

ISSN: 2382-904x | Volume 7 Issue 3 | July 2019 - August 2020
arcnjournals@gmail.com

INTERNATIONAL ACADEMY JOURNAL OF SOCIAL BEHAVIOUR AND COMMUNITY STUDIES



JOURNAL IMPACT FACTOR = 4.6

Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of Creative Commons Attribution 4.0

International Academy Journal of Social Behaviour and Community Studies

Special Edition

Volume 7, Issue 3 | ISSN: 2382-904X | July 2019 – August 2020

Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal

<http://arcnjournals.org/asa>
journals@arcnjournals.org
asasubmitpaper@gmail.com
©Academic Science Archives (ASA)



Published by

Academic Science Archives Press
www.arcnjournals.org/asa

International Academy Journal of Social Behaviour and Community Studies

Special Edition

Volume 7, Issue 3 | ISSN: 2382-904X | July 2019 – August 2020

Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal

<http://arcnjournals.org/asa>
journals@arcnjournals.org
asasubmitpaper@gmail.com
©Academic Science Archives (ASA)

Published by

Academic Science Archives Press



www.arcnjournals.org/asa

Africa Research Corps, 172 Jose Marti Crescent, Abuja, Nigeria

In Association With

International Academic Journal for Global Research

995 Memorial Boulevard Lakeland Florida, U.S.A.



Copyright © 2020 Academic Science Archives (ASA)

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced or transmitted in any form or by any means, or stored in any retrieval system of any nature, without prior written permission, except for permitted fair dealing under the law relating to copyright. Open Access authors retain the copyrights of their papers, and all open access articles are distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution license, which permits unrestricted use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided that the original work is properly cited and not distorted.

Disclaimers

The Journal and the Editorial Board do not bear responsibility for views expressed by the authors in this Journal. Any problem relating to the articles (i.e. plagiarism, grammatical errors, lexicon errors, spelling mistakes, publishing articles in more than one journal, etc.) is the sole responsibility of the authors and the Journal bears no responsibility for that. The use of general descriptive names, trade names, trademarks, and so forth in this publication, even if not specifically identified, does not imply that these names are not protected by the relevant laws and regulations. While the advice and information in this Journal are believed to be true and accurate on the date of it going to the press, neither the authors, the editors, nor the publisher can accept any legal responsibility for any errors or omissions that may be made. The publisher makes no warranty, express or implied, with respect to the material contained herein.

Submissions

Manuscripts adhering to author's guideline should be submitted for double-blind peer-review process to the Editorial Board. Manuscripts should be submitted electronically to:

- journals@arcnjournals.org
- arcnjournals@gmail.com
- asasubmitpaper@gmail.com
- papers@accexgate.com
- Uploaded via our website: <http://arcnjournals.org/index.php/submit-manuscript>



Editorial Board

Editor

Prof. Chukwuba P. Anthony, National Open University of Nigeria

Associate Editors

Prof. Paul A. Mount Kenya University, Kenya

Prof. Eleme, Stewart Veno, Department of Management Sciences, Mount Kenya University, Kenya

Prof. Jeff Gill, College of Statistics, University of Florida

Dr. Ndiyah, Faith, Catholic University of Cameroon, Cameroon

Dr. Mostafa Salim, The British University, Egypt

Dr. Kopano M., Department of Economics and Statistics, Tshwane University of Technology Business School

Dr. Bertha Munpamtzholimbe, department of Business Administration, National University of Lesotho

Dr. Kenneth Heilman, Behavioral Neurologist, Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology, Kenya

s/n	Contents	Pages
1	Socio-Cultural Practices in Ikwerre Land and its Implication for the Scourge of HIV/AIDS, Grace Lawrence-Hart, Ph.D.	1-7
2	Effects of Locational Infrastructural Facilities on Residential Property Value in Bori, Rivers State, Deeyah, Christopher L., Kpalap, Elgior M., Kpunpamo Owanate B., Igbara Simeon A. and West, Tamunomiete	8-20
3	Colonialism and the Changing Role of Women in Ogoni, Rivers State, 1900-1960, N-UE, Uebari Samuel, Ph.D and AWORTU, Beatrice E. Ph.D	21-35
4	Gender Classification of Farm Crops and Labour in Ikwerre: A Review of its Impact on Agricultural Development and Sustainability, Mbadiwe Jeremiah, Ph.D	36-42
5	Impact of Human Capital Development on Economic Sustainability in Nigeria, Chinelo P. Ohanyere, Chidi L. Atueyi and Ibekwe Angela O.	43-52
6	Customer Retention Strategies and Business Performance: A Survey of Selected Retail Chain Stores in South-South, Nigeria, ASAGBA Samuel, COKER Preye Robert and OKWUDU A. Andrew	53-67

Socio-Cultural Practices in Ikwerre Land and its Implication for the Scourge of HIV/AIDS

Grace Lawrence-Hart, Ph.D.

Department of Religious and Cultural Studies, Faculty of Humanities, Ignatious Ajuru
University of Education, Rumuolumeni, Port Harcourt, Rivers State | Email:
drgrace.lawrence-hart@iaue.edu.ng | Phone: 08035455185

Abstract: *The activities through which society defines and identifies itself are unique and vary from society to society. These activities manifest themselves through values, norms, beliefs and practices which may have positive and negative implication for the wellbeing or otherwise of the population. Most of these cultural norms and practices are related to human sexuality while others are related to the day-to-day practices and activities of the society. Cultural norms and practices relating to sexuality contribute to the risk of HIV infection. The method of data collection in this ethnographic survey is personal interview. This study, "Perils of HIV/AIDS in the Cultural Practices in Ikwerre land" attempts to highlight some cultural and socio-religious rites that enhance the spread of HIV/AIDS in a 21st century Ikwerre society. The study reveals that although these cultural and socio-cultural rites function to give a sense of cultural identity and enhance the survival of the people, they threaten and destroy the very identity, wellbeing and survival of the people, thereby defeating the very functions they intend to perform for the people. This paper, therefore, stresses the need to evaluate and re-evaluate HIV/AIDS prone cultural and socio-religious practices that are inimical to the preservation of Ikwerre ethnic group.*

Key words: *Ikwerre, Sexuality, HIVAIDS, Circumcision, Polygamy, Levirate Marriage*

© 2019. Grace Lawrence-Hart. This is a research/review paper, distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-Noncommercial 4.0 Unported License <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0>, permitting all non-commercial use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Introduction

The need to sustain ones cultural identity in a globalized and localized world is of great concern to Africans as the forces of change make gross incursion on the social, religious and cultural fabrics of indigenous societies. The place of social, religious and cultural rites in indigenous African societies cannot be over emphasized. The observance of these rites gives individuals a sense of belonging and identity in their various communities. Adherence to these rites which are regarded as common heritage of the people is believed to create a sense of strong communal bond that promotes peaceful co-existence; thus, communal integration is vested on common values (Muhammad-Oumar, 2010). Non-compliance to these religious, social and cultural rites are considered anti-social and as such frowned at. Awolalu and Dopamu (1979) maintains that

the standard of a society if properly adhered to, will bring about the welfare of not just the individual but to the entire society; for this reason, the Ikwerre people have continued to practice their cultural heritage despite the wave of modernity not minding the health implication of some of these practices. Following the assertion that some socio-cultural rites have been identified as means of transmitting certain diseases, how then do we maintain our cultural identities? Some cultural practices have been seen as means of transmitting sexually transmitted diseases. This study is, therefore, poised to evaluate certain cherished religious and socio-cultural practices responsible for the transmission of HIV/AIDS in Ikwerre land. In other words, the purpose of this study is to analyze the relationship between certain cherished cultural practices and the spread of HIV/AIDS in the Ikwerre ethnic nationality.

Methodology

The research design employed is the ethnographic survey. We made use of unstructured questionnaire to obtain data. This is because most of the informants did not acquire formal education. For the purpose of this research work, the method used in collecting data included the primary and secondary sources. The primary sources are oral interviews from experienced aged people mainly farmers, fishermen, traders and those who have been participating directly in performing these traditional duties which lead to the spread of HIV/AIDS in Ikwerre land. Due to the fear associated with written record some informants deliberately hoard some information, which could be degrading on the image of the land. It is hoped that this piece of work will be an asset towards understanding the relationship between socio-cultural practices and the spread of HIV/AIDS in some African societies like the Ikwerres.

Ikwerre ethnic group

Ikwerre is one the ethnic groups in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria; they are predominantly farmers and are very friendly and receptive to visitors that live amongst them. In fact, the one and only garden city in Rivers State is located in the upland region of Ikwerre land; that is why the Ikwerres have so many non indigenes living amongst them. Politically, the people have no central government as each clan has her own *Nyewneli* (Paramount Ruler). However, a central place of gathering called the *Ogbakor Ikwerre* is the point of convergence as an ethnic group. The receptive nature of the Ikwerre people has endeared so many people into her communities such that it is almost looking like a pluralistic society. Interestingly, despite the seeming multi-cultural setting of the Ikwerre societies, the people are still engrossed in their traditional practices which they regard as their cultural values without minding the health implications of such practices.

Conceptual Framework

Irwin and Millen (2003:xxv) reports that Human Immune Deficiency Virus (HIV) is the virus that causes AIDS. Once introduced into the blood stream, HIV attacks certain cells of the immune system called the “hyper T-cells” or CD4 cells which help the body to fight off infections. HIV invades CD4 cells reproducing within the infected cells and then bursting out into the bloodstream. The immune system respond by producing antibodies to fight the virus and making more CD4 cells to replenish those killed but this immune system response is untimely ineffective in the latter stages of infection. HIV destroys increasing number of CD4 cells until the body’s capacity to fight other viruses and bacteria gradually begins to decline. Eventually the immune systems stop functioning leaving the body defenseless against other infections agents.

