggest that values, lifestyles, social class, and media habits are antecedent to patronage (Nwiele & Ateke, 2016), and affects store attribute importance; which may be evoked by a stimulus that sets needs in motion, leading to patronage intentions and patronage behaviour. Hence, the phenomenon of customer patronage requires on-going observation, since social, cultural and economic changes affect patronage behavior (Nwiele & Ateke, 2016). Extant literature links customer patronage to physical setting, business location, corporate identity and advancement inclination behaviour (Adiele & Opara, 2015; Nwulu & Asiegbu, 2015; Chukwu & Uzoma, 2014; Ogwo & Igwe, 2012); and measures it as patronage intention, actual patronage and repeat patronage (Nwulu & Asiegbu, 2015); shopping enjoyment, satisfaction, time spent, number of items bought, money spent, share of wallet (Paswan *et al.*, 2010). In line with Nwulu and Asiegbu (2015) this study adopts patronage intention, actual patronage and repeat patronage as measures of customer patronage.

Patronage intention

Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) see consumers purchase intention as an important indicator for predicting consumer behavior. Patronage intention explains the tendency that the consumer will be willing to buy a given product in the future. Zeithaml (1988) observes that merchandise value discernment trigger purchase intentions and purchase behavior in organizations. Hence, purchase intention is found to be influenced by product value. Consumers' aspiration to purchase can also be perceived as an association between their attitude towards a product and its exact purchase. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) gave three renowned measurement items for estimating purchase intentions: possible to buy, intended to buy and consider buying. Thus, service organizations such as fast food firms can enrich customers purchase behavior by generating value in product offerings to match customers' expectations and assuage their requirements.

Actual patronage

Significantly, purchase action by a customer subsumes psychological principles that have been evolved to exploit an understanding of consumers' needs so that products can be designed, developed and communicated in a justified manner that can mirror the applicable and substantial

requirements of consumers. Consumer decision making is a process comprised of five stages that people experience when deciding on what products to buy (Grewal & Levy, 2010). Conventionally, consumer decision making has been delineated into five refined stages known as: need recognition; information search; evaluation of alternatives; purchase decision; and post purchase processes. All decision-making are channeled towards a determination of a purchase action. Accordingly, Baker *et al.* (2002) observed that consumers' choice impact shoppers' discernments of commodity value and consequently their aspiration to constitute a purchase act.

Repeat patronage

Repeat purchase describes customers' propensity to returns to a particular firm for more business after an initial trial (Nwiepe & Ateke, 2016). It is the willingness of individuals to re-patronize a firm (Wirtz & Lwin, 2009). Repeat patronage can be pictured as the positioning of a series of orders by a consumer from a distinct company; or the buying of a product by a consumer of the same brand. Repeat purchase customers constitute customers who attach satisfied emotional, intellectual, physical connection to a company's offerings which surpasses their contemplations. Wirtz and Lwin (2009) suggest that repeat purchase is a measure of a consumer loyalty to a specific brand and that it is a principal goal companies strive to attain. Caudill and Murphy contends that repeat patronage in buyer-seller relationships is built on trust, commitment and mutual respect; since customers revisit firms based on their belief that the firm will conduct its business in a manner that protects their interest (Nwiepe & Ateke, 2016). Repeat patronage is thus reinforced by favourable purchase experience, meaning that customers will continue to return to a firm for further business as long as they (the customers) get a favourable experience with the firm (Nwiepe & Ateke, 2016).

Based on the above, the study formulates the following hypotheses and develops the conceptual framework in fig. 1.

H₀₁: Brand appeal does not significantly influence patronage intentions.

H₀₂: Brand appeal does not significantly influence patronage action.

H₀₃: Brand appeal does not significantly influence repeat purchase

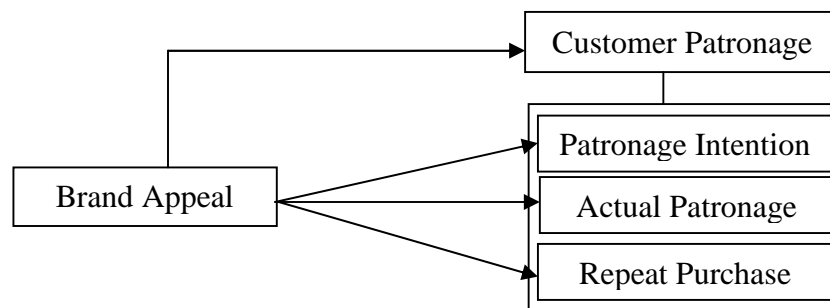


Fig. 1: Conceptual framework of brand appeal and customer patronage

Source: Proxies of dependent variable adopted from:

Nwulu, C. S., & Asiegbu, I. F. (2015). Advancement inclination behaviors and university academic staff patronage of deposit money banks in Port Harcourt. *International Journal of Research in Business Studies and Management*, 2(6), 94-104.

METHODOLOGY

The examination of the influence of brand appeal on customer patronage is the focus of the study. The study adopted a quantitative research approach to test the influence of brand appeal on components of customer patronage. A simple random sample of 130 marketing and sales managers of 65 fast food firms was used for the study. The marketing and sales managers were chosen because these two categories of management staff have job roles relating to brand appeal. A structured questionnaire was used to collect primary data. The questionnaire's reliability was determined via the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient. Table 1 below presents the summary of the result of test of reliability. The simple regression analysis was employed to test the three null hypotheses, relying on SPSS version 22.0.

Table 1: Summary of Result Test of Reliability (n=130)

S/N	Dimension	Number of Item	Reliability Coefficient
1.	Brand appeal	5	0.761
2.	Patronage intention	5	0.822
3.	Actual patronage	5	0.712
4.	Repeat patronage	5	0.912

Source: SPSS 22.0 Window output (based on 2019 field survey data).

Table 1 shows the reliability coefficients of brand appeal and the measures of customer patronage. In view of the standard requirement, we expect the reliability coefficients of each variable to be equal to or exceed the 0.70 threshold. From the Table, this requirement is satisfied for brand appeal (.761). The requirement is also satisfied for patronage intentions (.822), actual patronage (.712) and repeat patronage (.912). This implies that data on which this study's results are based are reliable. Consequently, the study assumes reliable conclusions.

Test of Hypotheses

Influence of Brand Appeal on Patronage Intentions

Table 2: Influence of brand appeal on patronage intentions (n=130)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the estimate	Sig
1	.810	.656	.653	.50668	0.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), Brand appeal

b. Dependent Variable: Patronage intention

The Coefficient of correlation (R) can be considered as a measure of the quality of the prediction of the independent variable. The value of 0.810 indicates a good level of prediction. The Coefficient of determination (R-square) is the proportion of variation in the dependent variable (patronage intention) that is explained by the independent variable. Hence, 65.6 percent of patronage intention can be explained by the independent variable (brand appeal) in the model. The adjusted R-square is used to test the overestimation of R square. The estimates show an error of .50668, which cannot be considered as very large. The brand appeal variable exact significant influence on patronage intention in fast food firms in Rivers State, since the sig. (or p-value) is .000 which is below the 0.05 level of significance.

Influence of Brand Appeal on Patronage Actions

Table 3: Influence of brand appeal on actual patronage (n= 130)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the estimate	Sig
1	.983	.963	.963	2.6751	0.000

-
- a. Predictors: (Constant), Brand appeal
b. Dependent Variable: Actual patronage

The Coefficient of correlation (R) can be considered as a measure of the quality of the prediction of the independent variable. The value of 0.983 indicates a good level prediction. The Coefficient of determination (R-square) is the proportion of variation in the dependent variable (actual patronage) that is explained by the independent variables. Hence, 96.3 per cent of actual patronage can be explained by brand appeal. The adjusted R-square is used to test the overestimation of R square. The estimates show an error of 2.6751 which cannot be considered as very large. The brand appeal variable exact significant influence on actual patronage in fast food firms in Rivers State, since the sig. (or p-value) is .000 which is below the 0.05 level of significance.

Influence of Brand Appeal on Repeat Patronage

Table 3: Influence of brand appeal on repeat patronage (n=130)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the estimate
1	.776	.603	.553	.08878

- a. Predictors: (Constant), Brand appeal
b. Dependent Variable: Repeat patronage

The Coefficient of correlation (R) can be considered as a measure of the quality of the prediction of the independent variable. The value of 0.776 indicates a good level prediction. The Coefficient of determination (R-square) is the proportion of variation in the dependent variable (repeat patronage) that is explained by the independent variables. Hence, 60.3 percent of the patronage actions can be explained by independent variables in the model. The adjusted R-square is used to test the overestimation of R square. The estimates show an error of .08878 which cannot be considered as very large. The brand appeal variable exact significant influence on repeat patronage in fast food firms in Rivers State, since the sig. (or p-value) is .000 which is below the 0.05 level of significance.

Conclusion and Recommendations

This study examined the influence of brand appeal on customer patronage. Customer patronage was measured as patronage intention, actual patronage and repeat patronage. Based on the statistical analyses, the study realized a significant positive influence of brand appeal on the components of customer patronage (patronage intention, actual patronage and repeat patronage). The results show that brand appeal is more influential on actual patronage (.983) and then on patronage intention (.810) and repeat patronage (.776). This implies that customer patronage increases as the effectiveness of activities of brand appeal is enhanced among fast food firms in Rivers State. Hence, there is material substantiation that customer patronage of fast food firms in Rivers State is largely influenced by brand appeal. This finding is in conformity with that of Dunn and Haag (2014) who examined the impact of fear on emotional brand attachment and found a significant interaction between consumption and emotion. Based on the empirical tests carried out and the discussion of findings, this study concludes that brand appeal, if emphasized in fast food firms can improve customer patronage. The implication for management of fast food firms is that they should focus on higher levels of brand appeal programmes to attain optimal customer patronage. Based on the findings and conclusion reached, the study recommends that: Managers of fast food firms should consider brand appeal as a powerful strategy for achieving customer patronage.

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Entrepreneurial Competence and Organizational Performance of SMEs in Rivers State, Nigeria

Emmanuel Aziegbe Akhigbe¹ and Chima Onuoha²

¹Doctoral Student, Department of Management, University of Port Harcourt

²Professor of Management, Department of Management, University of Port Harcourt

Abstract: *This study examined the relationship amongst entrepreneurial competence and performance of SMEs in Rivers State, Nigeria. The cross sectional survey was adopted. 1200 SMEs served as the population and a sample of 291 employees was derived. Systematic sampling technique was utilized and data were gathered using questionnaire. 291 questionnaires were given to 291 owner managers of SMEs in Rivers State. However, only 228 employees which represented 78.4% respondents, adequately completed their copies. Spearman rank correlation was utilized in the analysis so as to ascertain the relationship between the dimensions of entrepreneurial competence (opportunity competence, relationship competence, networking competence and risk taking competence) and performance of SMEs. Centered on the bivariate analysis, the outcome disclosed that all dimensions of entrepreneurial competence significantly relate with the performance of SMEs. Conclusively, when the competencies of owner managers entrepreneur increases, the performance of their organization will subsequently increase. Accordingly, the study recommended that entrepreneurs of SMEs should frequently update their skills through training as such will help prevent obsolescence of skills and thus enhance decision making for higher performance.*

Key words: *Entrepreneurial Competence, Networking Competence, Opportunity Competence, Organizational Performance, Relationship Competence, Risk Taking Competence*

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

The high versatility of the domain of business and the proliferation in the mortality rate of most business firms, has presently drawn the interest of numerous scholars to assess the possible ways to boost business performance. Performance is an ultimate factor that affects all entities sustainability. An establishment that is fit technologically and financially but without high performance, is bound to fizzle out. Organizational performance is a construct which measures firms' position in the industry (Lo, Mohammed, Ramayah, & Wany, 2015). Performance of SMEs is paramount because it reduces unemployment compared to bigger firms (Storey, 1994).

The success of any economy, depends to a large extent on the achievement of its SMEs because they help in poverty reduction, boost employment, increase output and enhance innovation (Abiodun & Harry, 2014). However, considering the indisputable role of SMEs in

enhancing the economic wellbeing, it is alleged that the competence of entrepreneur may impact their performance. Bird (1995) sees entrepreneurial competence as the main characteristics such as specific and basic knowledge, traits, skills and motives needed for startup, growth and survival of firms. The competence of entrepreneur could be learnable and enhanced through entrepreneurship training (Man, Lau, and Chan, 2012). Tehseen and Ramayeh (2015) identified various domains of entrepreneurial competence, these include, strategic competence, conceptual competence, opportunity competence, learning competences, ethical competences, personal competence and familism. Wickramaratne, Kiminami and Yagi (2014) identified its measures as opportunity competencies, strategic competences, commitment competences, organization competences and relationship competence.

Thus, the enhancement of the competency of entrepreneur will better equip the entrepreneur to tackle various challenges either from the immediate or external environment. Competences of an entrepreneur is a bedrock which enhances the success of firms (Wickramaratne, Kiminami & Yagi, 2014). Despite the numerous scholarly work on entrepreneurial competence, a dearth of empirical work exists on how these competences relate with performance of SMEs in River State, Nigeria. The SMEs has experienced tough times which has impede its performance, weaken their contribution to economic development and intensify hunger in the country. It is on this note that this work seeks to survey the rapport between the competence of entrepreneur and SMEs performance.

Research Questions

What is the relationship between;

1. Opportunity competence and organizational performance of SMEs in Rivers state, Nigeria?
2. Relationship competence and organizational performance of SMEs in Rivers state, Nigeria?
3. Networking competence and organizational performance of SMEs in Rivers state, Nigeria?
4. Risk-taking competence and organizational performance of SMEs in Rivers state, Nigeria?

Research Hypotheses

- H₀₁** There is no significant relationship between opportunity competence and organizational performance of SMEs in Rivers State, Nigeria.
- H₀₂** There is no significant relationship between relationship competence and organizational performance of SMEs in Rivers State, Nigeria.
- H₀₃** There is no significant relationship between networking competence and organizational performance of SMEs in Rivers State, Nigeria.
- H₀₄** There is no significant relationship between risk-taking competence and organizational performance of SMEs in Rivers State, Nigeria.

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

Concept of Entrepreneurial Competence

For every business to continue in a modest environment, the entrepreneurs must be proficient significantly in different aspects such as intellectual, attitude, behavior and managerial competence. Due to the importance of studying entrepreneurial characteristics, the competence approach has become popular. According to Bird (1995) entrepreneurial competences has principal features such as basic and specific knowledge, traits, roles, motives and self-image needed for business startup, survival, growth and expansion. Entrepreneurial competence in its nature is an imperative concept for improving entrepreneurship. Most vigorous capability ranges for Jamaican businesspersons are planning, budgeting and marketing (Huck & McEwen, 1991). However, two essential competencies for entrepreneur role is capability to identify and forecast, and also taking total advantage of prospects and seeing firm creation through end results. By observing the real behavior of an entrepreneur, the features of businessperson capabilities can be examined from process perspectives. Entrepreneurial competence is the entire strength of entrepreneur to accomplish the job role excellently.