They further state that Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS) is the medical designation for a set of symptoms, opportunistic infections and laboratory markers indicating that a person is in an advanced stage of HIV infection with and impaired immune system. Although some people may develop AIDS much sooner it takes an average of ten years from the time one is infected with HIV to developed clinical AIDS. As immune functions began to decline the body becomes prone to cause illness as a result of a weakened immune system. The characteristics are spectrum of opportunistic infections that a person is likely to get which vary in different regions of the world depending upon the locally predominant infectious agents.

The origin of this disease has puzzled scientists ever since the disease has been the subject of fierce debate and the cause of countless arguments with everything from a promiscuous individual to socio-cultural and socio-economic factors. According to World Council of Churches (WCC) (1997) the origin of HIVAIDS is unknown, however it was first reported among gay men and was causing death at an early age. This factor was publicized sensationally by the mass media worldwide, hatching the notion, "AIDS equal gay plague" on the minds of people everywhere. After gay men, the next most commonly stereotyped group to be affected was intravenous drug users. Today, HIVAIDS increasingly strikes women, children, heterosexuals and those who have not been sexually active. It strikes not just persons out there but members of local communities, familiar neighbours and even family members.

HIV/AIDS has been recognized as a socio-cultural disease and the paradigm of its infection and spread particularly within the local communities is a reflection of the socio-cultural profile of the people. According to U. E. Dibua (2010) HIV/AIDS is a social disease and the outcome of social behaviour. Efforts at controlling the pandemic meaningfully and adequately is the need to identify and evaluate those cultural norms and practices that are likely to expose individuals to the disease. The Joint United Nation Program on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS) emphasized the need to address the socio-cultural behaviours and values of the communities that expose individuals to HIV risk behaviours. (HIV/AIDS.com/journal).

At the early stage of the war against HIV/AIDS many countries were not among the core players. Many played marginal roles, received directives from global agencies and made little or no input of their own. This globalization of AIDS tended to obscure the culture specific nature of the disease and down play the reference of culture in taming the scourge (Anikpo and Atemie: 2006). It was discovered that no much advance can be made without adopting culturally appropriate measures in the prevention and cure of the disease. International effort cannot make a dent on HIV/AIDS without being complemented by national and grassroots efforts. The mainstreaming of culture in the fight against HIV/AIDS means that people have to be engaged in their own cultural references in order to change their attitude and behaviour towards HIV/AIDS.

Anikpo and Atemie: (2006) report that one way of looking at culture and HIV/AIDS in Nigeria is to examine the means by which most Nigerians contact HIV/AIDS, how culture can help in preventive effort, and the discriminatory practices against people living with HIV/AIDS in many Nigerian societies as well as the facts and myth that are prevalent in those communities. With over seventy percent still living in the rural communities in Nigeria many still attach themselves to indigenous belief systems and values and to culture bound perspectives which inform their attitude to the virus. The HIV/AIDS culture is very relevant to Nigeria as she seeks ways to curb the scourge.

Nteziyao (2009) postulates that culture play a significant role in people's life in Africa. There is a need to take culture seriously in order to look at salient elements of cultural practices that influences the spread of HIV/AIDS. Cultural practices fulfill a purpose for those who

practice them. Although cultural practices may have a positive impact on health, they may also be harmful. Nteziyao (2009) opines that a harmful cultural practice can be changed only when the people who practiced it understand the danger, risk and indignity of the practice.

For instance, negative attitude towards condoms as well as difficulties negotiating and following through with their use is one of many problems. According to Mswela (2009) men in South Africa do not want to use condoms because of the belief that flesh to flesh sex is equated to masculinity and is necessary for male health. Certain sexual practices such as dry sex (where the vagina is expected to be small and dry) and unprotected anal sex carry a high risk of HIV infection because they cause abrasions to the linings of the vagina and anus. Socio-cultural norms build notions of masculinity which in turn create unequal power relations between men and women. Socio-cultural factors in traditional beliefs and practices in African society play great roles in determining the position of women and girls in the society. Masculinity requires men to be more dominating, knowledgeable and experienced in life. These assumptions put many young men at risk of HIV infection as such cultural norms prevent them from seeking information or admitting their lack of knowledge about sex or methods of protection.

Traditional practices and the Spread of HIV/AIDS in Ikwerre land

The HIV/AIDS epidemic in Ikwerre land has been recognized as a socio-cultural type. Some of the socio-cultural norms and practices that have led to the spread of HIV/AIDS among the people include preference for a male child, wife inheritance (levirate marriage) polygamy, blood oath and circumcision. This section will highlight on these in relation to how they facilitate the spread of HIV/AIDS in the land.

Wife inheritance also known as levirate marriage is one of the socio-cultural practices that facilitate the spread of HIV/AIDS in Ikwerre land. This type of marriage is common among Ikwerre communities. When a man who have performed the full marriage rites dies without a male heir and the widow is still young and in her prime to give birth, she will be required to choose for herself someone among her late husband's brothers or relatives, or the family might impose someone on her that will bear male child or children that will succeed or continue the lineage of her late husband. The man who inherits the widow might be having illicit sexual affair with other women and this might put him at high risk of contracting HIV and this virus may consequently be passed on to the widow. Also the widow might be the source of the virus and she may spread it to her new sex partners. In this instance, the new sex partner who has contracted the virus from the widow would pass it on to his other wife/wives or concubines, if any. Children born during this period are bound to be infected through their mothers. The fact remains that in most Ikwerre homes members of a particular family unit share sharp objects. So the spread of the HIV/AIDS virus is unlimited (Chinedu Igwe, personal interview, 2019).

Similar to the above is polygamy. Polygamous marriage is one of the most common forms of marriage practice in Ikwerre land. This is because the society in question is agrarian and patriarchal in nature. An Ikwerre man with numerous wives and children is highly respected. Multiple sex partnership encouraged by polygamy exposes the spouses to HIV/AIDS. The man in polygamous marriage may not fully satisfy the sexual urge of all his wives and this might lead the younger wives to go searching for sexual satisfaction from younger men of the same age bracket. These younger men may also have other sex partners and these might put him at a high risk of contacting the HIV virus. This virus may consequently be passed on to other sex partner, from a polygamous home who in turn transmits the virus to her husband for an onward

transmission to his other wives and members of the polygamous family (Nwobodo Kamalu, Personal interview, 2018).

Polygamy is widely practiced in many African societies. Multiple sex partnership encouraged by polygamy exposes the spouse to HIV/AIDS. However, M. Mswela (2009) opines that it would be wrong to conclude that polygamy is a primarily harmful practice, which leads directly to the spreading of HIV/AIDS, but the manner in which persons in polygamous marriages conduct themselves may facilitate the spreading of HIV/AIDS. On the other hand, we cannot completely guarantee that partners in monogamous relationships are completely secured from the virus; the risk of contracting HIV/AIDS is much higher in polygamous marriage than in monogamous marriage. There are more potential victims of HIV/AIDS in a polygamous family circle than in a monogamous union (Badumere Amadi, personal interview, 2009).

Blood oath is another cultural practice that facilitates the spread of HIV/AIDS in Ikwerre land. Blood oaths are taken in order to solidify a relationship between two or more group of person that have differences and intend to settle their differences (Orji, 2018). The reason for the blood oath is to prevent them from having evil intentions towards each other. Blood oaths sometimes serve as binding force to a covenant (Chima, 2018). It is believed that whosoever goes against the blood oath will die or certain calamities will befall the person. This religio-cultural practice, which serves a cherished function among the people, enhances the spread of HIV/AIDS in the sense that the priest or person conducting the blood oath uses a single unsterilized instrument to puncture the skin of all participant of the blood oath. This act put them in danger of contracting HIV/AIDS.

Another cultural practice is love oath by young male and female who are in love, they take this oath for the fear that separation either to further ones education or in search of greener pasture could cause one party to find another love in the new place. Hence, youths in their exuberance and ignorance take love oath which involves cutting their skin to express blood with which both parties after making pronouncement/ confession upon the invocation of any deity which they reverence, vows to remain bonded for life. This crude practice still exists among the Ikwerre people and is taken without knowing the health status of the parties involved.

Male and Female genital mutilation/circumcision is a common cultural practice in Ikwerre land that makes boys and girls vulnerable to HIV/AIDS. This practice is a socio-religious rite of passage that prepares a young boy or girl for man/womanhood and marriage. In Nigeria and Africa at large, circumcision is a way of safeguarding chastity and virginity among young women. The Ikwerre ethnic nationality holds the notion that the clitoris of a woman increases her sexual urge and this might lead her into a promiscuous life. For the woman to remain faithful to her husband or remain a virgin there is need for her to undergo this socio-religious rite of passage. Female circumcision is performed on a girl that has attained the stage of puberty while in some Ikwerre communities the girl child is circumcised at birth just like her male counterpart. The reason for male circumcision is subjected to Judaeo-Christian explanations. The object or instrument used in performing this act is seen as a sacred object (Chisa, 2018). It is the same unsterilized sacred object that is used for all the young boys and girls who undergo this socio-religious rite of passage in a particular community. Besides, this cultural practice in indigenous societies is often performed under unhealthy condition with unsterilized instrument, which exposes them to HIV/AIDS. Furthermore, circumcised females are prone to bleeding during sexual intercourse, which increases their susceptibility to the virus.

Conclusion

This study has highlighted some cherished religious and socio cultural practices that enhance the spread of HIV/AIDS in Ikwerre land. Some of the cultural practices are rites of passage that serve meaningful functions such as a sense of belonging and identity among the people of Ikwerre. Irrespective of the cultural functions they serve, these cultural and socio-religious rites seem to threaten the very survival and existence of an ethnic group which they are meant to preserve by exposing them to the scourge of HIV/AIDS in the land. Consequently, it is expedient that certain actions be taken to warn the people of the implications of these cultural and socio-religious practices that are, in the long run, inimical to their very wellbeing and survival as an ethnic group in Rivers State.

There is, therefore, the need, on the part of the National Orientation Agency (NOA) and other governmental agencies at the federal, state and council levels, health workers, meaningful individuals and religious institutions, to embark on an aggressive and massive enlightenment campaigns in schools, churches, mosques, market places, town unions and associations, town halls, and village meetings to educate the people about this epidemic. We also recommend that if any of these and other cultural and socio-religious practices capable of spreading HIV/AIDS are to be observed, utmost healthcare measures must be observed in the course of performing these rites. The objects for circumcision must be sterilized. Those that intend to engage in polygamy and levirate marriage should be subjected to HIV/AIDS screening. Blood oath should be discouraged. The blood of those whom the oath would be administered to should be tested. Finally, there is the need to evaluate and re-evaluate those cultural and socio-religious practices that are likely to expose individuals to the disease.

References

- Amadi, Badumere. (2019). Personal Interview at Ogbakiri on 24th June 2009. Aged 65.
- Anikpo and Atemie (2006). *Nigerian Socio-Cultural heritage*. Port Harcourt: Davidstone Publishers Limited.
- Aweto, Albert. (2003). "The Main Ethnic Nationalities of the Niger Rivers." *Urhobo Historical Society*. <http://www.waado.org/NigerRivers/Maps/NgRiversEthnic-Aweto.html> [Accessed 26 Aug. 2003]
- Awololalu, J.O. and Dopamu, P.A (1979) *West African Traditional Religion*, Ibadan: Onibonje Press and Book Industries.
- Chima, George. (2018). Personal Interview at Elele on 20th June 2009. Aged 51.
- Chinedu, Igwe. (2019). Personal Interview at Emohua on 24th June 2009. Aged 65.
- Dubia, U. (2010). "Socio-Economic and Socio-Cultural Predisposing Risk Factors to HIV/AIDS: case study of some location in eastern Nigeria". "www.ispub.com/internet.
- Grimes, Barbara F. and Joseph E. Grimes. (Eds.). (January 2003). "Kalabari-Aboh-Ndoni: A Language of Nigeria." *Ethnologue: Languages of the World*. 14th Edition
- Irwin, Fallows and Millen (2003). *Global AIDS*. USA South End Press.
- Kamalu, Nwobodo (2018). Personal Interview at Alakahia on 18th June 2009. Aged 53.
- Mbitit, J.S. (1969). *African Religion and Philosophy* London: Heinemann.
- Mswela, M. (2009). "Cultural Practices and HIV in South Africa: A Legal Perspective". www.saflii.org.com (07/10/12) 4:00pm.

- Muhammad-Oumar, A.A. (2010) *Arts and Culture as Tools for National Integration*: in Tunde, B. (ed) *Cultural Rejuvenation for National Integration and Sustainable Development*. Malthouse Press Ltd. Lagos.
- Nteziryao, P. (2009). "Social Cultural Factors in HIV/AIDS Transmission among Women in Rwanda." www.menioreonline.com (06/10/12) 4:20pm.
- Spectar, J. (2010). "The Hydra Hath but one Head: The Socio-Cultural Dimensions of the Aids Epidemic and Women's Right to health. www.avertonline/HIV/AIDS.com" (12/7/2012) 3:00pm.
- This Day* [Lagos]. 17 April 2002. "Battle for the Big Heart." (allAfrica.com/Dialog)
- UNAIDS: e-alliance (2003) "What makes some population more vulnerable to HIV". www.e-alliance.ch/en/HIV/AIDS/prevalence
- W.C.C. (1997). *Facing AIDS*: Geneva: W.C.C. Publication

Effects of Locational Infrastructural Facilities on Residential Property Value in Bori, Rivers State

¹Deeyah, Christopher L., ²Kpalap, Elgior M., ³Kpunpamo Owanate B.,
⁴Igbara Simeon A. and ⁵West, Tamunomiete

^{1,3,4}Department of Estate Management, Ken Saro-Wiwa Polytechnic, Bori.

²Department of Architecture, Ken Saro-Wiwa Polytechnic, Bori

⁵Department of Urban and Regional Planning Ken Saro-Wiwa Polytechnic, Bori.

Correspondence email: chrisdeeyah@gmail.com

Abstract: This paper aims to determine statically the relationship between Locational Infrastructural Facilities and Residential Property Value in Bori, Rivers State. The paper investigates the infrastructural facilities and rental values of residential properties in the selected residential neighbourhoods to ascertain if rent passing on residential properties in the selected streets have link to locational infrastructural facilities. A multi-stage sampling technique is used to identify the residential neighbourhood; number the buildings and household from the selected streets; select household respondents to be studied from the selected streets, while simple random sampling was used to select household respondents to respond to the data collection instruments. The study used closed ended questionnaires designed for household and was administered by the researcher through drop and pick method. Reliability and Validity of data collection instruments was ascertained through the test-retest method. Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was employed to analyze the data with the aid of statistics using Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS). Findings indicate an r-value of 0.914 which shows a positive relationship between the average scores of infrastructural facilities and average rental values; while the t-test results shows that at 0.05 level of significance, $t_{cal} = 3.88$, and $t_{tab} = 2.78$. The study infer that rental values tended to peak in location that enjoy one form of infrastructure or the other. It recommended that infrastructural facilities be provided in locations with fewer infrastructures to improve value and encourage movement of people into these locations as an alternative to over-crowding one part.

Key words: Locational Infrastructural, Available Facilities, Residential Property, Rental Value

© 2019. Deeyah, Christopher L., Kpalap, Elgior M., Kpunpamo Owanate B., Igbara Simeon A. and West, Tamunomiete. This is a research/review paper, distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-Noncommercial 4.0 Unported License <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0>, permitting all non-commercial use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

1.0 Introduction

The state of infrastructure is an important parameter for assessment and indicator of status of any urban system (Ajibola, Awodiran and Salu-Kosoko, 2013). Infrastructure covers a wide range of services and facilities which include water, road, waste disposal, drainage, communication, primary health services, schools and housing. (Olaseni and Alade 2012) classified Infrastructures broadly into two: physical (roads, electricity, telecommunication, drainage

system, etc.); and social (education, health, recreation, housing etc.). According to Nubi, 2003), the physical infrastructure is referred to as economic infrastructure. Ajibola *et al.*, (2013) observed that adequate provision and effective management of public infrastructures improved productive and profitable land uses in an urban area. As the effectiveness of any form of human activity in an urban area mainly depends on the provision of efficient infrastructure and services, its significance in the proper functioning of an urban area cannot be under-estimated (Babarinde, 1998). According to United Nations, (2010), the quality and coverage of infrastructure services have a significant impact on economic growth and standards of living, yet it is estimated that about two billion people lack access to adequate sanitation and electricity while one billion lack access to clean water. Availability of infrastructure is often one of the factors affecting the demand and choice of residential property as man is a socio-economic being seeking to dwell in residential units that provides maximum supply of necessary facilities at affordable costs. Providing infrastructure that would enhance the living condition of residents within a neighbourhood is thus very essential. Oni (2007), citing Goldberg (1970), said that “real property values tend to increase in areas with expanding transportation networks, and increase less rapidly in areas without such improvements”. He note that rapid and continued rise in property value are expected in cities with infrastructural improvements and rapid economic and population growth.

Rental values of properties also vary from place to place depending on various factors among which availability of facilities stand prominent. Most often, when factors affecting rental values of residential properties are considered, the most commonly discussed factors are location, quality of building, demand and supply rate among others are the most commonly mentioned with little or no regard for the availability of public facilities and infrastructures. Property has no intrinsic value when marketed. Value exists only where the property has a 'beneficial use' that is, use in occupation, or a potential to offer use in occupation. If occupational demand is weak, or lacking, the rent or price that the property can command in the market is lowered. Ihuah and Benebo, (2014) opined that reliant on availability of sufficient infrastructural provisions such as: good road network; portable water supply system; drainage system etc leads to effective economic activities functioning and development level fulfilment in either urban or rural environment and that the significance of their provision, is to enhance real property values, as well as promote the social and economic life of the people in that built environment.

The increasing rate of variations on rental values of residential properties among varying residential neighbourhoods in many towns and cities in Nigeria in recent time has continue to dominate discussions within the spheres of practicing estate surveyors and valuers, landlords, investors, tenants, estate brokers, as well as policy makers on property investment and management in Nigeria. Though different studies on housing rentals determination have been carried out internationally, that acknowledged condition of dwelling characteristics, attributes of residential location and neighbourhood attributes as the foremost factors that causes housing rental variations (Kiel & Zabel, 2008; Ajibola *et al.*, 2013). Most of these studies are foreign with only a little of them done in the south west, Nigeria. Hence, this study attempt explores the significance of the various infrastructural facilities on rental values of residential properties in the study area. In doing this, the research will answer the following questions.

- I. What are the infrastructures facilities in the various residential neighbourhoods in Bori?
- II. Are there any variations in infrastructures facilities and rental values in the various residential neighbourhoods in Bori
- III. Is there any relationship between infrastructure facilities and rental value?