Opportunity Competence

A unique feature of entrepreneurial charisma is the aptitude to diagnose and take necessary advantage of available opportunities. This specific competency is similarly linked with aptitude of entrepreneurs to pursue, develop and measure high worth prospects in the marketplace. The recognition of high value opportunities stimulates entrepreneurs to build establishments and embrace substantial risks to turn the opportunity into positive result. A vital competency prerequisite for growing firms is the enthusiasm to seize pertinent opportunities (Snell & Lau, 1994). Entrepreneurs need to engage in a continuous search for products and distinct services that can add value for the buyers or end users because the decision to exploit the opportunities depends on the entrepreneur's acquaintance of buyer demand (Choi & Shepherd, 2004). Furthermore, Chandler and Jansen (1992) inferred that the skill to spot, visualize and take benefit of opportunities is one of most indispensable entrepreneurial roles.

In the same vein, Shane and Venkataraman (2000) proposed that vital concepts of entrepreneurship are opportunity identification and exploitation. This is operationalized by determining several behaviours which involve identifying the products desired by the customers, perceiving unmet needs of the customers, looking for beneficial product and services for the customers, and availing the best opportunities. De koning (2003) associated the opportunity development with the entrepreneur's ability to seek, explore, develop and assess better existing opportunities in markets. One of the chief features of entrepreneur is that they can see or recognize the opportunities where others cannot do so (Allison, Chell, & Hayes, 2000).

Relationship Competence

Relationship competencies is about interactions, for instance, collaboration with environment by means of persuasive aptitude, communication and interactive skill. Drawing from Bird (1995), building relationship depicts entrepreneurial attachment with people, which involves making and reforming relationship. Furthermore, the establishment of cordial rapport with the customers and potential customers will help enhance the fortune of the firm. Relationship competence is vital and indisputable in this era of stiff and unending completion among firms. In a way to efficaciously secure corporate dealings with clients, entrepreneurs are engrossed in relationship actions, referred to as entrepreneurial tie that reflects building and restructuring relationships with important interested party such as consumers and suppliers (Bird, 1995).

Networking Competence

People devote time to networking as to advance their business goals. This doesn't imply that women are less social. Therefore, researchers have contended that a unique key issues influencing a small-scale manufacturing creation and performance is the interactive way in which entrepreneurial personal characteristics network with human capital and salient aspects in the environment to impact decisions regarding fresh venture creation, performance and growth (Cheskin, 2000). In firms, entrepreneurs need to deal with numerous people like government authorities, customers, suppliers and employees. Being in touching base with a diverse group of individuals is vital for entrepreneurs as it provides them accessibility to information and additional resources (Jenssen & Greve, 2002). Evidence suggests that SMEs engaged in networks especially in gaining advice and support from professionals and experts such as lawyers, consultants and accountants (Ramsden & Bennett, 2005).

Risk Taking competence

According to Calvin (2003) Risk taking encompasses the entrepreneurs perception that he a businessman and not a mere gambler. He takes reasonable risks with the likelihood of accomplishment. He looks for other alternatives to challenges and unconventional means based on risks versus returns. An inquiry by Paladan (2015) depicts that both gender have a moderate level of risk taking. Bagheri & Pihie (2011) posits that risk-taking is vital to business/enterprise success. Thus to explore and develop these opportunities, entrepreneurs act under the state of uncertainty which necessitate them to take risks. In fascinating these roles, entrepreneurs do ensure that they avoid blindfolded actions; they study from earlier mistakes made by them and other people (Smilor, 1997). Entrepreneurs assess and examine risks in an informally manner before taking business-related decisions.

Organizational performance of SMEs

Performance is what determine the lifespan of any establishment that ensures its Survival, continuity and growth. SME performance represent a very central fragment of any economy. The SME sector is a main device which inspires the increase of jobs and formation of wealth in the country. Performance of SMEs represent a noteworthy part that is linked to the consolidation and progress of the nation (Enila & Ektebang, 2014). Performance and progress of the SMEs in manufacturing, services and agriculture, has been perceived as the paramount drive and has immensely add up to Nigeria economy. Sustainable progress and the proliferation of SME performance, will open abundant doors for employment openings (Enila & Ektebang, 2014).

Empirical Review

Several scholars have over time tried to explore the various construct. Ibidunni, et al. (2018) did a work where they examined the how entrepreneurial orientation affect entrepreneurial competencies and performance. The primary data utilized copies of questionnaire. 1500 senior managerial cadre employees were identified, and 316 employees were sampled in their study. However, 232 copies which represented 73.4% of the questionnaire was utilized and hierarchical multiple regression was utilized. The outcomes shown a linear influence of competencies of entrepreneur on Agro-based SMEs performance. Sanchez (2011) surveyed how competencies of entrepreneur impact small firm performance. 700 business owners were identified. From the 700 people, 450 questionnaires were suitably filled and utilized. The structural equation model was employed and outcomes depicts that entrepreneurs competence influence firms performance. Umar and Ngah (2016) surveyed the link among competency of entrepreneur and SMEs success

in Malaysian. From their study, they remarked that entrepreneurial competence is the vital factor needed when the business domain is dynamic and hostile. They detected that competence of entrepreneur has a direct link with firm's performance. Tamyaz, Ali and Ishak (2017) investigated how competence of entrepreneur and its networks relate with entrepreneur success of contractors of small size in Malaysia. They detected that networking competence (inter-organizational network and social network) significantly relate with business success with Beta value of 0.231 and 0.223 respectively. Bendassolli, Borges – Andrade Gondim and Makhamed (2016) examined performance, self-regulation and entrepreneur's competencies of Brazilian creative industry. 295 experts of the Brazilian creative industry were covered. Both multivariate multiple linear regression and factor analysis was utilized in analyses. The result revealed that strategy and planning competencies were predictors of performance with $R^2 = 0.20$. Social relationship and career predict performance with $R^2 = 0.24$.

3.0 METHODOLOGY

To achieve the earlier stated objectives, the cross sectional survey was utilized owing that the variables were not within the researcher control and the study aim at generating new fact without willfully influencing of the variables. 1200 SMEs in Rivers state were identified. The Krejcie and Morgan (1970) table was employ to derive a total sample size of 291. Questionnaire was thus distributed to the 291 owner-managers and the systematic sampling technique was utilized. The independent variable (entrepreneurial competence) was operationalized in opportunity competence, relationship competence, networking competence, risk taking competence, and goal setting competence as contained in Paladan (2015). Each construct was measured with four items. The Cronbach alpha was utilized to ascertain the reliability for the 4 dimensions (opportunity competence, relationship competence, networking competence, and risk-taking competence,). The Cronbach alpha result for the dimensions are 0.732, 0.715, 0.821, and 0.814 respectively. The dependent variable (organizational performance of SMEs) was measured with a set of 5 items. The reliability of the items for organizational performance gave a Cronbach value of 0.82. Items were rated on a 4-point Likert scale from 1-strongly disagreed, 2-disagree, 3-agree and 4-strongly agreed. The spearman rank order correlation coefficient was used in analyzing the earlier state hypotheses.

4.0 RESULT

Out of the 291 questionnaire spread to respondent, only 228 (78.4%) copies were returned. The hypotheses test is undertaken at a 95% confidence interval.

Decision Rule:

Where $P < 0.05$ = Reject the null hypotheses

Where $P > 0.05$ = Accept the null hypotheses

Table 1 Relationship between opportunity competence and organizational performance

Correlations			Opportunity Competence	Organizational Performance
Spearman's rho	Opportunity Competence	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.521
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.001
		N	228	228
	Organizational Performance	Correlation Coefficient	.521	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.
		N	228	228

**, Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The outcome shows a substantial relation among opportunity competence and organizational performance with $P < 0.05$ ($0.001 < 0.05$) and the $\rho = 0.521$.

Table 2 Relationship Competence and Organizational Performance

Correlations			Relationship Competence	Organizational Performance
Spearman's rho	Relationship Competence	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.352
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	228	228
	Organizational Performance	Correlation Coefficient	.352	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	228	228

**, Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 2 data analysis, displays a noteworthy correlation amongst the variable with $P < 0.05$ ($0.000 < 0.05$). The $\rho = 0.352$. This correlational value revealed a low positive link between the relationship competence and organizational performance. Hence the null hypothesis is hereby spurned and alternate hypothesis accepted.

Table 3 Networking Competence and Organizational Performance

Correlations			Networking Competence	Organizational Performance
Spearman's rho	Networking Competence	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.416
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.014
		N	228	228
	Organizational Performance	Correlation Coefficient	.416	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.014	.
		N	228	228

**, Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 3 outcome displayed a substantial link amongst networking competence and performance with P-value of .014 lower than .05 ($0.014 < 0.05$) and positive rho value of 0.416.

Table 4 Risk-Taking competence and organizational performance

Correlations			Risk-Taking Competence	Organizational Performance
Spearman's rho	Risk-Taking Competence	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.614
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	228	228
	Organizational Performance	Correlation Coefficient	.614	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	228	228

**, Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The analysis in table 4, point out a linear correction between risk-taking competence and performance with the P-value of .000 and a rho. Value of .614.

Discussion of findings

Performance of organizations enhances the fortune of organizations. The requisite competence of entrepreneurs in terms of their aptitude in scanning for opportunity, creating a cordial rapport with relevant stakeholders, maintaining right network and careful risk-taking will improve the performance of the establishment and thus boost their competitiveness. Discussions of each hypotheses are specified below;

Opportunity Competence and Performance of SMEs

The outcome disclosed that opportunity competence relate significantly with SMEs performance. This denotes that an entrepreneur aptitude to scan the environment, identify potential opportunities and adequately explore the opportunity will boost their performance. The P-value of 0.001 indicated that opportunity competence considerably relate with performance while the rho value of 0.521 shows a high correlational value. SMEs that are experiencing dwindling performance could thus eliminate such unpleasant outcome through boosting the opportunity competence of entrepreneur. When opportunity competence increases, SMEs performance will burst up. This finding align with that of Ibidunni, Atolagbe, Obi, Olokundun, Oke, Amaihian, Borishade and Obaoye (2018) whose outcomes displayed a substantial correlation amongst the competences of an entrepreneur with Agro-based SMEs performance.

Relationship Competence and Performance of SMEs

The bivariate hypotheses revealed that relationship competence significantly correlates with performance of SMEs. This by extension indicates that relationship of entrepreneur built over time will significantly positively upturn their performance. The findings agree with that of Sanchez (2011) whose findings shows that entrepreneurial competence impels firm's performances. Furthermore, entrepreneurial competence plays a high dominant role in boosting the organizational capability and competitive scope. The findings also align with that of Bendassolli, Borges – Andrade Gondim and Makhamed (2016) whose research revealed a significant relationship between social relationship and performance.

Networking Competence and Performance of SMEs

The bivariate analysis also depicts that the networking competencies has a noteworthy link with SMEs performance, given than p-value of 0.014 was lesser than 0.05 ($p = 0.014 < 0.05$). This infers that the social network and the inter-organizational network competence which an entrepreneur is competent to maintain will positively impact the establishment performance given the correctional value of 0.416. This outcome align with that of Tamyez, Ali and Ishak (2017) where they observed that networking competence in terms of social network and inter-organizational network, significantly relates with business success with beta value of 0.231 and 0.223 respectively.

Risk Taking Competence and Performance of SMEs

Organizations operates in an ever mutable environment, as such availability of requisite competence to take calculate risk will help enhance the wellbeing of firms. Given the outcome of the bivariate analyses, the result revealed that risk-taking competence of owner-managers have substantial link with performance of an establishment. The rho value of 0.614 show that the competence in taking crucial risk will highly influence the whole performance of the SMEs. This finding agree with Bendassoli, Borges-Andrade, Gondim and Makhamed (2016) whose outcome discovered that strategy and planning competencies were predictors of performance

5.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Entrepreneurs possess high level of self-motivation and as such, their competence to effectively drive the establishment will enhance the competitiveness of the firm among rivals. Competences of entrepreneurs, most especially owner-managers define the sustainability and continuity of the entity. Entrepreneurs who are proficient to consistently update their skills will accomplish the competence needed to heighten performance. Drawing from the outcome, risk taking competence had the highest correlational value in comparison with other dimensions of

entrepreneurial competence. This implies that taking risk is undeniable aspect of organization and firms that are competent to select calculated risk will outperform their rivals. In conclusion, when the competencies of owner manager's entrepreneur increases, the performance of that establishment will subsequently increase. Thus, enhancing competencies of entrepreneurs is a panacea for eliminating poor performance of SMEs. Hence, this study proffers the succeeding recommendations;

1. Entrepreneurs of SMEs should frequently update their skills through training and development as such will help prevent obsolesce of skills and thus enhance decision making for higher organizational performance.
2. The entrepreneurs of SMEs should build up relationship competence by creating a genial rapport with relevant stakeholders as such will boost the establishment performance.
3. The entrepreneurs of SMEs should build a strong networking with those that has a link with the firm to get updated information and necessary resources needed for the high performance of the establishment.
4. Government should put relevant policies in place to create a favourable domain for the establishment, growth and sustenance of SMEs.

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Interpersonal Conflict and Prosocial Behaviour

David-Alonge, Bosede Olugbenga

Department of Management, Ignatious Ajuru University of Education, Port Harcourt, Rivers
State, Nigerian

Abstract: *The study gives insight into how relational and task interpersonal conflict influences prosocial behaviour at the workplace. Emphasizing the importance of how to reduce disagreement at work place and give helping hands to others for a successful job performance in the organisation. The study shows influence of relational and task interpersonal conflict on prosocial behaviour.*

Keywords: *Interpersonal Conflict, Relational Interpersonal Conflict, Task Interpersonal Conflict Prosocial Behaviour, Altruism, Benevolence*

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INTRODUCTION

The search to increase the wealth in this age of high vitality and stiff competition, have made most organisations to shift attention from investing in sophisticated equipment to enhancing the employee's positive behaviour. Organisations have realised that the sophisticated equipment acquired, cannot yield result when the employee exhibit negative behaviour. Enhancing right attitude had been recognised as a positive solution for harmony, employee commitment and effectiveness of the organisation. Several factors are responsible for conflicts in the workplace; however, the study focus is on interpersonal conflict (IPC) and prosocial behaviour (PB).

Interpersonal Conflict consist of three different components, the behavioural, cognitive, and affective component (Study.Com, 2019). The behavioural component of conflict involves individual objectives interferences, such as when co-workers are competing in a contest, and one constantly bugs another to ensure the person's failure, destroying vital work information of another person. This involves focusing attention on people's weakness to destroy them instead of encouraging and accepting their behavior. This three-component mentioned above affect task in the organisation.

Sometimes overlap between relationships can cause not separating work issues from personal issues. When people focus on personalities or behaviours, conflicts can escalate quickly. Task differences and achieving individual task goal and objectives sometimes make one not to consider individual action on others, thereby escalating disagreement at the workplace. Conflict among parties reduces offering help, healthy rapport and giving helping hand reduces

among incompatible parties. Helpful behaviour is directed towards enhancing or promoting the well-being of another (Gupta & Thapliyal, 2015). Act, such as donating, helping, cooperating, volunteering and sharing maintains the integrity and others security. We live in a changing network of associated family members, colleagues, friends, and school mates. We cooperate but sometimes, there exist contradictory goals, actions, beliefs, opinions and competition for limited resources or miscommunications and misunderstandings, that result in conflicts.

An organisation consists of people from different culture, backgrounds, and religions. This conflicting interest results in the misunderstanding that made them not to offer helping hand to their colleagues. It takes cooperation to benefit from helping, but how can an organisation achieved these when conflicts are not minimized?