1.1 Hypothesis

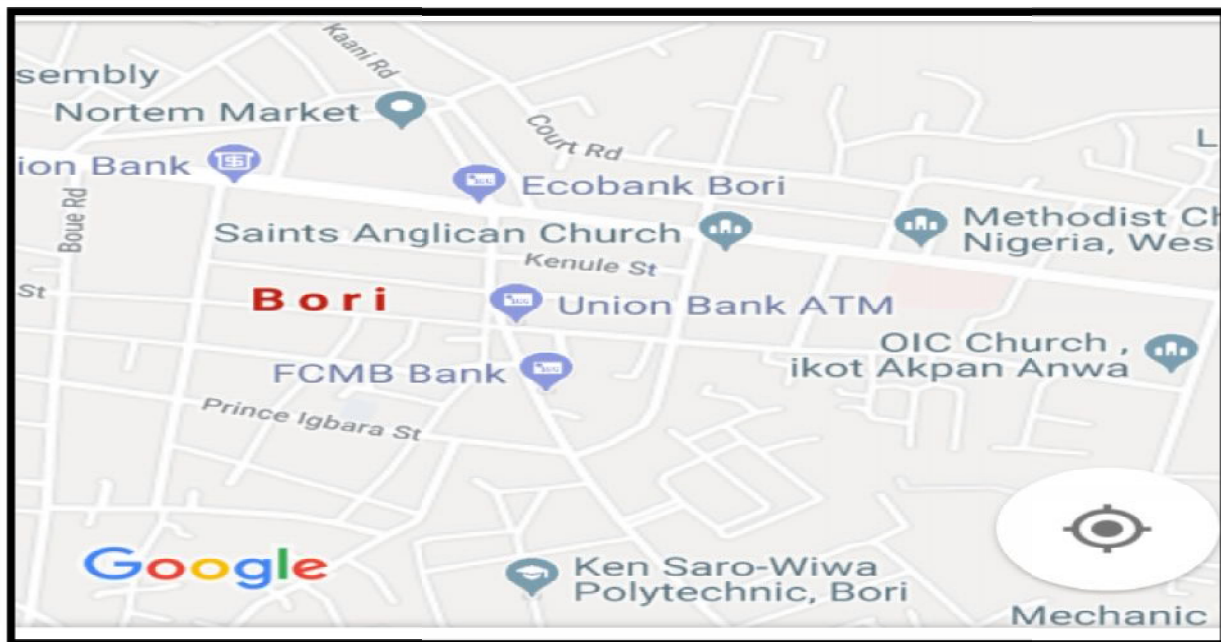
This research is based on the following hypothesis:

H1 - There is statistically significant relationship between infrastructural provision and rental value in Bori.

H0 - There is no statistically significant relationship between infrastructural provision and rental value in Bori.

1.2 The Study Area

Bori the head quarters of Khana Local Government is located on coordinates $4^{\circ} 40' 22''$ N and $7^{\circ} 22' 13''$ E. It occupies a total land area of approximately 50km^2 with a population of 250,000 people. Bori also doubles as the traditional headquarters of Ogoni ethnic nationality which consist of four local governments (Eleme, Tai, Gokana, and Khana). It is an ancient community transcending from the capital of the old Bori division to the head quarters of the present Khana Local Government Area. It is bounded to the North by Tai and Gokana Local Governments, to the South by Wiiyaakara, to the East by Kaani and kor and to the West by Zaakpon and Boue communities. The people engage in subsistence agriculture and fishing. They are also involved in diverse business ranging from petty trading to complex and commercial ventures such as super market and standard restaurants, hotels and recreational outfits. Bori is fast growing from a rural area into an urban area. The presence of Ken Saro-Wiwa Polytechnic, has led to an increase in the rate of development of residential and commercial properties which connects people across all parts of Bori. The availability of Ken Saro-Wiwa Polytechnic, central market, hospitals secondary and primary schools, road networks, drainages, water supply, parking space, security network and other infrastructural facilities has also led to the attraction of students from all walk of life and population from the neighborhood communities to Bori. This development has led to increase demand for residential accommodation and upsurge in rental values in different neighbourhoods in Bori hence the choice of the location for the study, so as to determine whether rent passing in the various street have link to locational infrastructural facilities.



Source: Google Map showing Selected Streets in Bori.

2.0 Literature Review

2.1 Concept of Urban Infrastructure

The Longman online dictionary (2014) defines infrastructure as the basic systems and structures that a country or organization needs in order to work properly, for example roads, railways, banks etc. The term typically refers to the technical structures that support a society, such as roads, water supply, sewers, electrical national grids, telecommunications, and so forth, and can be defined as "the physical components of interrelated systems providing commodities and services essential to enable, sustain, or enhance societal living conditions" (Fulmer, 2009). Infrastructure is the aggregate of all facilities that allow a city function effectively Nubi (2003). Nwuba and Salawu, (2010) see infrastructure as a key element in the generation of economic growth and development and the main driver of urban activities. It is the economic and social underpinnings of a society and the life wire of the urban system. Patunola (2013) describe infrastructure as the sectors of transport, water and sanitation, power, telecommunication and others which represents a large portfolio of expenditure in all countries, ranging from a third to one-half of the public investment (equivalent is roughly 3-6 percent of GDP). Infrastructure covers a wide range of economic and social facility crucial to creating an enabling environment for economic growth and enhances quality of life which includes housing, electricity, pipe-borne water, drainage, roads sewage, health, education, telecommunication and institutional structures like police station, fire fighting station, banks and post office. It is simply the engine that drives the development of any city (Bello, Adeniji, Arowosegbe, 2013).

2.2 Effects of Infrastructure on Rental Values

Economies require the development of infrastructure, such as water, energy, roads development, transport networks, information, and communication technology for sustainability and these urban services also positively influence the value of real estate as they improve housing conditions and quality (Famuyiwa and Otegbulu, 2012). Different scholars have variously stressed the relevance of infrastructure in all spheres of life. Previous studies, including Burgess (1925), Keeble (1969), Odudu (2003), Johnson, Davies and Shapiro (2005) have considered the effect of location on property values. Their various findings established location as a major determinant of property value. Location is important in relation to proximity to the target market and sources of supplies; conditions and facilities are important in relation to attracting optimal rentals, and security is important in relation to tenant safety. Keeble (1969) affirmed that properties in areas that are well serviced with pipe-borne water enjoy higher rental values compared to areas where the service is non-existence. Odudu (2003), in examining the Significance of Infrastructure in Determining Land and Rental Values in an Urban Area of Lagos metropolis observed that rental values tended to peak in those locations that enjoyed one form of infrastructure or the other. Collaborating this, Johnson, Davies and Shapiro (2005) affirm that the presence of infrastructure often leads to appreciation in property values while its absence affects neighbourhood properties adversely.

Olajide (2010) carried out a study of urban poverty and environmental conditions in informal settlements of Ajegunle, Lagos, Nigeria established that, one of the basic factors that determine property values especially residential property is the reliability of physical security of the neighborhood as well as that of the property. She argued that, residential estates that are prone to robbery attacks usually suffer reduction in both capital and rental value. She further said that, the rate of turnover of properties suffering from inadequate security is usually low thereby rendering such properties unattractive and unprofitable. Ajibola, et al (2011) while studying the effects of Infrastructure on Property Values in Unity Estate, Lagos, Nigeria

maintain that where properties are accessible through good road networks, it would enjoy high rental values.

Ibrahim,(2013) x-ray the influence of location on property values and business development in Nigeria using Ilorin metropolis as a case study. Findings indicate that Business development concentrated and grows more intensively in neighbourhoods with highest level of accessibility. He maintained that rent skyrocketed on the properties in the areas which may eventually give rise to gentrification whereby important but less financially rewarding businesses are forced to relocate elsewhere. The study recommends that the government should provide infrastructures in the less developed areas to encourage people move into the area rather than over-crowding one part of the city.

Udoka, (2013) while studying the imperatives of the provision of infrastructure and improved property values in Nigeria beamed its light on the relationship between property values and the development of infrastructure; the factors that influence property values; and trend of infrastructural development in Akwa Ibom State in recent past observed that the closer a residential area is to new infrastructural projects, the higher the increase in its values.

Ihuah, Ekenta, and Nwokorie, (2014) carried out investigation on the impacts of inadequate infrastructures provision on real property value, using Agbama and Ehimiri Housing Estate located in Umuahia City of Nigeria. The study uses an open and closed ended questionnaire designed with multiple choice test questionnaire survey on a total of 400 households and landlords reveal that there were lack of or inadequate good road network, electricity supply; portable water; drainage system; waste management system; recreational facilities; particularly in Agbama housing estates and that these inadequate infrastructures and its weak correlation contribute to increasing negative impacts on real property and its rental value.

Ankeli et al (2015) are of the opinion that, the determination of residential property value is a complex and major challenging task facing both practitioners and intellectual in the real estate profession in Nigeria as the exercise involves the collection and analysis of comprehensive and accurate data on the property characteristics, neighborhood characteristics, landlord and tenant characteristics and market conditions which are not readily available and concluded that, properties with better conditions in terms of infrastructures and physical soundness command higher rental values.

Ankeli , et al (2016) while examining the available infrastructural facilities in residential properties in Osogbo with the aim of evaluating their impact on the rental values of residential properties in the study area divided Osogbo Metropolis into four residential zones and administered a total of 450 questionnaires on the respondents using systematic random sampling techniques. With 95% response rate, the study revealed that, properties with better conditions in terms of infrastructures and physical soundness command higher rental values. It recommends the need for the provision of essential basic infrastructure by government and its agencies and schedule sustainable maintenance programmes for the infrastructure facilities provided.

3.0 Research Methodology

This section discusses the methodological approach used for the collection of the relevant data, analysis and discussions of findings. The research design adopted in this study is the Survey design. This is because the study variables are not subjected to manipulation and can be generalized to larger population. The target population for this study were basically household members. A multi-stage sampling technique is used to select household respondents for the study. Multi-stage sampling is normally used to overcome problems associated with a geographically dispersed population when face-to-face contact is needed or where it is expensive

and time consuming to construct a sampling frame for a large geographical area (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). The technique involves taking a series of cluster samples, each involving some form of random sampling. The sampling phases include:

Phase 1 carrying out a reconnaissance survey to identify the residential neighbourhood within Bori. A total of 52 streets were identified within the study area.

Phase 2 Selecting 6 streets for building counts/ numbering of the buildings and household from the selected streets.

Phase 3 Selection of household to be studied from the selected streets.

Phase 4 selections of household respondents using simple random sampling.

The Taro Yamane's formula for finite population was used to determine the sample size from the population of households to be studied. This gave a sample size of two hundred and seventy four respondents. The formula is given thus:

$$n = \frac{N}{1+N(e)^2}$$

Where, n = the sample size; N = the finite population; e = level of significance (0.05 limit of tolerance error); 1 = unity (a constant)

Table 1: Sampling Information on Studied Households

Name of street	Total No. of Buildings	No. of Households Listed	Sample Size
Hospital Road	103	175	64
Poly Road	38	65	39
Prince Igbara	44	75	43
Faith Way	28	53	35
Kaani Road	55	94	48
Court Road	48	82	45
Total		544	274

Using the Taro Yamane Formula @ 10% Level of Precision

4.0 Results and Discussion of Findings

The findings of this research work are presented below in figures and tables for easy communication and interpretation. The questionnaire used a 5-point Likert scale to measure the functionality, efficiency and adequacy of the facilities in these locations; the rating on the scale is as follows:

1 = Strongly Disagree,

2 = Disagree,

3 = Neutral,

4 = Agree, and

5 = Strongly Agree

Thereafter, descriptive statistics tool were used to analysed the data in order to determine the Weighted mean (WM) score for various locations.

4.1 Identification of infrastructure in the locations

The researcher sought to identify the type of infrastructure available in the study area. Respondents were required to express their opinion regarding the type of infrastructural facilities in Bori. Their responses are presented in Table 2 below. Table 2 shows that respondents agree

that all the listed items of Infrastructure School, Road, Drainage, Water supply, Parking space and Security are available in Bori with a mean score of above 3.00.

Table 2: Infrastructure in the Locations

Available infrastructure	5	4	3	2	1	Sum	Mean	Decision
School	160	71	43	0	0	1,213	4.43	Agree
Road	157	70	20	11	16	1,163	4.24	Agree
Drainage	138	67	47	13	09	1,134	4.14	Agree
Water supply	80	74	67	40	13	990	3.61	Agree
Parking space	60	80	70	22	42	916	3.34	Agree
Security	53	65	80	24	20	833	3.04	Agree

Legend: <3.00 = Inadequate >3.00 = Adequate

Source: Field Survey, 2019

4.2 Availability and functionality of facilities

The researcher sought to determine the level of availability and functionality of the identified infrastructure in the selected streets in Bori. Respondents' household were required to rate identified facilities in their neighbourhood whether they were available and functional. Responses of the respondents' household are shown in table 3 below:

Table 3: Availability and Functionality of Facilities

Option	5	4	3	2	1	N	SUM	MEAN
Road								
Hospital Road	37	20	5	2	0	64	277	4.33
Poly Road	12	22	5	0	0	39	163	4.18
Prince Igbara	21	18	4	0	0	43	189	4.40
Faith Way	7	6	12	9	2	36	115	3.19
Kaani Road	0	0	9	18	21	48	84	1.75
Court Road	20	12	7	9	0	45	187	4.16
Drainage								
Hospital Road	12	29	16	4	3	64	235	3.67
Poly Road	13	25	1	0	0	39	168	4.31
Prince Igbara	5	10	19	9	0	43	140	3.26
Faith Way	0	0	20	10	6	36	86	2.39
Kaani Road	0	0	18	12	18	48	96	2.00
Court Road	15	12	12	5	0	45	169	3.76
Security								
Hospital Road	16	13	20	10	5	64	217	3.39
Poly Road	12	8	19	0	0	39	149	3.82
Prince Igbara	14	22	7	0	0	43	179	4.16
Faith Way	14	10	10	2	0	36	144	4.00
Kaani Road	0	0	14	22	12	48	98	2.04
Court Road	0	0	26	13	9	45	113	2.51
Water Supply								
Hospital Road	2	10	34	11	7	64	181	2.83

Poly Road	5	22	5	7	0	39	137	3.51
Prince Igbara	0	10	16	17	0	43	122	2.84
Faith Way	20	8	3	5	0	36	146	4.05
Kaani Road	0	0	0	8	40	48	56	1.17
Court Road	4	6	12	10	16	45	116	2.58
School								
Hospital Road	20	22	5	17	0	64	237	3.70
Poly Road	20	18	1	0	0	39	175	4.49
Prince Igbara	15	19	9	0	0	43	178	4.14
Faith Way	22	10	6	0	0	36	4.38	4.39
Kaani Road	0	0	15	19	14	48	97	2.02
Court Road	3	5	16	14	10	45	121	2.69
Parking Space								
Hospital Road	18	22	8	10	6	64	228	3.56
Poly Road	0	6	10	16	7	39	93	2.38
Prince Igbara	2	7	12	14	8	43	110	2.59
Faith Way	25	6	4	0	0	36	161	4.47
Kaani Road	0	3	13	20	12	48	103	2.14
Court Road	1	3	20	15	7	45	100	2.22

Legend: <3.00 = Inadequate >3.00 = Adequate

Source: Field Survey, 2019

4.21 Availability and Functionality of Road Infrastructure

The results on road infrastructure shows that Prince Igbara street was ranked highest with a mean score of 4.40, followed by Hospital road with mean score of 4.33, Poly Road and Court Road came third and fourth respectively with a mean score of 4.18 and 4.16 respectively, while faith way came a distant fifth with a mean score of 3.19, while Kanni road came last with a mean score of 1.75. Respondents' responses in Prince igbara street, Hospital road, Poly road, Court road and Faith-way confirm the availability and functionality of road infrastructure in these streets while those in Kaani Road confirm that road infrastructure provision are inadequate.

4.22 Availability and Functionality of Drainage Infrastructure

On the availability and functionality of drainage infrastructure in the selected streets. The findings in Table 3 above reveal Drainage infrastructure are available and functional in Poly road, Court road, Hospital road, and Prince Igbara street. The results reveal that poly road enjoys a better drainage with a mean score of 4.31 than all. This is followed by court road with a mean score of 3.76, while hospital road and prince igbara with a mean score of 3.67 and 3.26 came third and fourth respectively. With a mean score of 2.39 and 2.00 for faith-way and kaani road respectively, the result indicated that the drainage conditions in these streets are poor.

4.23 Availability and Functionality of Security

When respondents were asked to state their opinion on the availability and functionality of security in the six selected streets, the responses indicate that respondents in prince igbara and faith way rated the security of their neighbourhoods as functional with a mean score of 4.16 and 4.00 respectively, followed by residents in poly road with a mean score of 3.82 and hospital road with a mean score of 3.39 while those in Court road and Kaani road with a mean score of 2.51 and 2.04 shows that there is a breakdown of security apparatus.

4.24 Availability and Functionality of Water Supply

On availability and functionality of water supply, the results reveal that residents in faith way rated water supply in the neighbourhood very high with a mean score of 4.05, followed by residents in poly road with a mean score of 3.51. The study reveal that the landlords provide alternative source of water in their builders to make subscribers who are mainly students comfortable by sinking boreholes as a result of government inability to do so. Responses of the residents of Prince igbara, Faith way, Kaani road, Court road and hospital road with a mean score of less than 3.00 shows that water supply in the neighbourhood are inadequate and not functional. Our investigation reveals that most of the buildings had no supply of water and the resident had to walk a distance to buy.

4.25 Availability and Functionality of Schools

On availability and functionality of school, the study indicated that Poly road with a mean score of 4.49, faith way with a mean score of 4.39, and Prince Igbara with a mean of 4.14 all enjoys the availability of schools. The study revealed that these streets enjoys close proximity a tertiary institution – Ken Saro-wiwa Polytechnic and several public and private secondary schools. Hospital road, Kaani Road, Court Road that are far from the Ken Saro-wiwa polytechnic were rated very low.

4.26 Availability and Functionality of Parking Space

Finally, the result on the availability and functionality of parking space were found to be adequate particularly in faith way with a mean score of 4.47. Findings indicate that this settlement is an entirely new. This was followed by hospital road with a mean score of 3.56. However, with a mean of 2.59 for prince igbara, 2.38 for poly road, 2.69 for court road and 2.02 for kaani road, the findings confirm the inadequacy of parking space.

The results in table 3 above were averaged to get the average weighted mean score of the respective infrastructure in the different streets. The average weighted mean is indicated in table 4 below.

Table 4: Average Weighted Mean of Locational Facilities

Name of Street	Road	Drainage	Security	Water Supply	School	Parking Space	AWM
Hospital road	4.33	3.67	3.39	2.83	3.70	3.56	3.58
Poly road	4.18	4.31	3.82	3.51	4.49	2.38	3.78
Prince igbara	4.40	3.26	4.16	2.84	4.14	2.59	3.57
Faith way	3.19	2.39	4.00	4.05	4.39	4.47	3.75
Kaani road	1.75	2.00	2.04	1.17	2.02	2.14	1.85
Court road	4.16	3.76	2.51	2.58	2.69	2.22	2.99

Legend: <3.00 = Inadequate >3.00 = Adequate

Source: Field Survey, 2019

The results in table 4 above indicate the weighted average mean of the scores of the various locational infrastructures in six selected streets. The result shows that Poly road has the highest level of infrastructural facilities with an average weighted mean score of 3.78, followed by Faith way with an average mean score of 3.75, then Hospital road with 3.58 average mean score and Prince igbara with 3.57. Court road and Kaani road were lowest with an average mean score of 2.99 and 1.85 respectively. This confirms that there is a variation in the various items of infrastructure in the selected streets.

4.3 Rental Trends and Mean of the Various Locations

Trends in rental values of single room residential properties in the various streets gathered over a period of five years from 2015 to 2019 were collated and used in the study to analyse variation. Table below presents the results.