Negative behaviours such as hatred, gossips, favoritism, viciousness, jealousy exist among workers, resulting in unhealthy association at workplace. Hence, understanding individual differences and the "give and take" of bond is crucial at one point or the other, as human being we need help. Can conflict enable one to give unbiased and rewarded help? The study answers this question. The study ascertains whether interpersonal conflicts relate to prosocial behaviour, by determining relational and task interpersonal conflict influence on prosocial behaviour.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Conflict is a disagreement among parties with conflicting needs, interests or concerns. Conflict is incompatibility in thoughts and values (Jehn & Bendersky, 2003). According to Zeb-Obipi (2019), it interests differences between or among parties, resulting in interference in another party's achievement of its goals, and with hostility.

Bao, Zhu, Hu, & Cui (2016), defines interpersonal conflict as an interaction of interdependent people who sense disagreement and opposing interests, incompatibility and the possibility of interference from others. According to Zeb-Obipi (2019), it is a conflict among parties because of ego, transaction and open play game. He identified interpersonal conflicts as, open self-conflict, hidden self-conflict, blind self-conflict, discovered self-conflict and undiscovered self-conflict. Interpersonal conflict is disagreement, interest differences, incompatibility of goals, negative emotions and interferences in goal achievement. A relationship conflict occurs due to incompatibilities, tension, animosity, socioemotional annoyance among parties. This problem affects work efficiency. Task conflicts are content, ideas and performance procedures that lower morale if not controlled.

Prosocial behaviour (PB) is a beneficial action, such as kindness, helping, cooperating, and donating. It originates from McDougall (1908), who posits that it is the result of tender emotions created by the parental instinct, but most current research relates it to lay and scientific reactions to the non-responsive bystander in Kitty Genovese murder. The story generates different situational reasons for prosocial behaviours and uncovered that the higher in numbers of people that witness a situation, the lower the personal responsibility of people.

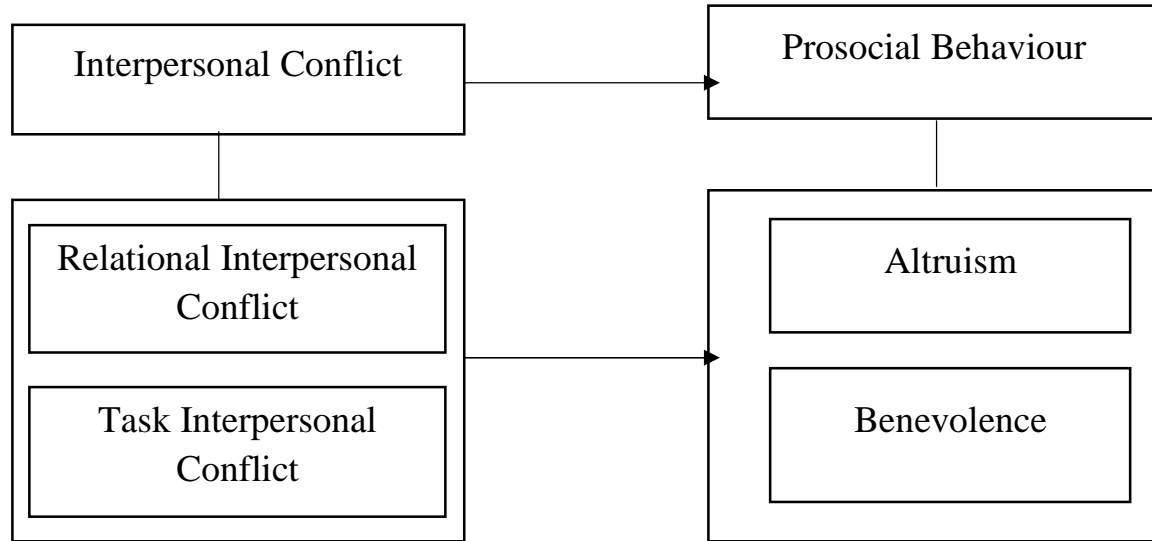


Fig 1: Conceptual framework of Interpersonal Conflict and Prosocial Behaviour.

Source: Researcher (2019).

PB is a wide-ranging class of behaviours that includes any action that provides benefit to others like following rules in a game, honesty and cooperating in social situations. These actions are motivated by compassion or social benefits. Prosocial behaviour as helping others sincerely, given pure altruism which is entirely motivated by self-interest without reward and benevolence which benefit another intentionally.

Altruism is a prosocial behaviour that profits others but confers the associated costs to the obligatory, facilitate cooperation, build trust, encourage information, and improve internal communication in organisations. Altruism involves putting others objectives before one's own, exceeding and forfeiting benefits for a mutual purpose and demonstrating selflessness through positive service.

Prosocial behaviour involves assisting (Coetzer, Bussin, & Geldenhuys, 2017); Seeking outcomes that provide the highest benefit to others and acting toward that end (McCaskill, 2017); acting ethically (Batson, 2008); voluntary and unrewarded benefit (Mallén *et al.*, 2014) and noble behaviours (Coetzer *et al.*, 2017; Curry, Smith, & Robinson, 2009; Singh & Krishnan, 2007).

Benevolence is an impure altruism prosocial behaviour with self-centred motives. Human beings engage in activities that are costly to themselves and mostly benefit others if they feel happy about doing it. The same person that can assist others might decide to withhold assistance because of misunderstanding or disagreement among the parties. What makes one decides to give help? Why would an employee assist another? To what extent is it possible for employees to help others for apparently no rewards in organisations? Why do employees intentionally refuse to help others even in situations that warrant help in organisations?

Conflict, an incompatible behaviour or goal between individuals is inevitable, as individuals enter a conflict with those they live in groups with and interact with. Although conflict might be viewed as a negative event, it also has positive effects. For instance, a conflict can provides opportunities to negotiate with others and their environments. Such events could

also promote social cognition development and social competence.

Conflict events are common in interpersonal relationships, but people have opportunities to negotiate relationships with peers while balancing autonomy needs (Ladd, 2005). Reconciling after conflict maintains bonds between individuals and individuals may use this behaviour towards a variety of goals. For example, prosocial behaviours may be used to resolve individuals' disagreements, repairing potential harm caused by conflict, to maintain positive peer relationships.

Interpersonal conflict reduces prosocial behaviour among employees, as anti-social behaviour promotes interpersonal conflicts in the organisation. However, a basic question that people have asked is whether employees help others in situation of disagreement. Helping others in place of work decreases with conflicting differences at the workplace.

METHODOLOGY

The study examines interpersonal conflicts and prosocial behaviour among employees of 10 hospitalities firms in Port Harcourt. the population comprises 200 employees of this firms and a total of 132 employees constituted the sample. But only 125 questionnaires returned were used as the sample. The questionnaire was rated on 4-point Likert scale of strongly agreed, agreed disagreed and strongly disagree. Spearman rank Correlation Coefficient.

RESULT AND FINDINGS

Table I: Correlation of Relational Interpersonal Conflict and Prosocial Behaviour.

			Relational Interpersonal Conflict	Altruism	Benevolence
Spearman's rho	Relational Interpersonal Conflict	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.525**	.565**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.000
		N	125	125	125
	Altruism	Correlation Coefficient	.525**	1.000	.545**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.000
		N	125	125	125
	Benevolence	Correlation Coefficient	.565**	.545**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.
		N	125	125	125

Source: SPSS Output, 2020.

Relational Interpersonal Conflict and Altruism: The analysis findings show a significant level $p < 0.05$ ($0.000 < 0.05$), $\rho = 0.525^{**}$. This shows the existence of connectivity between relational interpersonal conflict and altruism. The null hypothesis, H_{01} , is rejected and the alternate accepted.

Relational Interpersonal Conflict and Benevolence: The result depicts a significant level $p < 0.05$ ($0.000 < 0.05$), $\rho = 0.565^{**}$. This shows an association between relational interpersonal conflict and benevolence. The null hypothesis H_{02} , is rejected and the alternate accepted.

Table 2: Correlation of Task Interpersonal Conflict and Prosocial Behaviour .

			Task Interpersonal Conflict	Altruism	Benevolence
Spearman's rho	Task Interpersonal Conflict	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.455**	.475**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.001	.002
		N	125	125	125
	Altruism	Correlation Coefficient	.455**	1.000	.435**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.	.000
		N	125	125	125
	Benevolence	Correlation Coefficient	.475**	.435**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.000	.
		N	125	125	125

Source

Source

e: SPSS Output, 2020.

Task Interpersonal Conflict and Altruism: The analysis findings show a significant level $p < 0.05$ ($0.001 < 0.05$), $\rho = 0.455^{**}$. It indicates an association task interpersonal conflict and altruism. The null hypothesis, H_{03} , is rejected and the alternate accepted.

Task Interpersonal Conflict and Benevolence: The result depicts a significant level $p < 0.05$ ($0.000 < 0.05$), $\rho = 0.475^{**}$. This shows a relationship between task interpersonal conflict and benevolence. The null hypothesis H_{04} , is rejected and the alternate accepted.

CONCLUSION

The study surveys interpersonal conflict and prosocial behaviour. It identifies the dimensions of interpersonal conflict and measures of prosocial behaviours and emphasizes their importance in society. It also looks into the association of interpersonal conflict and prosocial behaviours revealing that interpersonal conflict if well managed enhance prosocial behaviour.

RECOMMENDATION

1. Antisocial behaviour that can result in conflict should always be discouraged in the workplace.
2. Employees should be trained to avoid role conflict.
3. The manager should ensure that role interdependence does not result in conflict, hence every task must be well planned.
4. Positive workplace behaviour should be promoted to enhance harmony, employee commitment and effectiveness of the organisation.

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Consumer Attitude towards the Increment of Rice in Ebonyi State on COVID-19

Godwinokoubi, Lilian Oriema, Ejirihugha, Valentine Ikecuhkwu, and Oru, Grace Uzoaru

Department of Marketing, Akanu Ibiam Federal Polytechnic Unwana, Ebonyi State, Nigeria

Abstract: *Rice has become a predominantly staple food in Nigeria and other developing countries, having emerged from being a “festivity food”. Over the years, Nigeria has become the largest consumer of rice in Africa, which Ebonyi Rice is number one. This paper centered on consumer attitude towards the increment of rice in Ebonyi state in covid-19. Rice production in Nigeria has been unable to keep up with increases in demand over the years. Marketing ought to provide all that is required (access to irrigated land, appropriate farm inputs and market information including agricultural best practices and pricing need) to transform the Nigerian rice market. With the increasing spread of COVID-19 and different restriction measures, both traditional and upgraded domestic value chains are likely to be affected in the short, medium and long term. The researchers recommended that Governments should avoid lockdowns of milling plants. Instead, they should impose strict sanitary measures in milling facilities and provide special clearance passes to mill staff to enable uninterrupted processing of rice. With disruptions in the intermediate input market, governments should organize local production of fertilizers and subsidize key intermediate inputs such as quality seeds, fertilizers and pesticides to compensate farmers for productivity losses, not even by politics were some will benefits others will be snap without any benefits from either the Federal, state or Local Government.*

Keywords: Rice, Covid-19, Domestic rice, pandemic.

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INTRODUCTION

Ebonyi State was created out of former Abia and Enugu states on October 1st 1996 by the then General Sanni Abacha regime. Its capital and largest city is Abakaliki. Afikpo is the second largest city. Other major towns are EDDA, Onueke, Nkalagu, Uburu, Onicha, Ishiagu, Amasiri and Okposi. Ebonyi was created from the of old Abakaliki division of Enugu State and old Afikpo division of Abia State. Ebonyi State is bounded to the north by Benue State, the west by Enugu State, to the south by Imo and Abia States and to the east by Cross River State.

Rice has become a predominantly staple food in Nigeria and other developing countries, having emerged from being a “festivity food” as in few previous decades. Rice provides 20% of

the world's dietary energy supplies and it is a good source of thiamine, riboflavin and niacin (Odusina, 2008). An average Nigerian now consumes 24.8 kg of rice per year representing nine percent of total calories in take, giving the fact that the status of rice in the average Nigerian diet has been transformed from being a luxury food item to that of staple (Odularu, 2010). As food production grows at the rate of 2.3% annually. Nigerian population increases at 3.2% (FAO, 2006).

Rice has become the most important staple food and the most common cereal food crop in Nigeria (Akpokodje et al., 2001; NCRI, 2004). It is the fastest growing commodity in Nigeria's food basket (Akande, 2003) with an annual consumption growth rate of 4.4% (IFDC, 2008). In West Africa sub-region, Nigeria is the largest producer of rice (Oyinbo et al., 2013). About 5.4 million metric tons of rice is consumed annually in Nigeria. However, local production accounts for only 2.3 million metric tons per annum while the remaining 3.1 million metric tons is imported. Increasing rice production could therefore, contribute to domestic food security and foreign exchange earnings for the nation. Rice marketing entails all the activities involved in moving rice from the point of production to where it is needed by the final consumer (Bassey et al., 2013), in the desired form and at the appropriate time. Rao et al. (2012) stated that agricultural marketing plays an important role in stimulating production and consumption and in accelerating economic development. According to Onu and Okunmadewa (2001), market performance includes the relative efficiency of production (that is, price relative to the average cost of production).

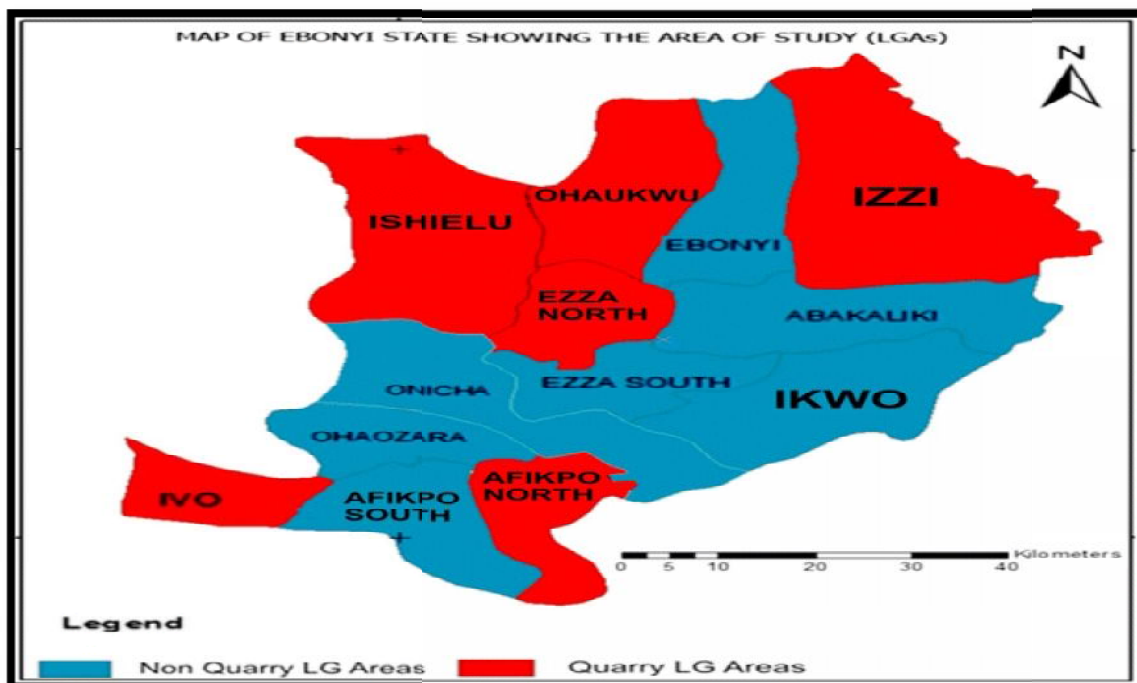
Global food prices continued rising for the second consecutive month in July (latest analysis), led by vegetable oils and dairy products. However, cost of rice in Ebonyi state is extremely high. In Afikpo Ebonyi State, bushel off rice that was #4000 before the covid-19, is now 11,500 in markets, the city is already affected by hunger, and yet there is no money in the economy. Some Food Commodity Prices are increasing mainly because of local logistical problems or import difficulties.