Table 5: Rental Trends from 2015 to 2019

Name of Street	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Average
Hospital road	50,000	55,000	55,000	60,000	60,000	56,000
Poly road	45,000	45,000	50,000	50,000	50,000	48000
Prince igbara	45,000	50,000	50,000	60,000	65,000	54000
Faith way	45,000	45,000	45,000	50,000	50,000	47000
Kaani road	28,000	38,000	30,000	30,000	40,000	31000
Court road	30,000	35,000	35,000	40,000	36,000	36000

Source: Field Survey, 2019

The results indicate that there is a variation in the average rental values. As indicated in table 5 above, one can see that residential property values are higher in hospital road is worth an average rent of N56,000, Poly road N48000, Prince Igbara street N54000, Faith way N47000, while, those in Kaani road and Court road is worth N31000 and N36000 respectively. An objective evaluation of these findings referenced in table 3 and 4 confirm that infrastructural provisions are more available and functional in Hospital road, Poly road, Prince Igbara street, and Faith way as compared to inadequate and non-functional infrastructural provisions established in Kaani road, and Court road and therefore confirms to the study circumstance that the above identified infrastructures are indispensable and contributes to the increasing rental value of the residential property types in Hospital road, Poly road, Prince Igbara street, Faith way than as experienced in Kaani road, and Court road.

4.4 Correlation of the Infrastructures and Rental Values in Selected Streets

The study sought to determine whether there is a statistically significant relationship between the Infrastructures and rental values in selected streets of Bori. The average weighted mean (AWM) scores of the locational facilities and the average mean (AM) scores of rental values of the selected streets in Bori were extracted and tabulated in table 6

Table 6: Average Scores of Infrastructural Facility and Rental Values

Name of Street	Average Weighted Mean of Facility Scores	Average Mean of Rental Values
Hospital road	3.58	56,000
Poly road	3.78	54000
Prince igbara	3.57	48000
Faith way	3.75	47000
Kaani road	1.85	31000
Court road	2.99	36000

Source: Field Survey, 2019

Table 6 above shows the average mean score and average rental values of the selected streets in Bori. The results indicate that there is a variation in the average rental values and average facility scores of the selected streets. The relationship between the average rental value and average mean score can best be demonstrated statistically. This was tested using Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient at 95% confidence level and findings presented in Table 6 below:

Table 7. Pearson's Correlation Analysis

Variables	X	X ²	XY	r-cal
	Y	Y ²		
Infrastructure (X)	19.52	16.27	917,200	0.914
Rental Value (Y)	272,000	12,822,000,000		

**Correlation is significant at 0.05 levels (2- tailed)

*Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)

The findings in Table 6 indicate a r-value of 0.914 which shows a positive relationship between the average scores of infrastructural facilities and average rental values. To check for the validity and reliability of the relationship of the effect of infrastructure on rental value, a test for significance was carried out using the T-test. The T-test result shows that at 0.05 of significance, $t(\text{cal})=3.88$, while the $t(\text{tab})=2.78$. The decision criterion is that the null hypothesis should be rejected, if the t-calculated value is greater than its critical value, otherwise it should be accepted. Since the calculated value ($t\text{-cal}=3.88$) is greater than the critical value ($t\text{-tab}=2.78$) at 0.05 level of significance, we reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there is statistically significant relationship between infrastructural provision and rental value in Bori. This findings is in agreement with similary findings by Odudu (2003), observed that rental values tended to peak in those locations that enjoyed one form of infrastructure or the other. It also conform to the findings of Johnson, Davies and Shapiro (2005) that the presence of infrastructure often leads to appreciation in property values while its absence affects neighbourhood properties adversely.

5.0 Conclusion

The study has examined the various infrastructural facilities available in the study location, their functionality and the rent commanded by residential property. It found out that locations like Hospital road, Poly road, Prince Igbara street and faithway enjoy more infrastructure than court road and kaani road. Average rental values of residential properties in Hospital road, Poly road, Prince Igbara and Faithway were all above N45,000 while those in court road and Kaani road that did not enjoy more infrastructure are below N35,000. The findings of the hypothesis revealed that there exist a significant relationship between locational infrastructure and residential rental values in Bori. The positivity of the r-value here means that where infrastructure is functional in a location, the rental value increases. Hence the null hypotheses formulated were rejected. The study recommends that infrastructural facilities be provided in locations with fewer infrastructures to improve value and encourage movement of people into these locations as an alternative to over-crowding locations with functional infrastructure.

Referencing

- Ajibola, M.O., Awodiran, O.O. and Salu-Kosoko.O. (2013). Effects of Infrastructure on Property Values in Unity Estate, Lagos, Nigeria. *International Journal of Economy, Management and Social Sciences*, 2(5), 195-201.
- Ankeli, A.I, Dabara, D.I, Oyeleke O. O, Guyimu, J and Oladimeji, E.J (2015b). Housing Condition and Residential Property Rental Values in Ede Nigeria. *International Journal of Arts & Sciences*, 8(1), 53–61
- Ankeli A. I, Dabara D.I, Gambo, M. D and Lawal K. O(2016) Residential Housing Rental Values And Infrastructural Development In Osogbo, Nigeria. *Conference of the International Journal of Arts & Sciences*, 9(1), 29–40
- Babarinde, J. A. (1998), Analysis of Industrial Relocation in Relation to Housing and Infrastructural Services in Metropolitan Lagos. *The Lagos Journal of Environmental Studies*, 1 (1), 97-108.
- Bello, I. K, Adeniji, W and Arowosegbe, O. S (2013): The effects of urban infrastructural development on property value. *Merit Research Journal of Art, Social Science and Humanities*, 3(3), 35-40.
- Burgess, E. W. (1925). *The Growth of the City* in Park, R. E. et al. The City: University of Chicago Press.
- Famuyiwa, F., and Otegbulu, A. C. (2012). Public water infrastructure in property prices: an environmental valuation approach. *Elixir Infrastructure Management Journal*, 51, 11034-038.
- Fulmer, J. (2009). What in the world is infrastructure. *PEI Infrastructure investor*, 1(4), 30-32.
- Ibrahim, T. A (2013) .The impact of location on property values and business development in Ilorin Metropolis, Nigeria *International Journal of Current Research*. 5,(10), 2735-2738,
- Ihuah, P.W. and Benebo, A. M. (2014), An Assessment of the Causes and Effects of Abandonment of Development Projects on Property Value in Nigeria, *International Journal of Research in Applied, Natural and Social Sciences*, 2(5), 25-36
- Ihuah, P W, Ekenta, C and Nwokorie, B.(2014). Impacts Of Inadequate Infrastructures Provision On Real Property Value: A Comparative Study Of Agbama And Ehimiri Housing Estate, Umuahia, Nigeria. *International Journal of Environment, Ecology, Family and Urban Studies (IJEEFUS)* , 4,(4), 9-20
- Johnson, T., Davies, K. and Shapiro, E. (2005) . *Modern Methods of Valuation of Land, Houses and Buildings*. , London: Estate Gazette.
- Keeble, L. (1969), *Principles and Practice of Town Planning* London : Estate Gazette Limited.
- Kiel, K. A., and Zabel, J. E. (2008). Location, location, location: The 3L Approach to house price determination. *Journal of Housing Economics*, 17(2), 175-190.
- Nubi, T.O (2003). ‘Procuring, Managing and Financing Urban Infrastructure: Towards an Integrated Approach’ Land Management and Property Tax Reform in Nigeria, In `Omirin et al. (ed.) Department of Estate Management, University of Lagos, Akoka.
- Nwuba, C.C and Salawu, B.M (2010): Planned and integrated approach to maintenance of urban infrastructure in Nigeria. *Environ-Tech, Journal of the College of Environmental Studies, Kaduna Polytechnic, Kaduna, Nigeria*, 1(1), 1-19.

- Odudu, C. (2003). Significance of Infrastructure in Determining Land and Rental Values in an Urban Area-The Case of Lagos Metropolis. Land Management and Property Tax Reform in Nigeria- Proceedings of a National Workshop organized by the Department of Estate Management, University of Lagos, Nigeria.
- Olajide, O. (2010). *Urban poverty and environmental conditions in informal settlements of Ajegunle, Lagos Nigeria*. Retrieved from: <https://www.programm.corp.at/cdrom2010/papers 2010 /CORP2 010 148.pdf>
- Oni, A.O. (2007). A Study of the Accessibility and Connectivity of Ikeja Arterial Roads, *Journal of Land Use and Development Studies*. 3(1), 108-122
- Patunola-Ajayi, B.J (2013): Infrastructure Development and Economic Empowerment. A paper presented at the 43rd Annual Conference held in Benin, Edo. 12th – 16th March
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P., and Thornhill, A. (2009), *Research Methods for Business Students*, Fourth Edition. Essex: Person Education Limited.
- Udoka, I.S. (2013). The Imperatives of the Provision of Infrastructure and Improved Property Values in Nigeria. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 4(15), 21-33.
- The Longman online dictionary. (2014). Retrieved from: <http://www.ldoceonline.com/spellcheck/?q=%ednfrastucture>
- United Nations (2002), A United Nations Report on Human Settlement: The Changing Shelter Policies in Nigeria,, Retrieved from: www.un-habitat.org.

Colonialism and the Changing Role of Women in Ogoni, Rivers State, 1900-1960

N-UE, Uebari Samuel, Ph.D¹ and AWORTU, Beatrice E. Ph.D²

¹Department of History and Diplomatic Studies, IGNATIUS Ajuru University of Education
Rumuolumeni, Port Harcourt | Tel: +2348037465667 | Email: samueluebari4real@yahoo.com

²Department of History and Diplomatic Studies, Ignatius Ajuru University of Education
Rumuolumeni, Port Harcourt | Tel: +2347037142281 | Email: bawortu@yahoo.com

Abstract: Colonial rule bequeathed profound and indelible legacies to Africa and its peoples, its short period in the long eventful history of Africa notwithstanding. Evidently, its impact varies between gender and from theme to theme in the economic, political, socio-cultural and religious perspectives. This paper, using the experience of Ogoni women of River State, Niger Delta Region, examined and highlighted the changing roles of women during colonial era. Adopting the multi-disciplinary method, the work incisively investigated the two sides of the coin and discovered that the colonial enterprise had more far-reaching effect on the women folk than their male counterparts. The paper has shown that with the adoption of the so-called British concept of “England Victorian”, African women were reduced to the rank of house wives. Women during the colonial period were excluded from the most important segments of the colonial civil service. As a result, they were forced to adjust to the dictates of the new rulers. The paper maintained that, more than any other plausible factors, the colonial situation is responsible for the discrimination African women are facing in the post-colonial Africa. The paper, therefore, suggested that concerted efforts should be made government to give them a pride of place in the society and this project must be supported by men to enhance gender equity.

Key words: Colonialism, Discrimination, Domination, Gender, Women

© 2020. N-UE, Uebari Samuel and AWORTU, Beatrice. E. This is a research/review paper, distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-Noncommercial 4.0 Unported License <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0>, permitting all non-commercial use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Introduction

For sub-Saharan Africa, the European episode had far-reaching implications for the course of African historical development, despite its relatively short duration in the annals of the prolonged eventful history of Africa. As Boahen (1985, p. 806) averred “though colonialism was a short interlude, it nevertheless was of great significance for Africa and left an indelible impression on Africa”. Ostensibly, the real impact of colonialism on Africa and its peoples has thrown up a hotly contested academic debate among scholars, both Afrocentric and Eurocentric writers, to the extent that opinion is sharply divided on how to assess the trajectory of colonialism. It has been

contested by the colonial apologists and their supporters that colonialism was in many ways beneficial to Africa. The African and Africanist school of thought represented by the liberal-nationalist, Dependency, Marxist and Neo-Marxist, Development and Anti-development paradigms vehemently argue that Africa and its peoples hardly gain any tangible thing from colonialism, noting that what they achieved from the European contact were underdevelopment, backwardness, oppression, domination, exploitation, and unequal relationships to mention but a few. Quoting Arundhati Roy, Ebine (2012,p. 796) summed up the debate on the pros and cons of colonialism to “debating the pros and cons of rape”.

What is of utmost interest here is the divergent opinions expressed by scholars and commentators on the positive or negative foot prints of colonialism on the roles, contributions and status of African women, “lasting as it did no more than eighty years anywhere” (Boahen, 1985,p. 809) in the black continent of Africa. For instance, an ideological camp profusely protests that the impact of colonialism on women was that of discrimination, oppression, marginalization, inequality and male-dominance, stressing that African women were excluded from all important political and administrative structures and from the capitalist-oriented economy based on the European model. Another school of thought contends that even though not deliberately planned, European alien administration bequeathed varied transformative legacies to the women in the political, economic, and socio-cultural spheres. For example, African women, who were enslaved and made docile by their people’s traditions, customs, beliefs and philosophy, were liberated by the colonial forces of change to protest against colonial economic, political and administrative policies during the colonial dispensation. The Niger Delta Women War of 1929 is a classic and vivid example.

Clearly, colonialism and its concept of “England Victorian” profoundly affected and phenomenally altered the status, contributions and role of women in diverse ways, forcing them to adjust to the dictate of the new dispensation. Ikpe (1997,p. 258) elaborated that “colonialism was an agent of change. It was not only a system of government but also a way of life. Thus, colonial policies and the colonial situation affected the lives of women tremendously”. Against this backdrop and using the Ogoni women of Rivers State, Niger Delta Region as example, this paper highlights and examines the changing roles of women during the colonial period, noting its positive and negative effects.

The Ogoni were one of distinct earliest inhabitants of the present day Niger Delta Region and the South-South Geo-political Zone (Loolo, 1981). The Ogoni is defined territorially as encompassing over 500 square miles in the mainland fringe bordering the Eastern Niger Delta. The Ogoni occupy the stretch of land running east and west of the Imo River sandwiched by Opobo and Rumukrushe, approximately eleven miles north of Port Harcourt (Holland, 1947). The territory is bound to the north by the IgboidNdoki, the South by the Bonny Opobo, Nkoro and Obolo (Andoni); the Annang/Ibibio to the east and the Garden city of Port Harcourt and the Ikwerre to the west. Ogoni is made up of six main clans, namely, Babbe, Nyo-Khana, Ken-Khana, Gokana, Tai and Eleme. Bori is considered to be the traditional headquarters of the Ogoni people (Igbara, 2009; Kpone-Tonwe, 2003; Igbara & Keenam, 2013).

Presently, the area is politically and administratively divided into four Local Government Areas. They are Khana, Tai, Gokana and Eleme. Noted for its super socio-political and military organizations, Saro-Wiwa (2012,p. 72) aptly declared Ogoni before the advent of British Colonialism,as” a very orderly society”. Like other African societies, Ogoni was violently incorporated into the British colonial empire. Having conquered them, they were lumped together with Opobo, Nkoro Andoni and Southern Ibibio to form the Opobo Division and

administered as part of Calabar Province, Eastern Nigeria (Naanen & N-ue, 2016). It follows, therefore, that the advent of colonialism had several and serious repercussions on the people especially the female folk and their endogamous systems.

Colonialism and Ogoni Women

Extrapolating from the foregoing, there is no doubt that the colonial enterprise left a deluge of legacies on the continent of Africa and its people. Women have their own share of the negative or positive impact of the colonial situation as evident in the status of women, system of inheritance, economy, dress and body beautification, sex and marriage, fattening custom, education, politics, indigenous medicine and healthcare and so on.

i. Colonialism and Matriarchy

The Ogoni of the Eastern Niger Delta Mainland, prior to the contact with the colonial system, reckoned their kinship (*gah*) or descent (*manamana*) along the female ancestry (Kpone-Tonwe, 1990; 2003a). This custom, which probably was rooted in the people's feminist cosmological and philosophical concepts of the Supreme Being called KAWA BARI or WABARI (mother god) believed to be the creator of the entire universe, conferred Supreme authority on women and also transferred it from one woman to another. This is called matrilineal succession (Kpone-Tonwe, 2003a; 2003b). To underlie the cultural significance of the matrilineal system, totemism or affinities-the belief in the animal affinity with the human affiliate-was attributed to the each Kinship (*Buaka, Faka, or Buawuga*). "Maternal groups (*Buaka*) made shrines for their animal representations which was usually in a room kept and guided by the eldest man or woman of the maternal group. This shrine was called *Siku-ue*" (Anokari, 1986,p. 87). The belief in totems by each lineage brought unity, harmony and cordiality in the kinship system. To Anokari (1986,p. 87) "it made the people to regard each other as one; and guided their dealings with each other". Loolo (1981,p. 31) buttressed that "Affinities however, are matrilineal, that is, children belong to the affinities of their mother and not their father. For instance, while my father's "were" beast is a python, my own is tiger like my mother's. My children's were-beast will be same as that of their mother". Kpone-Tonwe (2003b,pp.281-282) threw interesting light on the importance of matrilineal descent among the Ogoni:

There is a consensus that a person was better protected and more secure in his maternal home than among his paternal kins. For this reason, children were often sent to their maternal grandparents for care and protection rather than to their paternal ones. They believed that the matrilineage was the line of blood; and security in the matrilineage. This belief was even stronger in spiritual matters. For example, during the rite of *Yaanwii*, which was performed by a man of means and distinction, one of the sacred acts which he had to perform before he could be given the title of *Kabari* (chief), was to make a holy pilgrimage to his great grandmother's home, called *NamaKaama* (Ancient matrilineage) and be subjected to a holy bath (baptism), which was a complete spiritual cleansing, performed by the eldest woman or the priestess of that house. This baptism was supposed to give him his greatest spiritual insulation against external and negative forces and endowed him with wisdom and a sense of rectitude which, was the basis of proper behaviour and actions in the natural world.

Understandably, the ideology and practice of matrilineal system survived for a long time in Ogoni up to the dawn of the twentieth century because of their minimal participation in the Trans-Atlantic trade which was system and its paraphernalia led to the natural death of the matrilineal succession. Generally, Zeleza (1994,p. 11) noted that “with the colonial conquest, African women fell from the grace of egalitarianism into patriarchal clutches of imperialist”. Similarly, Alagoa (2003,p. 40) insisted that the imposition of colonial rule from the close of the nineteenth century brought the matrilineal system into conflict with the patrilineal principles favoured by the new rulers”. Matriarchy had declined and disappeared from the African cultural lexicon and replaced with the European culture of patriarchy, the notion of male dominance.

ii. Colonialism and System of Inheritance

The Ogoni culturally permitted women especially the first daughter (*Sira*) and wives to maximally benefit from the estates of their parents or husbands. Those things willed and distributed to wife (wives) or daughters included property like money, cloths, household utensils, domestic livestock, farming implements, farm lands, plantain plantation, and economic trees and so on. The brothers of the wife controlled groves like raffia palm and oil palm bushes. They only inherited them when they had come of age and must have been culturally tutored the ethos and culture of the people by the maternal uncles. The male including the first son (*Saaro*) got no share of his mother’s wealth and father’s estate.

The colonial enterprise upturned the Ogoni traditional system of inheritance which favoured the female. The alien rulers imposed their most cherished patriarchal system on the people and this gave birth to an entirely new mode of inheritance which transferred the right of inheritance to the first born son (*Saaro*). For the son to have creditably and successfully given his father a befitting burial rites (*Si-ma ge*), he became the major beneficiary of this late father’s estate. Kpone-Tonwe (2003a,pp. 15-16) informed that “at the death of (such) a man, his first born son (*Saaro*) succeeded him as heard of the House, and he inherited the bulk of his father’s wealth. Part of this wealth has however, distributed among the first-sons of other wives”. They are often regarded as one House (*nutor*) of the man dead or alive. They are accorded the rations of favoured family in which no relatives dare contest. The fact is that the new rulers had replaced matriarchy (*Buaka*) with patriarchy (*Gah*), transferring the line of leadership succession from the female to the male. Hence, the decline in the prestige and status hitherto exercised by the female folk in Ogoni traditional setting.

iii. Colonial Rule and Endogamous Marriage System

Endogamy is a social rule requesting a member of a social group not to marry outside his/her culture group. In pre-colonial days, the Ogoni practised matrilineal endogamous or virilocal marriage system. Their ancestors, therefore, prohibited “any inter-marriage except with the Ibibio” (Gibbons, 1932,p. 9) perhaps to maintain their purity and creativity as an agrarian society accustomed to their age-long cherished land surrounded by several rituals and taboos (Gbenenye & Kpone-Tonwe, 2009; N-ue, 2018). Saro-Wiwa (2012,p. 72) further explained that:

The law passed by our ancestors forbidding intermarriage with our neighbours with the exception of Ibibio, whose women Ogoni men were permitted to marry. This served to preserve the purity of the Ogoni, to preserve their language and culture and to stop their absorption or dilution by any of the neighbouring larger groups.