Source:<https://images.app.goo.gl>



Rice production in Nigeria has been unable to keep up with increases in demand over the years. Marketing ought to provide all that is required (access to irrigated land, appropriate farm inputs and market information including agricultural best practices and pricing need etc) to transform the Nigerian rice market. The inability of Nigeria to achieve self-sufficiency in rice production is therefore, due to inefficiency of rice marketing in the nation. Due to population growth and urbanization, though there is growing demand for rice in Nigeria, corresponding increase in supply is lacking thereby leading to persistent demand - supply gap. Market performance is a reflection of the impact of structure and conduct on product prices, costs, volume and quality of output (Hill, 1997). Efficient marketing system promotes economic development by encouraging specialization and leading to output enhancement (Olukosi and Isitor, 1990; Tura et al., 2010).



Source: www.researchgate.net/ Map of Ebonyi State showing the Study Area (LGA)

In Ebonyi state and its **ECONOMY**, Agriculture is the major occupation of the people of the state. The crops produced are yam, cassava, plantain, banana, maize, cocoyam. Others are palm produce, cocoa and rubber. It is a leading producer of rice, yams, potatoes, maize, beans and cassava. Rice and Yams are predominantly cultivated in EDDA. Ebonyi also has several solid mineral resources, but little large-scale commercial mining. The state government has however given several incentives to investors in the agro-allied sector. Ebonyi is called "the salt of the nation" for its huge salt deposit at the Okposi and Uburu Salt Lakes. Mineral resources in the state include salt which is mined locally in the Uburu/Okposi salt lakes of Ohaozara. There are some industries in the state which engage in production of plastic and block and food processing (<https://www.nigeriagallery.com>)

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Potential impacts of COVID-19 on rice value chains

With the increasing spread of COVID-19 and different restriction measures, both traditional and upgraded domestic value chains are likely to be affected in the short, medium and long term. To assess the potential impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on domestic rice value chains' resilience and their capacity to sustain food security in the region, Porter (1985) business model assessment on six fundamental value chain operations can be apply:

1. Procurement. The spread of COVID-19 may affect the procurement of paddy for traditional and upgraded mills. Modern mills that directly coordinate with farmers through contract farming (vertical coordination) or directly organize own rice growing (vertical integration) would depend less on informal trade. Soullier et al. (2020) found that the supply of paddy is the most important driver of private investment in modern milling infrastructure. However, the adoption of contract farming by mills in West African rice value chains is only marginal, therefore, modern mills can be affected by supply disruptions as well. Furthermore, the crisis creates other disruptions in modern rice value chains, e.g., by providing incentives for contracted farmers to side-sell paddy. As price volatility is high in the crisis period, farmers may default on contracts because differences between contract and spot market prices may be even greater than in periods of relative stability. In such crisis context, relational and geographical proximity is often the most efficient institution to enforce contracts. Again, if the pandemic persists, local rice production may decrease due to labor shortage, input shortage and costs, high death rate due to disease, etc. This might lead to procurement issues for both traditional and upgraded mills in all countries. Alternatively, it is also possible that in the midterm, under high world prices, producers respond by increasing area and input use (if input channels are not disturbed), expecting that this price trend will persist. This may increase the quantity of paddy that traditional and upgraded mills can procure and relieve pressure on prices. This will negatively affect producers, because prices will decrease in the midterm, but it may increase millers' margins. However, inflated prices are likely to be short-lived. Since May 2020, there were some early signs of price stabilization or even a downward trend. In the coming months when new crops from Asia will begin to arrive on export markets, prices are expected to fall due to oversupply of rice and a possible decline of world demand due to decrease of purchasing power of consumers. This suggests that a possible 2020 rice crisis will likely be caused by a drop in demand, rather than supply (which was the main factor during the 2007–2008 crisis).

2. Logistics. In many West African countries, governments have allowed free movement within the country of "essential goods" such as food, contrarily to human movement. Therefore, both

inbound and outbound logistics should not be significantly affected by the current COVID-19 spread. In fact, in Nigeria we observed massive movement of rice seedlings from Cross River State all the way to Kano (i.e. about 911 km), despite the COVID-19 inflicted restrictions on mobility. However, movement of goods is not completely independent from movement of people.

3.Finance. This is a major constraint hampering domestic rice value chain upgrading. Financing rice growing is a common constraint among family farmers. However, small-scale millers face similar constraints. They rarely have access to formal credit from banks and rely on their own savings. This is also the case for upgraded mills, particularly when they are domestic actors. The spread of COVID-19 has substantially increased uncertainty surrounding economic activities and therefore will increase financial institutions' reluctance to provide loans. Therefore, commercial financial institutions may reduce their credit lines. This will particularly affect upgraded mills, which require high amounts of credit to maintain operational funds to pre-finance rice producers and to collect sufficient volumes of paddy to fill their capacity and reach profitability.

4.Processing. The spread of COVID-19 will not alter processing activities in both traditional and upgraded mills. The use of face masks is already a recommended practice in rice mills. However, the application of social distancing can reduce labor productivity and efficiency to some extent, especially in large milling facilities. The major risk is that a single case of COVID-19 contaminated staff may lead to a complete lockdown of the facilities and temporary unemployment. On the other hand, traditional mills may gain from the drastic decrease in oil prices on the world market.

5. Human resources and labor. Due to restrictions of mobility and lockdown measures, milling facilities may experience shortage of labor. This may affect traditional mills to a lesser extent since they are usually operated by a single person or family. In the case of upgraded mills, workers may have travelled to other regions or may not have free mobility to travel from and to the mill. This may lead to severe labor shortages and significantly impact upgraded mills' operations, which rely more on specialized labor.

6. Marketing and sales. The massive loss of jobs resulting from lockdowns will reduce purchasing power of consumers, reduce demand and jeopardize food security of households. West Africa imports about 46% of its rice consumption mainly from Asia. With many rice export countries in Asia being heavily affected by COVID-19, further reductions of rice imports into West Africa are not excluded in the short term. Until May 2020, when Vietnam resumed exports. Whether rice prices will now increase again, stabilize at the current higher level or decline is uncertain and will largely depend on the upcoming actions of major players in the rice world market (e.g., China, India and Thailand). Panic buying due to uncertainty related to the pandemic may further contribute to price increases. In the short term, price increases of paddy and milled rice were already observed in Ghana, Cote d'Ivoire, Nigeria and Niger in March 2020. Price increases will benefit value chain actors such as producers, traders, traditional millers and upgraded mills. However, considering a global value chain approach, export supply chains are currently being disrupted due to logistical reasons, but not due to global rice shortages and world prices may not remain high. An increase in export supply and decrease of world prices may negatively affect demand for local rice *vis-à-vis* imported rice and decrease sales of domestic rice.

In reviewing the impact of trade on domestic rice production and challenges of self sufficiency in Nigeria, it was commented that Rice is generally graded by quality, using factors like percentage of broken rice, sorted or non sorted long grain or short grain e.g., the better (less percentage of broken grains) the quality, the higher the price, in essence, quality determines the price that any particular brand of rice is sold (Ezedinma, 2003). With this in mind, it will be important to determine the quality of the locally produced rice in Nigeria i.e. what percentage of the produced rice is broken, this will help determine if it is a factor that is affecting its competitiveness and if it is, what can be done to change this and if locally processed rice are produced to the standard and quality of imported rice, will it have the ability to compete in terms of price.

Over the years, Nigeria has become the largest consumer of rice in Africa; the country produces 4.2 million metric tons and consumes 6 million metric tones per annum, the country lags in its production compared to consumption. Nigeria meanwhile is making visible efforts under the government's stated policies to increase local production and eliminate the need for imports in the medium term, the government is promoting the adoption of new hybrid rice varieties to help boost rice production. These new varieties are high yielding, early maturing, disease resistant, and high in protein content. Based on the goal that was set with these new strategies for Nigeria to be increase local production and eliminate the need for import, still shows a trend of continued increase in importation between 2008/2009 1.4 million metric tons and 2009/2010 1.6 million metric tons. In an article titled making Nigeria rice exporter it was commented that "the growth in consumption of rice can only be met either by increased production or by increased import (Business Day, 2009), which gives hope that it is indeed possible to meet the country's rice demand locally if the factors to help domestic production are put in place and steps to increase these demands are implemented, however these factors and steps are not further expanded on.

With a population of over 150 million, Nigeria is the most populous country in Africa. Its domestic economy is dominated by agriculture, which accounts for about 40% of the Gross Domestic Products (GDP) and two thirds of labour force (Akande, 2001), which makes the agricultural sector very important in the Nigerian economy. In the food sub-sector of Nigerian agriculture, rice has risen to a prominent place as its consumption continues to rise at approximately 10% per annum since the 1970's to the point that domestic production of rice appears not to be able to meet the current consumption demands prompting the country to import rice from other parts of the world. In spite of the consistently high rate of import, Daramola, 2005 points out that Nigeria has the potential to increase her domestic share of the rice market in a medium to long-term investment strategy that can develop into a self-sufficient industry locally over the next three year.

Despite the fact that there is currently local production of rice and potential for cultivating rice in more areas of Nigeria, the country's rice production still lags behind and remains one of the world's largest importer of foreign rice. In an overview of rice production in Nigeria by the Overseas Development Institute (<http://www.odi.org.uk/resources/download/3044.pdf>, p1), Britain's leading independent think tank on international development and humanitarian issues, it is commented that "Nigerian rice faces competition from imported rice which is considered by some as mentioned in the above referenced document, to be less tasty less."

Even with the rise in imported rice, over the years, the Nigerian domestic rice Industry has seen growth in both supply and demand, Erenstein *et al.* (2003) commented that: "The Nigerian rice sector has seen some remarkable developments over the last quarter-century. Both

rice production and consumption in Nigeria has vastly increased during the aforementioned period.”

This development though, does not seem to hinder and/or thwart rice importation as it continues to grow and the country still thrives in importation of rice giving an indication that rice production has still not developed to such a sustainable level that it is sufficient to meet the demands of local consumers and capable of competing with foreign milled rice, as local production of rice has grown, so has rice importation into the country. Daramola, 2004 commented that “Nigeria has the potential to increase her domestic share of the rice market in a medium- to long-term investment strategy that can develop into a self-sufficient industry locally over the next three years, with almost four fold increase in the industry’s employment level, moving from a position of rice import to rice export”.

Previous studies on rice consumption in Nigeria have been limited to explaining quality differentials as the reason for consumers’ preference for imported rice brands (Adeyeye et al. 2010; Alfred & Adekayode 2014; Bamidele, Abayomi & Esther 2010; Gyimah-Brempong et al. 2012; Johnson et al. 2013; Kassali et al. 2010; PROPCOM 2007). However, several studies have found that, when making purchase decisions, consumers do not consider product quality in isolation, but in comparison to its price (Akdeniz, Calantone & Voorhees 2013; Bornemann & Homburg 2011; Sahay & Sharma 2010; Thanasuta & Metharom 2015). It therefore seems that previous studies have not adequately explained the underlying reason on how consumers with a brand preference mindset make purchasing decisions when faced with two or more brands of food products with almost similar quality attributes but different market prices. This has left a knowledge gap in consumer behaviour literature, which this study aims to fill by determining how consumers’ comparative analyses of price and quality differentials of local and imported rice brands influence their choice behaviour. This is with a view to providing some insight useful for rice marketing managers and government in designing appropriate marketing policy measures for breaking the current consumers’ inertia against preference for imported rice brands. Specifically, this study seeks to:

- determine the factors influencing consumer’s preference for imported rice brands and provide empirical evidence of this choice behavior
- assess how market price and consumers’ perceived quality differentials determine consumers’ inertia against preference for imported rice brands in Nigeria.

Domestic rice production has been stimulated and has been on the increase annually by more than 5% (Seck et al. 2010). In the last 5 years, rice production, processing, polishing and packaging in Nigeria have tremendously improved and there are many local rice brands with improved quality attributes (Africa Rice 2012). Despite improvements in the physio-chemical quality attributes of local rice, there is still a steady increase in the quantity of imported rice consumed in Nigeria because of the burgeoning population, increased consumer incomes, changes in tastes and preferences, rapid urbanisation, ease of preparation that fits easily into urban lifestyle of workers and better physical attributes (Erhabor & Ojogho 2011). Consumers still prefer imported rice brands based on their already established perception that imported rice brands possess better after-cook physical attributes such as a bright-white colour and separate, neat and even long grains. (Adeyeye et al. 2010; Johnson et al. 2013; Lancon et al. 2003). According to Erenstein et al. (2003), the fundamental cause of this preference for imported rice is the intrinsic nature and pedigree of the paddy grain found in Nigeria.

Soullier et al. (2020) in Global Food Security Volume 26, September 2020, 100405 recently compiled evidence indicating that upgrading of domestic rice value chains has progressed in West Africa in the decade following the 2008 food crisis. In 2019, 57 modern mills were operating in the region, some of them sourcing paddy directly from farmers through contract farming, and others directly managing production of rice through vertical integration. Depending on the progress in the modernization of their rice value chains, West African countries were classified into three groups:

- Group 1 includes the countries with the highest rice import bills and paddy production, and where the modernization of rice value chains is most advanced, i.e. Nigeria and Senegal.
- Group 2 features countries with lower rice import bills and paddy production, and where the modernization of rice value chains is slowly emerging, i.e. Ghana, Mali, Côte d'Ivoire, Burkina Faso, Liberia, Niger, Sierra Leone, Benin and Togo.
- Group 3 is composed of countries where little investment in rice value chain upgrading is observed, i.e. Guinea, Mauritania, The Gambia and Guinea-Bissau.

The evidence also suggests that most farmers remain connected to final rice markets through traders and small and medium scale millers. Indeed, among the estimated four million rice growers in West Africa in 2019, 99.74% marketed paddy through spot or interlinked transactions without any formal coordination between millers and farmers (Soullier et al., 2020). Traditional value chains therefore remain the core providers of food security in West Africa.

COVID-19 has emerged in December 2019 in China and in a period of three months, about 188 countries around the world were contaminated, including every single country in Africa. To slow down the speed of contamination, movement restrictions, curfews and complete lockdowns were imposed in many parts of the world. The economic impact is already visible after three months of the pandemic. The COVID-19 pandemic may further create disruptions in domestic rice value chains, and exacerbate West Africa's dependency on rice imports. On the other hand, the pandemic could also offer an opportunity to domestic rice value chains if African states are forced to limit imports due to a fall in foreign exchange linked to the reduction in exports of agricultural and mining products.

CONCLUSION

Under a lockdown, a collapse of local food supply systems is likely. Indeed, farmers may not be allowed to go to the market for selling their products and may not have access to alternative marketing strategies (e.g., digital marketing). Although rice paddy is less perishable compared to other food items, farmers' challenge to timely sell paddy may increase their liquidity constraints and jeopardize their food security. With increasing partial unemployment and decreasing overall purchasing power, continuous engagement with millers is necessary to keep marketing margins at acceptable levels to avoid surges in local rice prices.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The researchers recommend the following in this covid-19 pandemic

1. Governments can buy local, milled rice from millers and maintain rice stocks to provide social safety nets to poor and vulnerable populations.

2. Governments should avoid lockdowns of milling plants. Instead, they should impose strict sanitary measures in milling facilities and provide special clearance passes to mill staff to enable uninterrupted processing of rice.
3. With disruptions in the intermediate input market, governments should organize local production of fertilizers and subsidize key intermediate inputs such as quality seeds, fertilizers and pesticides to compensate farmers for productivity losses, not even by politics were some will benefits others will be snap without any benefits from either the Federal, state or Local Government.

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Effect of Financial Deepening on Manufacturing Sector Output in Nigeria

Egbuche, Anthony Chukwuka, Dr. Achugbu Austin & Atueyi Chidi Leonard

Department of Banking and Finance, Chukwuemeka Odumegwu Ojukwu University, Igbariam,
Anambra State Nigeria

Abstract: *This study investigated the effect of financial deepening on manufacturing sector output in Nigeria between the period of 1981-2018. The data used were sourced from Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) Statistical Bulletin 2018. The variables were the performance of manufacturing sector output as the dependent variable, while, money supply as a ratio of GDP and credit to private sector as a ratio of GDP as the independent variables. The study employed unit root test, to determine the stationarity of the variables, co-integration approach to determine the long run equilibrium relationship of the variables and Error Correction Model (ECM) to determine the speed of adjustment. The further test carried out in this study were serial correlation, heteroscedasticity and normality test. Ordinary Least Square (OLS) method of data analysis was adopted. From the model it was concluded that financial deepening has a positive significant effect on the performance of manufacturing sector output. The study recommends that Federal government of Nigeria (FGN) through central bank of Nigeria (CBN) should enhance the financing of manufacturing sector by improving credit flow to the sector because of its strategic importance in creating and generating growth of the economy.*

Keywords: *Manufacturing sector output, financial deepening, MS/GDP, CPS/GDP, heteroscedasticity and normality test*

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1. INTRODUCTION

Financial deepening is the ability of financial institutions to expand the provision of financial services to all sectors of the economy. It involves the provision of wider range financial assets targeted towards the development of all facets of the society Akinmulegun, & Akinde, (2015). In the recent development experts has extend their tentacles to capture how financial deepening will contribute to the performance of manufacturing sector output in an economy. Manufacturing sector over the decades has been describes as an engine of growth in an economy, antidote for poverty and unemployment reduction and wealth creator. Financial deepening as an important aspect of financial institution has revived many sectors in an economy; as a result manufacturing output is not excluded. However, well-developed financial sector can help to mobilise domestic savings and investment thereby increasing output growth (Besci and Wang, 1997). It can also

help to attract sufficient funds from surplus sectors to the deficit sectors thereby freeing up funds for manufacturing activities at a very reasonable cost (Gokmenoglu et al, 2015). It is further argued that a well-structured financial sector development in any economy has the ability to provide financial services that could boost the level of innovation in the manufacturing sector thereby paving way for both investors to take advantage of the new opportunities created. Recently the Nigerian government has placed more emphasis on the development of manufacturing and agricultural sectors in order to promote sustainable growth and development. It is believed that an improved manufacturing sector is a prerequisite for economic development Abiola Adama & Ogunjobi (2018). In most economies, industrial/manufacturing sector serves as the medium for the production of goods and services, the generation of employment and the enhancement of incomes. Hence, the sector is often described as the hub of every economy. Unfortunately, the situation is different in Nigeria, as the contribution of the secondary sector (manufacturing, building and construction) to total gross domestic product (GDP) has been comparatively frail when compared to the other sectors of the economy in Nigeria.

In Nigeria, several policies targeted at improving the productivity of the manufacturing sector towards the growth of the economy have been implemented. Such policies include the Development Plans, the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) and the adoption of Financial Sector Reforms in 1986 as part of the economic reform programmes. The government made efforts to liberalize the financial sector through financial reforms which should arouse and turn the banking sector into a diversified, resilient and dependable sector of the economy to enable manufacturing firms access the required funds to finance production. The financial regulatory bodies in Nigeria embarked on consistent financial reforms to enhance financial deepening in the Nigerian financial system. Financial deepening is the improvement in the supply of financial services with an array of choice of services in all sectors of the economy (Ohwofasa & Aiyedogbon, 2013). It means an increased ratio of money supply to Gross Domestic Product (GDP). It refers to liquid money; the more the liquid money in an economy, the more opportunities opened for continued growth (Sackey & Nkrumah, 2012). Financial deepening indicates an enhancement in the financial services that are modified to all the levels in the economy. It also refers to the increase in the supply of money as a ratio of money supply to Gross Domestic Product and other price index which ultimately suggests that the more liquid money that is obtainable in the economy, the more the opportunities that exist in the economy for constant growth. Financial deepening is an all-inclusive process which engrosses the interface of primary markets, secondary markets and retail market, instruments (deposits, bonds, loans, debt securities and foreign exchange) and other stakeholders such as companies, banks and other deposit-taking institutions. Financial deepening is also the process in which institution and financial markets aid the exchange of goods and services, savings mobilization from investors, acquisition of information from the companies and the prospective investment and hence, the allocation of public savings for the purpose of production (Levine, 2005).

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1.1 The McKinnon–Shaw hypothesis (1973)

McKinnon (1973) and Shaw (1973) postulated that in a developing country especially, when interest rate is liberalized, it will lead to increase in the real interest rate which will lead to increase in savings, spur investments and eventually lead to economic growth. The initial framework of McKinnon (1973) and Shaw (1973) focused on financial repression and the need to alleviate financial repression through allowing the market to determine real interest rates, removal of credit control among others. The outcome of repression, according to McKinnon

(1973) and Shaw (1973) will be low savings, high consumption, low investments and repressed economic growth. The McKinnon–Shaw framework is centered on the distortions in the market caused by financial repression (Savanhu et al., 2011).

Thus, McKinnon–Shaw framework argues that in order for an economy to experience economic growth via greater efficiency in capital accumulation and allocation, interest rate and ceilings, credit control and other restrictive financial legislations should be removed.

According to Rehman and Gill (2013), the important point of McKinnon's hypothesis is that an increase in the desired rate of capital accumulation (private savings) at any given level of income leads to an increase in the average ratio of marginal propensity to income implying that a rise in return on capital leads to an increase in the need of real cash balancing holding for accumulation purpose. Thus, money is not a competing asset; rather money is conduit through which accumulation takes place in developing countries. This implies that an increase in real return on money can sharply raise investment saving propensities in developing countries.

Shaw (1973), proposed the “debt-intermediation hypothesis” whereby expanded financial intermediation between savers and investors resulting from financial liberalization (higher real interest rate) and financial development increases the incentive to save and invest, stimulates the investment due to increased supply of credit and increased level of average efficiency of investment. For Shaw, the investment (I) is a decreasing function of real interest rate (r) and the saving is an increasing function of economic growth rate (g) and real interest rate (r).

He further argued that increased financial intermediation provided the impetus for growth more directly. Liberalization would result in an expanded, improved and integrated financial sector that would lead to an increase in the savings rate, an increase in the rate of investment (by facilitating more lumpy investment); and a direct enhancement to growth (by improved financial technologies).

Hence, McKinnon–Shaw (1973) viewed financial liberalization as

1. Market-determined interest rates;
2. Greater ease of entry into the banking sector to encourage competition;
3. The elimination of directed credit programmes;
4. Reduced fiscal dependence of the state on credit from the banking system (to allow for greater expansion of credit to the private sector);
5. The integration of formal and informal markets;
6. A movement towards equilibrium exchange rates and, eventually, flexible exchange rate regimes with open capital accounts (Serieux, 2008).

McKinnon (1973) and Shaw (1973) further assert that higher real interest rate also aid the channeling of funds to the most productive enterprises and facilitate technological innovation and development. This they explain that paying an interest rate that is above the marginal efficiency of investment, can induce some entrepreneurs to disinvest from inferior processes to improved technological processes and high yielding enterprises, thus generating new positive net savings which is important for reducing foreign dependence and stimulating more investment and consequently growth.

However, Fry (1995) identified five prerequisites for successful financial liberalization:

1. Adequate prudential and supervision of commercial banks, implying some minimal levels of accounting and legal infrastructure
2. A reasonable degree of price stability

3. Fiscal discipline taking the form of a sustainable government borrowing requirement that avoids inflationary effects
4. Profit-maximizing, competitive behaviour by the commercial banks
5. A tax system that does not impose discriminatory explicit or implicit taxes on financial intermediation.

This suggests that financial liberalization crucially depends on the assumption of perfect information and perfect competition (Arestis and Demetriades, 1999).

2.1.2 Empirical Review

Okoli, (2018) examined the relationship between financial deepening and stock market returns and volatility in the Nigerian stock market. Estimation depending on the measures of financial deepening and market returns were evaluated using GARCH (1, 1) model. Four modeled equations were estimated and analyzed. Financial deepening is represented by two variables, the ratio of the value of stock traded to GDP (FD1t) and the ratio of market capitalization to GDP (FD2t). Empirical results revealed that financial deepening (FD1t) measured as the ratio of value of stock traded to GDP do not affect the stock market and there is no news about volatility. But financial deepening (FD2t) measured as the ratio of market capitalization to GDP affect the stock market. It indicated that financial deepening reduces the level of risk (volatility) in the stock market. Result also recorded that the conditional volatility of returns is slightly persistent.

Ademola, & Obamuyi (2018) investigated the effect of financial deepening on the performance of manufacturing firms in Nigeria from 1970 to 2016. The data were sourced from the Central Bank of Nigeria Statistical Bulletin and the National Bureau of Statistics. The model was specified, and the hypotheses were tested with the Autoregressive Distributed Lag model and Mann-Whitney U Test test. The Augmented Dickey-Fuller, Phillips-Perron and Breusch-Pagan-Godfrey tests were carried out to ensure robust regression results. Results obtained from the study revealed that broad money supply has direct and significant impact on index of manufacturing production (p-value= 0.0039) in Nigeria, credit to private sector has indirect and insignificant impact on index of manufacturing production (p-value= 0.1167) in Nigeria and market capitalization has an indirect and significant impact on index of manufacturing production (p-value= 0.0051) in the long-run and a direct and insignificant impact (p-value= 0.1596) in the short-run. The study also discovered that financial deepening impacted more on the manufacturing sector performance in the post-financial reforms period.

Abiola Adama, and Ogunjobi, (2018) examined the causal effects of market capitalization and the manufacturing sector from 1987-2016. The study employed dynamic Ordinary Least Square method for the analysis. The results showed unidirectional causality, confirming the hypothesis of the 'supply-leading view' and 'demand-following view' except for market capitalization and output in the manufacturing sector, where independence was observed. The variance decomposition shows that the forecast error shock of credit to private sector and prime interest rate show more variations in manufacturing sector performance than other financial indicators. The long-run result using output in manufacturing sector as dependent variable shows a positive significant relationship with other financial sector indicators, except for broad money stock and deposit liability.

Mesagan, Olunkwa, & Yusuf (2018) focused on financial sector development and manufacturing performance in Nigeria over the period of 1981 to 2015. In the study, three indicators such as manufacturing capacity utilization, manufacturing output and manufacturing value added were employed to proxy manufacturing performance while money supply as a

percentage of GDP, domestic credit to the private sector and liquidity ratio were employed to proxy financial development. The study observed that credit to the private sector and money supply positively but insignificantly enhanced capacity utilization and output, but negatively impacted value added of the manufacturing sector in the short run.

Omolara, & Asaleye (2016) examined the effect of financial reforms on output growth of the manufacturing sector in Nigeria from 1986-2016. The study is justified given the need to provide empirical evidence on the effectiveness of financial reforms in promoting output growth in the manufacturing sector during the pre and post – reform era in Nigeria. The findings from the statistical and econometric analysis indicate that the financial sector performed better in the post reform era compared to the pre reform era. Surprisingly, the growth of manufacturing output indicator was low in the post reform era. Vector Error Correction Model (VECM) result indicate a short run divergence between variables. The paper concludes that Nigeria experienced increase in Gross Domestic Product (GDP) with minimal contribution from the manufacturing sector.

Udoh, and Ogbuagu (2012) examined the link between financial development and industrial growth. Using an aggregate production framework and autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) cointegration technique for Nigerian time series data covering the period 1970 to 2009, the study finds a cointegration relationship between financial sector development and industrial production. Both the long run and short run dynamic coefficients of financial sector development variables have negative and statistically significant impact on industrial production. The inefficiency of the financial sector is responsible for the adverse impact on industrial production. Appropriate measures should be taken to eliminate the constraints and challenges facing small and medium scale enterprise (SME) funding schemes, as these enterprises form the bedrock of the Nigerian industrial sector. Furthermore, industrialization requires a lot of innovations and entrepreneurship.

Aiyetan & Aremo (2018) examined the effect of financial sector development on manufacturing output growth without examining its effect on the disaggregated manufacturing output growth in Nigeria; hence, the present study filled this gap. The study employed Vector Autoregression (VAR) analysis to test whether or not financial sector variables stimulate the growth of output in manufacturing sector of the Nigerian economy, by maintaining interactions with some key macroeconomic variables in the Nigerian economy using annual data from 1986 to 2012. The study also applied unit root and Johansen cointegration tests to examine the behavior of the macro data. The result suggests that relaxing financial development constraints and deepening the financial sector are crucial to boosting the manufacturing output growth in Nigeria.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research design

Ex-post facto research design will be employed and it usually involves the study of independent and dependent variables in which the researcher has no control over, thus cannot in any form manipulate.

3.2 Nature and Sources of Data

Data for the study will be obtained from secondary sources notably from publications of the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) Statistical Bulletin, between 1986 and 2018.

3.3 Model Specification

The first objective of the study was captured in the model, which shows the effect of financial

deepening on the performance of manufacturing sector output. The model was a modification of the models from Ademola, & Obamuyi (2018) who investigated the effect of financial deepening on the performance of manufacturing firms in Nigeria from 1970 to 2016

The previous researchers used model:

$$IMP = f(CPS, MC, MS),$$

Where

IMP = Index of manufacturing productivity

CPS= Credit to private sector

MC= Market capitalization,

MS= Money supply

The model were modified as follows

$$PMSO = f(MS/GDP, CPS/GDP), \quad \text{Equation (1)}$$

Where:

MSP = Manufacturing sector output

MS/GDP= Money supply as a ratio of GDP

CPS/GDP= Credit to private sector as a ratio of GDP

The relationship can be explicitly formulated into an econometric equation thus:

$$MSP = b_0 + b_1MS/GDP + b_2CPS/GDP + p \quad \text{Equation (2)}$$

Where b_0 is a constant or intercept, b_1 , and b_2 are the coefficients of the explanatory

Variables, p is stochastic error term.

4. DATA ANALYSIS

The method used is the Ordinary Least Square (OLS) regression techniques. This method was adopted because it possesses unique estimating properties which include unbiased, efficiency and consistency, when compared with other linear unbiased estimators. The (OLS) is said to possess the least or minimum variance. We start with stationary test of the variables used.

Table 1 Unit Root Test

variables	ADF		Integration	%
	First diff	Level		
MSP	-5.685669	-0.929397	I(1)	1%
CAP	-5.883431	-1.251747	I(1)	1%
TNI	-5.511788	-1.042431	I(1)	1%

Source: Author's Computation using e-view version 9.

From the table above it was observed that on the application of ADF test on the level series none of the variables were found to be stationary. But all the included variables become stationary at first difference. This implies that all the variables are stationary at the order of integration stated above and at 1% level of significance.

Table 2 Co-integration Result

Unrestricted co-integration Rank Test (Trace)

Hypothesized No.of CE(s)	Eigenvalue	Statistic Trace	Critical Value 0.05	Prob.**
None *	0.547091	38.97678	29.79707	0.0033
At most 1	0.273543	12.04660	15.49471	0.1547
At most 2	0.034139	1.181017	3.841466	0.2771

Source: Author's Computation using e-view version 9.

Trace test Indicates 1 co integrating equ (s) at the 0.05 level denotes rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level mackinnon – Haug – michelis (1999) p- values.

Unrestricted co-integration Rank Test (maximum Eigen value)

Hypothesized No.of CE(s)	Eigenvalue	Statistic Trace	Critical Value 0.05	Prob.**
None *	0.547091	26.93018	21.13162	0.0068
At most 1	0.273543	10.86558	14.26460	0.1611
At most 2	0.034139	1.181017	3.841466	0.2771

Source: Author's Computation using e-view version 9.

Max- (s) at the 0.05 level denotes rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level mackinnon- Haug – Michelis (1999) p- values

The result of the Johansen's co-integration test as shown in table above uses two test statistics namely the trace statistics and the maximum Eigen value proposed by Johansen and Juselius. The co-integration result indicates one co integrating equation as the trace statistics rejects the null hypothesis of no-co-integrating vector at 5 percent significance and accepts the alternative hypothesis of more than zero co-integrating equation, which indicates existence of long-run equilibrium relationship between the dependent and independent variables.

Table 3 Error Correction Model result for Financial deepening Equation

Dependent Variable: LMSO

Method: Least Squares

Date: 04/22/20 Time: 15:03

Sample (adjusted): 1982 2018

Included observations: 37 after adjustments

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	0.438373	0.247478	17.93438	0.0000
LMSGDP	0.149418	0.179619	0.831860	0.4115
LPSCGDP	0.537195	0.109071	4.925206	0.0000
ECM(-1)	-0.578932	0.160150	-3.614935	0.0010
R-squared	0.708763	Mean dependent var		6.071049
Adjusted R-squared	0.710469	S.D. dependent var		0.293737
S.E. of regression	0.092670	Akaike info criterion		-1.817743
Sum squared resid	0.283394	Schwarz criterion		-1.643590
Log likelihood	37.62825	Hannan-Quinn criter.		-1.756346
F-statistic	109.5650	Durbin-Watson stat		1.734314
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000			

Source: E-view output

Interpretation of Regression Result

A close examination of the estimated model shows that the result is satisfactory from the high value of the R^2 given to us as 0.708763 approximately 70% systematic variation in the dependent variable which is MSO using these two independent variables which are money supply as a ratio of GDP and private sector credit as a ratio of GDP. Only 30% is left unexplained and this is assumed to be captured by the error term, U.

The adjusted R^2 is given as 0.710469. This means that after adjusting for the degree of freedom, the adjusted R^2 explains approximately 71% systematic variation in the dependent variable. The higher the adjusted R^2 , the lower the residual variance error due to a one-on-one relationship between the both of them and this means our model have a better predictive ability. The F-ratio with the value of 109.5650 shows that the model easily passes the F-test at 1% significance level and this means that the hypotheses of a significant linear relationship between the dependent and independent variables taken together is validated.

The a priori criteria are determined by the existing economic theory and state the sign and magnitude of the variables. From the result report in table 4.3, and from the coefficient column, we discover that money supply as a ratio of GDP has a positive sign as 0.149418; this implies that increase in money supply as a ratio of GDP increase the Manufacturing sector output by 14%. It further confirm to a priori expectation. Private sector credit as a ratio of GDP has a positive sign given its value as 0.537195. This implies that increase in Private sector credit as a ratio of GDP increases the Manufacturing sector output by 53%, this confirm to theoretical expectation.

T-statistic, this is the measure use to determine the individual statistical significance of the variables in the model. From the model, it is obtained that money supply as a ratio of GDP is statistically insignificant. This implies that it contributes lowly to performance of small and medium scale enterprises. However, Private sector credit as a ratio of GDP is statistically significant given its value as 4.925206.

The Durbin-Watson statistics is used to test for the presence of autocorrelation in our in our model. From the result above, our Durbin-Watson result is (1.7), this does satisfy the above stated condition. This means that there is no presence of autocorrelation among the explanatory variables. Financial deepening has significant effect of the manufacturing sector output, The study conclude in favour of alternative hypothesis which state that financial deepening has significant effect of the manufacturing sector output.

Post-Estimation Test

Breusch-Godfrey Serial Correlation Lm Test

This serial correlation test was used to check for the serial relationship between the variables. The null hypothesis stated absence of serial correlation but the alternative hypothesis states the presence of serial correlation. The prob.chi square if greater than 5% level of significance signifies the acceptance of the alternative and rejection of null hypothesis while the prob chi square less than 5% level of significance signifies the acceptance of the null hypothesis and rejection of the alternative hypothesis.

Table 4: Serial Correlation

MODEL	LM-STAT	PROB
Financial deepening	0.036127	0.4429

Sources: Authors Computation E-view 9

The results above showed the prob. (chi-square) having a value of 0.44, 0 which is less than the 5% level of significance, except Financial deepening is greater than 0.05% so therefore we accepted the null hypothesis which stated that there is no serial correlation.

Table 5: Heteroscedasticity Result

MODEL	F-statistic	Prob
Financial deepening	0.251326	0.8598

Source: Authors Computation from E-view 9

At 5% significant level, probability level is 0.85, which is greater than 0.05. Therefore, null hypothesis is accepted. This means that the variance for the residuals is uniform (homoscedasticity).

Normality Test

In general, a normality test is used to verify if a data set is well-modelled by a normal distribution or not, or to compute how likely an underlying random variable is to be normally distributed. One of the assumptions of least square estimator is that the residuals are normally distributed; obeying well defined probability laws and also can bear any value which could be negative, positive or zero.

Table 6: Jarque-Bera Result

MODEL	Jarque-Bera	Prob
Financial deepening	1.267529	0.530591

Source: Authors Computation from E-view 9

It can be seen that the reported probability are greater than at 5% significant level and therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted. This means that the residuals are normally distributed

Discussion of Findings

The study found that financial deepening has significant positive effect on manufacturing sector output. The implication of these findings is that, The ability of the financial deepening to effectively and efficiently mobilise resources for the growth and the development of the manufacturing sector is not connected with the strong financial institution. Mesagan, Olunkwa, & Yusuf (2018) focused on financial sector development and manufacturing performance in Nigeria and found a strong positive effect between financial deepening on the manufacturing

sector output. The findings also corroborate with the findings of Omolara, & Asaleye (2016) that financial deepening is a pertinent determinant to manufacturing sector output in Nigeria.

5. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

The study focuses on effect of financial deepening on the manufacturing sector output in Nigeria. Financial deepening is seen as an engine of growth in the developmental processes of the manufacturing sector out. The study adopts unit root, co-integration and error correction model, serial correlation, hetroscedasticity and normality on a time series data from 1981 to 2018. The study regressed financial deepening on manufacturing sector output. The regression result reveals that systematic variation in the dependent variable is explained by the two independent variables such money supply as a ratio of GDP and credit to private sector as a ratio of GDP. The F-statistic is significant at the 5% level showing that there is a linear relationship between the dependent and the independent variables. The study concludes that financial deepening has a positive significant effect on manufacturing sector output in Nigeria. The study recommend that Federal government of Nigeria (FGN) through central bank of Nigeria (CBN) should enhance the financing of manufacturing sector by improving credit flow to the sector because of its strategic importance in creating and generating growth of the economy.

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Niger Delta Women in Colonial Nigeria: Reflections on Their Economic and Political Roles

Dr. Beatrice E. Awortu

Department of History and Diplomatic Studies, Ignatius Ajuru University of Education
Rumuolumeni Port Harcourt

Abstract: *The paper examined the changing roles, operations and the functional relevance or otherwise of the Niger Delta women in the period of colonialism when Nigeria was under the political tutelage of the foreign power, Britain, against the independent precolonial period. The paper discussed several aspects of state policy and practice in colonial Niger Delta. As regards methodology, the paper used primary and secondary sources of data. The dynamic nature of gender studies also informed the adoption of interdisciplinary approach using knowledge from related disciplines in the Humanities and Social Sciences to complement the available historical sources. The paper viewed colonial Niger Delta as an integral component of the colonial Nigerian state with reference to the fact that we are not discussing women in the broader colonial Nigerian-State though they may share similar experiences. The paper argued that studies on gender inequality and discrimination as well as women roles and contributions have not addressed the issue of colonial state policy in the Niger Delta or problematized the state in relation to the specifics of women, there is the need to document the role Niger Delta women played during the colonial era towards the economic, political and socio-cultural development of the region. The paper revealed that Niger Delta women made positive contributions to the overall development of the region despite unfavourable colonial policies. The paper submitted that women should be given more economic, political and socio-cultural roles to enable them contribute their quota to the development of their communities in particular and the Niger Delta region at large. The paper, therefore, recommended that negative cultural practices, government policies and societal perception against women should be eliminated for greater and efficient women participation in developmental issues.*

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Introduction

By 1906 Niger Delta colonial state had been established through treaties and amendable decrees. Two elements of the colonial project will be considered as examples of policies, which promoted changes that affected women. The first is the economic policy; the second element is the instructional arrangements for the administration of the area; specifically, the adoption of indirect rule and the establishment of a bureaucracy. However, at this juncture, it is important to do a definition of what colonialism is all about for a future comprehension of the dynamics of what we shall be talking about in this work.

The subject of colonialism and its operations have been discussed widely and elaborately by several scholars. In the context of this study we shall see colonialism as a style of government which assumes the rights of the group to impose its rule over another. This invariably leads to a

situation of dominance, dependency and systematically subordinates those governed by it to the imported culture in social, economic and political life. The issue of colonial contracts has been thoroughly examined in diverse climes and major theoretical formulations and positions with respect to impacts suggested and analysed. The major suggestions and analyses can be summed up into major considerations of broad representations. From these considerations, we present that the first school of thought holds that the impact of the contact between the west and the developing countries had produced essentially beneficial results, because it has transmitted “values” and techniques for “modernization” to backward and isolated societies, which would otherwise have had difficulty finding access to them.

An opposing view from another school of thought, obviously dominated by scholars from the dependencies (the former colonies) generally called the dependency scholars who tend to argue that the impact of the contact is essentially exploitative. Therefore continued contact can only increase servitude, and real growth and development in the developing countries which lies in the breaking of such colonial ties. Expectantly, there is the third school of thought with a middle-course contention that the impact of the contract of the relationship is deeply ambivalent. They present the mid-point argument that colonialism contains in-built features of exploitation and subjection; it also contains other features capable of utilizing certain positive achievements of the developed world for development of the less developed countries (Eke, 1983).

Therefore, the necessity for the examination of the nature of the socio-economic and political relations, which characterized the colonial system to usher in a good understanding of the dialectics, dynamics and impacts of colonialism on the women of the Niger Delta. There is little doubt that in the process of acculturation, women in the Niger Delta societies have adopted old ways to the new ways without abandoning the former. These include the introduction of Western colonial system of education, introduction of foreign religion (Christianity) and the introduction of a monetary system of economy. In doing a summation, it is not difficult, therefore, for a historical analyst of colonial tribulations to observe the grand process of foreign cultural diffusion, dependency, subordination, marginalisation and disarticulation (Tamuno, 2000).

Women In The Colonial Economy

It is plausible to offer that prior to the period when the Niger Delta came under direct colonial rule of Britain, centuries of trade and missionary contacts had been established along the coastal areas of the Niger Delta. In the different components of the Niger Delta, following the institution of colonial rule native administrations were set up for indigenous rulers, the Chiefs, under the overall supervision of the colonial state to operationalise indirect rule. These institutions were to perform such functions as the maintenance of law and order and law—making, for the regulation of many aspects of life in the areas under their jurisdiction. In addition to these executive and legislative powers, they were also responsible for the adjudication of disputes through the native courts which were supervised by the central colonial government through a hierarchy of courts. Native treasuries were also set up to take care of the financial aspects of native administration. The colonial state sought to, both control the chiefs and protect their ability to exercise authority over their subjects (Awe, 1984).

According to Dike (1956), for chiefs, the economic developments presented new opportunities for accumulation and also challenges to their hegemony. Their passage from

independent traditional rulers to dependent colonial officials was not smooth. Apart from being undermined by their subjection to the colonial order, the rapid alienation of land, excessive demands for communal labour and imposition of taxes under their auspices further eroded their traditional authority. New influential groups, with the creation of the warrant chiefs' institution, soon challenged their primacy.

As the discussion below shows, there were gender differentials in the implications and outcomes (effects) of these processes and developments, which had implications on gender relations and situations of various categories of men and women. The history of the Niger Delta under colonial rule has been well documented comparatively and therefore presented a whole lot of available materials for reinterpretation. In addition, the site of the famous palm oil production and trade, was crucial to the colonial enterprise and fortunes of the colonial Nigerian state as a whole. Colonial economic policies were centered mainly on agricultural exports and trade. The construction of seaports and railways created new jobs. Persons who had access to the colonial education were able to take advantage of the job opportunities in the bureaucracy and construction companies (Irukwu, 1994).

Under colonial rule, education was largely managed by the missionaries although the colonial administrators ensured that mission schools produced the kind of recipients that were useful to them. The introduction of colonial education was seen by Britain as essential to the prosecution of their "civilizing" mission. Female education was perceived to be very necessary to enhance their role as mother and housewives. This, however, seemed to have met with some reactions as the colonial market of employment was directed at the educated male. Keeping women out of the bureaucracy was explicit colonial policy. Most of the few women who had access to colonial education were trained in home —making, thus disabling them from engaging in clerical and administrative works. Women were not among the labour recruited by chiefs. The colonial state right from the beginning had a direct relationship with the men through labour regimes, while women largely remained under the jurisdiction of the chiefs (Mba, 1982).

Nevertheless, concerted efforts were made by the colonial government to address the imbalanced inherent in the educational policy. Thus, to encourage female education, there was the reduction of school fees, low pass marks for girls, granting scholarships and establishing schools for girls alone. The beneficiaries did not only return home to teach others but also serve as teachers, nurses, midwives, prison wardresses, secretaries, dispensers to mention but a few.

Faseke (2001:p. 39) brilliantly adds:

It is thus clear that while colonialism certainly eroded some areas of women activities such as reducing their industrial capability, eroding their economic power, it definitely had the benefit of educating the girl-child, albeit reluctantly, and giving women the challenge to want to excel like the males. Colonialism showed that women had potentials which when harnessed could be of great benefit to the women themselves and the communities they live. Colonialism stimulated new line of activities and engagements among women. One of such activities was western education which though had been introduced by

the Christian missionaries since the sixteenth century was complemented and nurtured by colonialism.

The colonial period witnessed the massive importation of alien and transported ideologies and values that did havoc and great disservice to the social, economic and political relations in the Niger Delta. Such as the conception of woman as housewife, this was imported from Victorian England. The assumption of domestic subservience as the appropriate status of woman automatically subverted and undermined African realities to the detriment of the women folk. Women have always laboured in all areas of production and commerce prior to the imposition of colonial rule. Under colonial rule and occupation, women were denied formal employment and their productive work in agriculture, trade and industry was at first over — looked, and then marginalized and devalued (Ijere, 1991). This heralded the process of marginalisation of the womenfolk economically and their simultaneous exclusion from political and public life which they continue to suffer till today.

Ejitiwu (1991) opined that the Niger Delta, like many other societies, has a long history of colonial rule which imposes laws and social structures particularly harmful to women, among these are inheritance laws, legislation on land ownership and transfer, and social restrictions on women, which seriously limit their activities and aspirations. These patterns occurred extensively and functioned to alter the place of women as well as reducing their power. Inheritance laws and communal rights to land which once allowed access by women have been replaced by title-deed systems which, by law or customs, restrict land ownership to individual men. Colonialism brought with it an ideology of chastity and dependence which has dominated women's lives. In the Niger Delta communities where market organization of women traders once allowed women political and economic power, and where sister/brother inheritance and kin co-operation patterns allowed women an alternative to dependence on a husband, European patriarchy came and undermined both.

These same colonial developments also fostered the growth of industrial centres, which drew men away from rural communities, removing their labour from the subsistence economy. The increasing migration of men to the cities, to mines, and to export agriculture, or to work abroad has caused the number of female headed households to rise dramatically virtually transferring the entire responsibility for feeding, clothing and housing children to the women. This is closely related to what is called the feminisation of agricultural labour force.

Bryson (1981: 38) affirms that “wide movement into new roles, which involved absence from the village helped to ensure that women would continue to dominate food production both to guarantee food supply and to protect family rights in accordance with inheritance and land tenure”. As a matter of fact, the influx of men and husbands into urban centers weakened the traditional sexual division of labour. Most Niger Delta women took over the cultivation of yams which was the men's exclusive preserve (Julius, 2012). There is no doubt that the women's journey into the production of yams helped to prevent food scarcity in the region. In rare occasions when rural women do participate in the wage labour economy, they face discrimination and low wage rates. Where women remain in subsistence agriculture, their central position is ignored, even by development professionals (Ejitiwu & Gabriel, 2003).

Historical studies on the Niger Delta communities have shown that both men and women were involved in harvesting, processing and transportation of palm-oil to the coast for export. By

the 1870s, organized production of agricultural produce, particularly palm-oil in the Niger Delta had begun. Largely because of palm-oil production, changes in land relations gathered pace. There was increasing commoditisation of land, especially agricultural land, which was also subjected to several tenancy agreements. The problems of high rents on agricultural land proved to be intractable. Colonial state officials would send warning circulars to chiefs and fixed land rents to no avail. The resulting indebtedness of scores of peasant cultivators was particularly significant in this context because, owing to their status, female labour and reproductive capacities became popular as pawns for the settlement of debts (Okorobia, 1999).

In the oil palm production areas, farmlands came to replace persons in the settlement of debts and were pledged for long periods. Thus, for the peasantry, palm oil production was a new source of income, and also a growing source of stratification. Class differences emerged based on creditor/debtor relations and new labour arrangements. A complicated network of farm owners, tenants and various grades of labourers came to characterize oil palm production.

There were also striking gender divisions in the oil palm and colonial economy, and this affected kinship. For the conjugal family, for example, these developments were to have important consequences because oil palm cultivation and production required more labour than subsistence production. The conjugal family, therefore, was an important source of labour. The labour of wives and children which customary law accorded a man on marriage was put to use in the production of oil palm for market. The practice of polygamy ensured an important source for labour production (Anabraba, 1984).

Women in the Niger Delta communities that were in oil palm production were not allowed to own farms because wives did not have reciprocal rights to their husband's labour, and had fewer resources. Therefore, women had difficulty in recruiting both paid and unpaid labour. In addition, customary rules about land inheritance and marital resident patterns worked against women, both as wives and as lineage members. Also, the colonial state's policy of directing agricultural training and extension services at male producers ensured male dominance in palm oil production.

These developments in the palm oil sector affected lineage and conjugal relations. It produced penetrating tensions between women's dual roles: as lineage members who were required to provide labour for their husbands without necessarily gaining any resources. However, even lineage membership was not gender neutral in its implications for access to resources. For example, in many Niger Delta communities there was dichotomy between women's and men's property. Deceased persons were ordinarily succeeded by persons of the same gender. Therefore, self-acquired property of significant value passed through males, even in matrilineal communities.

These developments, in part, particularly during the great depressions of the 1930s, caused an increased in female migrations to the urban areas for trading and other service sector work resulting in male anxiety about the resulting disruption, especially the loss of female labour. Accusations about the connection between migrant women, prostitution, witchcraft and venereal diseases, which had become prevalent, were rife. The chiefs responded with by-laws to restrict the movement of women, to combat prostitution and restabilise marriage. This legislative drive, aimed at reducing the movement of the women folk caused profound diminution to their status.

With the imposition of colonialism, there were a whole lot of significant changes in women experiences. To Mazrui, (1991) colonialism and westernization have solved some problems and created others. The question is, what is the differential degree of the solution-oriented colonialism is it problematic? The argument is that the colonial order discouraged homosexuality but encouraged homoracality, which is enforced racial endogamy, love-making within the same racial group. There is no doubt colonialism affected women position and their contribution to society.

In certain respects, it alleviated the conditions of women by removing some of the obnoxious social customs and practices, such as widowhood rites, to which women were subjected. For women in the Niger Delta who were exposed to the influences of colonialism and the female heads of houses grew richer. A few took advantage of the limited educational opportunities to join the emerging educated elites. But for other women, colonialism meant the loss of livelihood as the colonial administration came with the introduction of mechanized means of palm oil production (Alagoa, 1971).

The colonial alienation of the women from the fundamental benefits of its educational policy had a far-reaching impact on the women population. They were gradually marginalized and subordinated. The resultant effect is that the incorporation of the Nigerian economy into the world capitalist system through the apparatus of colonialism included the upsetting of the traditional complementarity role of the womenfolk. In this way, it caused the separation of the men's field from the women's field: the men's field was rapidly mechanized, monetised, and linked to the capitalist sector while the women's field continued to be farmed with hoe, its produce kept for the feeding of the domestic group (Awe, 1984).

However, it is important to note that since the women began to take the traditional responsibility of the men (by taking care of the welfare of the family), they had started to play a major role in the development of the entire society and contributing in no small measure to develop the human resource factor upon which the development of the society depends. Again, without the subordinate- supportive complementary roles of the women in the rural economy of the Niger Delta communities, the "Substantive" and "Principal" of the men in the urban capitalist oriented economy of the colonial centers would have been desperately affected and served. The implication is that without the supportive role of the women, the Niger Delta communities would have been worse and degenerated more than experienced during the long period of colonial nightmare.

Also, on a general note, the colonial capitalist economy would not have been smooth without the supportive mechanism of the rural subsistence economy dominated by the women. Evidence from the field showed that women increasingly made more production and marketing decisions and contributed more physical labour as far as the rural/urban, subsistence/capitalist economic relations are concerned. In furtherance thereof, Jaja (1986) argued that due to the young age of the men in the urban centers, it was not possible to raise enough income to feed themselves and their families in the urban industrial work situations. Yet they were permanently withdrawn from the rural settings and unable to contribute to agricultural and related economic activities. Wives, very young and very old relatives were left to do most of the work of feeding themselves and supplementing the food needs of the urban components of the rural families with no group support necessary for them to operate efficiently. With time, this trend escalated,

precipitating economic and social disparities between men and women, between rural and urban components of family units, between rural and urban centers in general.

The productivity gap, worsened by growing gap in education, scientific knowledge and skills essential for increase scientific production, has been linked to greater demands for male labour and time in urban-based capitalist economy. Consequently, there was a growing marginalisation of women's roles as urban wives tend to lose their economically productive roles, and subsequently became confined to the home front for the maintenance of the home and got glued to child-rearing roles. This unpalatable trend resulted in a situation where the emerging upper and middle class women in the urban centers ultimately became increasing dependent on male wage earners for food and households supplies (Gerald, 1982).

In the rural as in the urban areas, land and other resources for production increasingly became monetised to the extent that individual ownership became correspondingly encouraged at the detriment of usufructuary rights (the right of using the property of another person and drawn the profits therefrom without wasting the substances). In the light of this colonial practice, the consequence was a great jeopardy to the women. Increasingly, the position of women, particularly of the landless, single women (unmarried, widowed, divorced) category became jeopardized and more insecure as access to this vital means of production became more difficult and in some cases inaccessible. Coupled with the initial colonial skewing of educational opportunities against women in favour of men, the concomitant growth of economic gap between the two genders was supported by gap in skills acquisition, knowledge and culture that were essential and important for surviving in and coping with the capacity changing economies (Orugbani, 1991).

Colonial and "development" policies further aggravated and exacerbated the already impoverished situation and condition of women. So much of it, the introduction of various credit inputs, scientific information, knowledge, experience and know-how increased the productivity of the men and caused severe havoc to the productivity of the women counterpart in the capitalist linked and integrated economy (Nwosu, 1996). This further created the dichotomy between male wage labour and female domestic labour roles, which has continued into the post-independent neo-colonial Niger Delta. This dichotomy was perfected through many channels but the most prominent one was the extension services and credit inputs aimed at increasing productivity and facilitate production and exchange. Since women dominated the rural economy and this continued use of traditional methods in the cultivation process in the rural non-capitalist sector of the economy and thus got much less out of their efforts, the gap in labour productivity between the sexes continued to deepen (Mba, 1982). The best that was available to many women out of the elaborate extension services were new recipes for preparing meals and dishes and other domestic chores. Thus only a small fraction of their many and conflicting roles managed to be positively affected by colonialism.

However, in situation where the man's (husband's) income was insufficient to maintain the family; or purchasing power eroded by inflation; or where the man (husband) was not existent; or non-productive either because of handicap, old age, divorce, death; or where the woman is unmarried and therefore no man to depend on, woman automatically became the sole managers and providers to the extent that the impact of the family nutrition, survival and well-being on economic enfranchisement of women became obvious. Colonialism and its introduction of the capitalist (monetized) economy introduced sexual dualism in farm labour such that women

were increasingly looked upon as sole cultivators of food crops as well as the unpaid family labour, while men became increasingly identified with cash crop farming and production, or identified with wage employment.

Women's contribution to the family's budget became crystal clear and great with their participation in long distance trade. In the pre-colonial era, women never served as "brokers" in the economy and enterprise of long distance trade and staple trade. This was not because they lacked "entrepreneurial dynamism" but mainly due to their lack of access to credit, control over transport systems and effective labour (Hargreaves, 1987; Wariboko, 2007). With the imposition of *Fax Britannica*, the construction and maintenance of good roads, relaxation of traditional restriction on women, outlaw of the tradition of seizing women and maintenance of peace, Niger Delta women had the opportunity to venture into long distance trade. The policy of *Fax Britannica* actually ensured the safety of travelers, free movement of people and goods across frontiers as Niger Delta communities were taught the lesson of reporting their grievances to government. Sorgwe (1989: 132) has this to say:

The fear of being punished by the colonial authority helped to reduce intercommunity feuds. Incidents of violent intercommunity clashes were reduced during the colonial period. Communities learned to complain to the colonial authorities for redress instead of waging wars against their neighbours who offended them.

Julius (2012,: 431) gives the graphic illustration of the Esan women thus:

Many women were attracted to trade. The colonial situation provided the needed conducive atmosphere for Esan women to venture into long distance trade. Indeed, from the 1920s, market trade become one of the major employment opportunities open to women in sub-urban towns such as Ekpoma, Ewu, Igueben, Irrua, Ubaija and Uromi. Their trading activities were important in providing the rising working class with necessities and new commercial goods, which became popular in the colonial era.

As we have noted somewhere else in our study, the male dominated rural-urban migratory movement drastically affected and changed the household formulation in the Niger Delta. Consequently, women metamorphosed to add to their roles and became family and household major producers of material needs and the primary reproducers of labour as in socializing, teaching of basic skills and often paying of school fees (Sandy, 1981). One can imagine the effect of this on the general trend towards development.

Also, the impact of colonialism on the roles and contributions of Niger Delta women was very grave and disastrous. Their contributions to the Niger Delta economy, as noted by Jaja (2003:230), was disrupted as colonial demand for palm oil (cash crop production) resulted in the neglect and near abandonment of fishing and other resourceful economic activities that were thriving in the Niger Delta and which were dominated by the womenfolk (Okorobia, 1999). Some of the women even went to seek for employment in the Bulk Oil Plant (BOP) industries

established along the coast when their former prospective industries established along the coast was disrupted. Other women became kernel crackers and yet some others attempted to produce palm oil locally. The arts and craft practised by the Niger Delta women during the precolonial era were neglected by the colonial officials which affected the industry (Nzenwunwa, 1980). The effect was that people sought alternatives in the acquisition of the “cheaper” and “better” goods from Europe. This wholesome attitude contributed immensely to the underdevelopment of the indigenous sector of the economy as they refused to introduced extension services and loans to encourage it (Alagoa, 1972).

The colonial economy, which has its underpinning logic in the twin objectives in the production of new materials to service industries in Great Britain and the sourcing of markets for finished goods, emphasized and promoted the production of cash crops and therefore necessitated the active involvement of women in the production of palm oil and kernels. They also contributed immensely to transport the palm oil and kernels to the ports which evacuation as they helped in paddling the canoes from the creeks linking the hinterlands (the source of goods) and the ports (points of evacuation). Sorgwe (2003) asserted that the women were very useful in the colonial economy and constituted the main labour force that provided the food-crops for constituted the main labour force that provided the food-crops for the entire society while the men concentrated on the production of palm produce for business.

Women essentially bore the burden of the oil palm processing also. To stimulate and promote the production of raw materials needed for the metropole, using the indigenous technology pocked out the nuts and squeezed the oil from the pericarp with their hands. The same process was applied to the manufacturing of oil palm. Yet, they were neglected and excluded from gaining access to loan, and development while the men greatly benefitted. Citing Denzor (1988), Abasialtai (1991, : 574-573) lucidly informs:

In the new cash economy women suffered more than men from being denied access to mechanisms of capital accumulation, loans, and exclusion from development projects. Thus, while women's labour accumulated for a majority of subsistence crop production and for the distribution of produce and commodities, most were not able to enter into the new business created by colonial rule or take advantage of opportunities offered by cash crop production. By and large, men controlled cash crop farming, while women were relegated to the much less remunerative subsistence farming.

What is more, the British liberation policy of importation of British liberalization policy of importation of British manufacture also depreciated and affected the women's source of livelihood. In Niger Delta, cottage industries such as salt and pottery productions were the pleasure of women. The industries were areas of potentially profitable and viable human endeavor. Almost all seaside in Niger Delta communities were involved in the salt making while those notable for pottery indigenous industries were Ogu and Ogoloma in Okrika, Ke and Ilelema in the Kalabari area; Kono-Boue, Buan, Luubara and Kwakwa of Ogoni area; Omukwu and finally Egbede as well as in Ikwerre land. The colonial situation with all its paraphernalia forced Niger Delta women to de-emphasize these local industries and moved rapidly to embrace the new order. Infact, the formal western style of education provided viable economic opportunities more than the traditional salt and ceramics making. Added to this was the massive

importation of the European technologically advanced goods such as ceramic, plates, spoons, metal pots, iron and plastic buckets and so, made the locally produced less attractive.

Faseke (2001, :38) shed illuminating light on this score:

Colonialism de-industrialized the women. Salt production and weaving gradually declined because traditional industries had difficulty in competing with the mass outputs of the western industrialized economy. Salt production was only able to survive in areas where it could cater for local preferences. Local textiles survived where they catered for special markets ... Pottery declined as local pots and calabashes became superseded by imported enamel ware. Soap making declined as Nigerians bought the soap made from Nigerians' exported palm oil (Oil Palm).

On his own part, Derefaka (2002, :229) states:

The reason for the decline of this important industry is the introduction of western education, culture and alternative, cheaper and more durable receptacles and utensils from the period of European contact ... With the emphasis on western education for girls and the availability of paid employment and easier economic ventures, daughters became relevant, if not unwilling to learn the trade from their mothers and so the manufacture of ceramic products has virtually cease in most communities ..., which were famous for ceramics production in the past.

Women In The Colonial Political History Of The Niger Delta

The reference here to the role of women in the political history concerns the political activities of the women folk during the colonial period of Nigerian history. In this case, it is limited to the Niger Delta women and their experiences. During the colonial period, much of the political experiences of the Niger Delta women were that of expulsion and consequent resistance and opposition to the nature of and character of the colonial administration. Colonialism constituted a whole strand of thinking and way of life which can be broken down into a number of systems to include administrative, economic, educational, legal and religious. Of a major consideration is the fact that none of these systems operated independently with one another but collectively to affect the roles of Niger Delta women.

Understandably, the British colonial administrators in Nigeria were the products of the Victorian society wherein the women were separated from the men, excluded from public life and given a reserved place at home and to function and see to the successful management of the home front away from public participation in the day to day running of the society. Indeed, it was construed that it was the women's duty to preserve the home and man's duty to insulate the women from the pressures of life. Therein lies the conception that a man should protect the

woman. Women were considered unsuitable for the rigors of public life; hence they were not allowed to vote, to contest elections, to sit in parliament, or to be employed in the civil service.

Colonialism was an agent of change and an instrument of coercion. It came with a bang, enforcing rules that warranted the abandonment of the old traditional roles and encouraged the observation of new rules, adaptation and adoption of the newly imposed rules and ways of life. The introduction of the warrant chiefs system of indirect rule in the Southern Provinces, that covered the Niger Delta, also came with peculiarly new dynamics to which the people of the area, particularly the women, had to adjust to. Under warrant chief system, the traditional title societies and age grades lost their mystique as well as their executive and judicial responsibilities, which were absorbed by the warrant chiefs and the native courts.

Afigbo (1991) viewed that contrary to the pre-colonial times when women enjoyed same rights and participated in the political administration of their areas, the colonial period was different. The warrant chiefs were chosen arbitrarily without the guide of any traditional criteria, and worse of all, no woman was appointed a warrant chief. Similarly, no woman ever served as a staff or member of the native courts, or made a court clerk, interpreter, court messenger, police or army recruit. These positions were limited to the men who had some level of education or some wealth and those who were able to make themselves conspicuous.

Understandably, women were not only excluded from participation in the colonial administration but also from time to time, the courts interfered with their traditional judicial responsibilities and roles. In many cases, the traditional methods and customary practices involved in exercising disciplinary measures by women against offenders were replaced with colonial rules and laws and thereby weakening the traditional requirements that constitute the achievements that ensure the cohesion of the society. Under the warrant chief system, a warrant chief tended to bear the features of the Lord Manor and execute colonial policies and programmes without consultation with the men of the village, let alone their women counterparts (Afigbo, 1991).

Colonialism yielded the negative impact on the women. There was the demonstration of the fact that colonial patriarchal ideologies combined with indigenous patriarchal ideologies to reinforce women's subordination, exploitation and oppression. The few elite women were progressively marginalised as they lost their political power and control over trading and manufacturing activities. However, even in the face of the intimidating impacts of colonialism, some women took advantage of the expanding petty commodity markets (Ali, 1991), or sought to retain their autonomy by migrating to the rapidly growing colonial towns and cities where they often engaged in trading activities, beer brewing, domestic service and sometimes prostitution.

The area that women featured prominently and which, also, has attracted by far the most attention is that of women resistance to colonial rule and their involvements in the national liberation struggles as well as participation in nationalist movements. The most popular of the series of women's resistance to colonial rule was the Niger Delta Women War of 1929. However; there were many other instances of such resistance movements originating from the women all over the Niger Delta. They include, among others, women involvement in the Akassa War of 1895, the Epie Women Demonstration of 1958, the Udekama Women's War of 1925 (Gabriel, 2003). Field investigations have shown that besides these numerous instances of

women resistance to colonial rule, which have been documented, there were cases of women's involvements in labour movements and struggles.

The field investigations conducted on the Akassa War revealed that there was the feminine or women factor in the Akassa War of 1895. It was discovered that some women got themselves involved in burning down the trading post of the Royal Niger Company. On its part, it has been the Niger Delta Women War of 1929 came as a result of the resolve of the Eastern Niger Delta women to protest the obnoxious colonial government had excluded them from the "benefits" of the colonial rule. He also recorded that there was a similar anti-tax riot in Ekeremor in 1928 which caused the destruction of their Native Court building and went further to question the logic and legitimacy of alien rule in their land (Okorobia, 1999).

The aftermath of the Niger Delta Women War became far-reaching and attracted the attention of the Colonial Office in London who were taken aback by the behaviour of the women. Regarding the numerous effects of the war, one of the most fundamental changes was the sudden decision of the colonial government to conduct a study of the culture of specific ethnic groups before embarking on the administration of such groups. This marked the beginning of the series of colonial intelligence reports on the various ethnic groups and tribes in Niger Delta, Nigeria.

Another instance where the women of the Niger Delta Region protested the policies of the colonial administration was the February 1958 Epie women protest against the administration's withdrawal of free education policy earlier embarked upon, which tend to afford the people, particularly the women, an opportunity to acquire the much needed education. It was on record that the introduction of the policy of free education revolutionized the educational sector and prompted a phenomenal increase in the enrolment of pupils. It is significant also to note that parents preference of males' education was also affected as the introduction of free education warranted the enrolment of about sixteen girls into Epie Primary School. However, after a brief period the government decided to do a modification of the free education policy in the Eastern Region while the government of the Western Region, which introduced the free education policy earlier, still continued. Therefore, Eastern Regional Government's intended Modification Scheme came as a rude shock to the people and was interpreted as an obstacle to the positive aspirations and plans for their children (Sorgwe, 2003).

Historical record bears testimonies that the introduction of the free education policy necessitated a spontaneous increase enrolment of the number of pupils from a total of sixty-three in 1956 to a hundred and seventeen in 1958. But the withdrawal of free education caused a sharp fall in the enrolment of pupils. The consequence was that there were only about forty-six pupils who enrolled at the beginning of the school year in 1958. The headmaster of the school while commenting on this sharp fall in the enrolment of pupils, as quoted in Sasime (2003) noted that "the cause of this appalling fewness is the re-introduction of enrolment and school fees. One can, therefore, appreciate how the people's euphoria generated by the free primary education programme was turned to frustration and bitterness". This succinctly shows how the people felt the impact of the withdrawal of the free primary education programme of the Eastern Regional Government. The paradox of the whole situation is that rather than the men taking up arms and confront the situation it was the women who decided to do it. Therefore, faced with this uncanny situation, a rude challenge and frustration, the women took up arms and confronted this unwarranted challenge. In the process and with a radical determination decided to register their

protest by marching to the Primary School and ordered the headmaster to close down the school immediately, which he obeyed.

Subscribing to the above, Sorgwe (2003) opined that after the symbolic closure of the primary school at Edepie, the women protesters decided to return to their respective homes on the agreement that they would reassemble at Edepie the next day for a continuous crusade against obnoxious colonial policies. With profound determination to launch a full scale opposition to colonial policies, the women reassembled again the next day at Edepie though without the Igbogene women, which constituted the cradle of the crusade. Unperturbed and with determined vigour and undaunted, the women protesters traveled to all the nook and crannies of Epieland and were enthusiastically joined by the women of each village they visited. On reaching Biogbolo, the character of the protest became dramatic and they started destroying every physical instrument, representations and agencies of the colonial government. Such infrastructures as school buildings, Native Courts, official quarters of colonial officers and agents were damaged. The women became more militant thereafter. All schools and all institutions that were associated with government became targets for vandalisation, an approach which they calculated that would attract government attention more dramatically to their cause for possible positive solutions.

However, as the demonstrating women marched on in the process and sought to cross the bridge to get to the primary school at Yenegoa-Ede, they were surprisingly met with staunch opposition from the men of the area who were bent on protecting their school from destruction. Sasime (2003) noted that in order to frustrate the attempt the demonstrators from crossing over to Yenegoa-Ede, the men in their hundreds hurled all sorts of missiles at the protesting women. Thus the women could no longer move and later retired to their various homes with the conviction that they had successfully and effectively conveyed their unalloyed disenchantment with retrogressive policies of the government. They had demonstrated a social consciousness that might have baffled the government when they stole the thunder and rage from the men who rather chose to protect the government.

Furthermore, in attestation of the fact that the women of Niger Delta demonstrated their functional relevance and played a prominent role in redirecting colonial administration, Gabriel rightly noted that Nigerian history is replete with examples of women's resentment of social, political and economic adjustments of the colonial system. Often times, their reactions led them into varying degrees and kinds of ant-colonial activity. While analyzing the Udekama Women's War of 1925, Gabriel (2003) demonstrated how nursing mothers of Udekama engaged colonial officials in a fight against what they considered as the colonial violation of tradition of the people. It was a fight between colonial prison warders and nursing mothers of Udekama.

It is traditional that after child birth women were confined in the house for at least three months to recuperate and in the early hours of each new day would gather at a particular designated place before proceeding to bathe in the river. On one fateful morning while the nursing mothers were going for their routine bathe, they met prisoners (supervised by warders) cutting the Okaka tree (a big tree of religious and economic significance) without the consent of the Chiefs and elders, branches of which were pinned at shrines for identification "possibly for subsequent destruction". Consequently, the nursing mothers retreated home, gathered the men, reported and pleaded with them not to attack the prisoners and warders for fear of being arrested and imprisoned. Meanwhile the women (only nursing mothers) mobilized themselves, laid siege

for the prisoners and warders and attacked them. In the usual colonial tradition, when they were to be foreclosed the initial intention to arrest and imprison the women who were later cautioned to desist from the acts that would breach the peace of the community. What is deductively apparent here is that even when the women of Niger Delta were officially and directly excluded from active participation in politics and administration of the area, the outcomes of their activities tend to affect and bear heavily on the colonial policies of their times.

It is, therefore, important to note that the new colonial policies had severe influences on the sex role definition among the people as the colonial administrators introduced policies of the Victorian background, which had detrimental effects on the role of women. It is understandable that much of these policies contrasted with the pre-colonial traditional concept of the place and role of women. The colonial government did not recognize or appreciate the important contributions of the women and their sense of independence in certain matters and failed to give due recognition to the women's traditional important participation in the public affairs of the society. Different writers have at different times attested to the fact that in traditional Niger Delta societies, political powers were diffused and feminine agents participated fully (Alagoa, 1971).

Furthermore, Uchendu (1993) clearly noted that women lost most politically under colonial administration as the dual political system, which involved both men and women in politics were vehemently abandoned and substituted by the single-sex political system, which left women out of public affairs completely. When the women discovered it was a loss of their natural right, which must be fought for, it was profoundly resented as demonstrated in the various protests embarked upon by Niger Delta women. These protests have been given several interpretations. While Afigbo sees the protests as an anti-colonial movement aimed at the destruction of the warrant-chief system and ultimately colonial rule, Coleman (1986) sees it as traditional nationalism, which was important in the development of nationalist movement (Afigbo, 1991). It can therefore be collectively argued that the most important contribution of Niger Delta women to the development of the society was in their constant protest against colonial policies, which were unfavourable to their well-being.

Moreso, the various women protests against obnoxious colonial ordinances and policies can be assessed as a means of political participation for women since they were not represented in government and had no other effective means of political nationalism. Of a significant note in these series of agitation movements was the organizing abilities of the women in handling public and delicate matters. The capacity to plan and conspiratorially execute effectively, taking the government by storm, emphasized the leadership role of women, their unity of purpose whenever necessary, their dexterity, determination and the power of women's collective action. These protests did a lot to discomfiture the colonial government and make it more sensitive, not only to the problem of women, but also to the general issue of well-being. Thus, by their agitation, women contributed greatly to the nationalist movements, and the eventual rise of the Niger Delta society and the Nigerian nation at large.

However, Niger Delta, women's role in the political development of colonial Nigeria was not confined to participation in adhoc political agitation or what Afigbo (1991) called "nativistic agitation" but also participated in the formation of modern pressure group and political parties, though few in number. They helped to bring women's and welfare matters in an organized manner to the enlightened public. They thus sensitized the enlightened public about the problems of women, suggested solutions and agitated for their implementation.

Conclusion

It is a well-known fact that women are versatile in the area of economic development of any society. Therefore, it is common place to observe that though palm oil production dominated the colonial economy, women also engaged in many other aspects of economic endeavours to give sustenance to the subsistence economy and economic stabilisation in the family. However, it is clear from our analysis above that though colonialism affected the most of traditional economy and particularly put paid to craft production, which was dominated by the women, the colonial economy was not hijacked by the men but was also a collective venture as women also featured visibly in all ramifications in the development of the colonial economy.

The hypothesis for this paper is that historical interruption and analysis of any kind may be generated by the attempt to resolve the dialectic between colonialism as an albatross to the status of women and their capabilities to play their roles in the development of societies. As a framework for analysis, we are compelled to contend that colonialism, as an albatross became the core engine in the domination of patriarchy to the Niger Delta. It follows therefore, that women in much of the Niger Delta lack support for fundamental functions of human life. They became more vulnerable to physical violence and sexual abuse. They were much less literate and still less provided with professional and technical education and therefore face greater and severe obstacles when they attempt to get employment. Similarly, they faced obstacles which often times impeded their effective participation in political life. Consequently, they lost their property rights, the rights of association, mobility, religious liberty, and lack opportunities to play and for the cultivation of their imaginative and cognitive faculties. All these unequal social and political circumstances originating from colonialism collectively gave women the background of unequal human capabilities.

Therefore, there is the compulsion to sum all these up by saying that colonialism did not treat women as ends in their own right (persons with dignity that deserves respect from law and institution). Instead, colonialism treated women as mere instruments of the ends of others — reproducers, caregivers, sexual outlets, agents of a family's general prosperity. Gender inequality is strongly correlated with poverty. When poverty combines with gender inequality, the result is acute failure of central human capabilities. There is a sense in which we can argue that there is a process of "feminisation" of poverty. Colonialism and the treatment of women as supporters of the ends of others, rather than as ends in their own rights, as a principle constituted a particularly critical force in the future of women lives and thus affected fundamentally the overall development of human society. However, there is a note of caution. In the face of these political, social, economic, administrative, and legal experiences, the women put up strong contention and challenged such colonial policies they considered obnoxious and in that contributed radically and fundamentally to a redirection of colonial administration as well as the overall development of their various societies.

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