The intensive intergroup marriage contacts accounted for the exclusive preservation of both cultures which were most similar in many ways and the production of effective labour force. There are majority of Ibibio women today in Ogoni and *vice versa*. The Ogoni society was not the only polity in the pre-colonial times that hesitated in giving their daughters out to their neighbours for marriage. An outstanding ethnic group in the Middle Belt Region of Nigeria was the Tiv. Fearing that the Udam's (Tiv's Cross River neighbours) practice of female circumcision could result to the death of their daughter in the process, the Tiv declined them to be their in-laws. To the Alago Tiv's northern neighbours, the Tiv loathed their seeming lack of interest for farm work. But the Tiv men usually married their Women (Apenda, 2006).

The people's interactions with colonial rule with its praxis dramatically altered the Ogoni ideas concerning these beliefs and cultural practices. The infiltration of western values: Christianity, education, urbanization, *Pax Britannica*, and so on highly influenced their world view and made them to change from matrilineal endogamous marriage system to patrilineal exogamous marriage system. Exogamy, which is the opposite of endogamy, permits an adult of a given community to marry any person of her choice outside her cultural, political, religious and regional environment. This emancipation offered by the colonial system enabled Ogoni women to choose and marry the men of her dream through "marriage de conveyance". The marriage freedom could explain the presence of Ogoni women in most of their neighbouring communities and beyond today.

iv. **Colonial Episode and Sex and Taboos**

In pre-colonial period, the Ogoni fashioned out customary laws and taboos sanctioned by the gods and deities to regulate the conduct and behaviour of their children. This was premised on the stoic philosophy that children were the pride of the family, expected to take in the stead of their parents and bury them when they breathed their last. For those reasons and many others, mating, incest, pre-fattening pregnancy was controlled through the promulgation of taboos against pre-marital sex, incest and adultery to protect and safeguard the marriage institution. Rules against adultery were established because marriage in the cosmological world view of the Ogoni was an everlasting union. The bride wealth paid by the husband on his wife to cement the marriage bond must be justified. Again, it was meant to enhance social control as most husbands who were easily provoked by his immoral act committed murder, assault, invocation of "Juju" and acts like poisoning and charming of culprits.

The Ogoni seriously frowned at pre-marital or pre-fattening pregnancy of their females. Parents, therefore, jealously guarded the virginity of their daughters to take the glory of bringing up their girls in a culturally acceptable manner. The cry or scream of defilement emanating from every newly married woman in the area was a thing of joy and pride to her parents while those who had pre-marital sex and their parents were ridiculed and castigated in songs, jokes and drama throughout their live times and thereafter.

With the influence of western civilization, these customs are virtually non-existent; indigenous customs controlling indiscriminate sex had been flagrantly violated and perniciously rejected. Pre-marital sex is the hallmark of any relationship today. It is argued that sex-before-marriage assist them to select their future spouse because they are physically and sexually compatible. Modern technologies like Mobile Phones, Internet Communication Technologies (ICT), social media communication platforms and network sites like Facebook, WhatsApp, Instagram, twitter, Snapchat, You Tube, Telegram, Imo and so on greatly facilitate the spread of messages, images/photographs, videos and other information and interconnect young people across the globe. The advent of modern medical science like contraceptives for preventing

pregnancy and committing abortion contribute to the meteoric increase in pre-marital sex, adultery and promiscuity among both the married and unmarried of this present generation. These seem to be the acceptable way of life today.

v. **Colonialism and Body Beautification**

Prior to the colonial encounter, Ogoni women like other women in Africa improved on their natural beauty, prestige, privilege, ego, and marriage chances, using different devices based on the Indigenous Knowledge of their complex environment. These included but not limited to skin smoothing and toning, body painting, tattooing, cicatrizing, face marks and tooth sharpening. Specialized local artists used locally sourced materials like camwood (*doh*), native chalk (*nem*), oil palm (*noo*), and palm kernel oil (*noo-ip*) to make the skin smooth; free of spots and rashes. The local pomade also stopped itching of the body. Women traditionally adorned their body through the method of cicatrization (*Boodua* or *Biogo*) and tattooing (*Kuanki*) so as to attract prospective and promising suitors or lovers. The body decorations were of varying impressive designs and motifs. Tooth sharpening was adopted to depict a new status and add to their natural beauty. It was also fashionable for women to adopt different hair styles to promote their look. The young girls chose the moderate plaiting pattern with thread or low cut. The maidens and adults usually preferred the Afro, long hair do, and the curly hair style to reflect their class and status. However, special style of hair was made for ceremonies like dance, ritual, outing-dance, etc.

Most of these indigenous beautification techniques were abandoned while some are blended with the traditional styles due to European culture. The colonial enterprise made possible the importation of European exotic goods like bathing soaps, bleaching creams, and cosmetics which flooded the Ogoni markets. Most women adopted make-ups, body painting and decorations of their fingers, toes, eyes, lips and so on after the western model. Women have departed remarkably from the traditional hairstyles to hairdo characteristic of the west. It is common phenomenon today that women dye, perm and fix their hair. Most of them paraded themselves, in fake or artificial apparels in the form of shoulder pad, buttocks, hair, make-ups, breast brazier, finger nails, and etc. What must be stressed is that the traditional beautification devices has not been completely eradicated. Most Ogoni women still go on plaiting, low cut, application of local camwood and native chalk and make-up of the olden days.

vi. **Colonial Enterprise and Fattening**

Another women custom in Ogoni that has declined seriously consequent upon the colonial contact is the compulsory coming of age initiation rite variously called *Koo*, *Bogo-noo* and *Nwakinakoo* in both Tai and Khana dialects, *Bore* in Gokana and *Torchulu* in Eleme dialects respectively. The young girls between 10 and 15 years were confined and secluded from public glare in a room for almost three months. During this period of confinement, they were exempted from any manual work but to be well fed in order to look with a man. It was the duty of experts to anoint the bodies of the initiates with camwood, painted with indigo and rubbed with oil palm daily.

For them to be fully initiated into certain mysteries of womanhood, a kind of informal educational workshop was organized for them. The best female brains in critical areas were usually summoned to prime the girl for married life. Thus, they were taught how to cook, sow, hair-plaiting, craft works, elementary science, dances, history and culture of their people. At the conclusion of the training, they were paraded around the community, visiting important ancestral places like markets, shrines, etc. after that, they all gathered at the town square (*EetehBue*) where

they thrilled their suitors, admirers, visitors and the community as they danced to the rhythm of *gerepere* (Xylophone). During the process, gifts were presented to them and intending suitors choose their wives (Loolo, 1981; Abalubu, 2011; Igbara & Keenam, 2013; N-ue, 2018).

Colonial forces have relegated this fascinating fattening custom to the background. The educated elite of Ogoni who “admired European culture and went out of their way to identify with it” (Boahen, 1985,p. 803) refused to allow their daughters to undergo the traditional training. For Christianity, education and modern medical practices strived and are serving as vehicles of orientation, sensitization and knowledge. Awortu and N-ue (2018,p. 3) documented that Constance M’maneh Sira Saronwiyo, the first female graduate and foremost lecturer of Ogoni origin as well as the pioneer female commissioner of Old Rivers State “never went through the *Bogo-Koo* institution which prepared women of pre-martial age to be better future wives and mothers... due to the long period of seclusion attached to the initiation ceremony. To be sure, her mother’s preference for western civilization to *Bogo-Koo*” also ensured this. Like Constance, most “modern” Ogoni women do not participate in the initiation ritual. Except in few cases, the *Bogonoo* had died a natural death. No doubt, the once famous Ogoni feminine custom has been thrown overboard by modernity.

vii. **Colonial Rule and Western Education**

There was “training-on-the job” type of education in Ogoni before the inception of formal education. Ogoni, like other groups, imparted skills to the young members of their community through observation, imitation and training methods. The people were not completely without education. The need to raise subordinate administrative staff to power the day-to-day activities of the colonial government and missionaries in Ogoni mid-wifed church schools in the era. The schools especially Sunday school teach people how to read and write as well as interpret sermons. Apparently, these crops of men who received the “light of the new age” emerged as the precursors of western civilization in Ogoniland. At the onset, the acquisition of western style education was the exclusive right of the male. As at then, there was the preponderant belief that the training of a girl child was not a rewarding endeavour (N-ue, 2014). Quoting Saronwiyo (1989), Igbara (2009,p. 102) averred:

A number of actors were responsible for this attitude. First, for them (parents), it was great risk to expose their jewels to the open world. They were highly sceptical about this exposure. What was the guarantee that they would come back home safe and would not be defiled by men of the outside world? Also, it was considered a misplaced investment. To educate a female child, in their opinion was, to say the least, a huge financial waste. It was, therefore, an inconceivable idea as the girl would carry both her knowledge and family investment to someone else’s home, leaving her own family deprived. Where eventually she was reluctantly allowed to acquire education, it was made clear to her that she had chosen between marriage and education. There was no doubt that the situation was a favour of male children who would bring the benefits to the family.

The trend was later reversed when the missionaries opened the floodgate of formal primary education to the women folk for them to carry out the evolving economic, social, administrative

and religious roles in the new dispensation. By 1920, a significant number of Ogoni women had been trained as domestic servants by the missions. They had acquired special skills in sewing, cooking of inter-continental and local dishes, house chores and above all how to read the Bible, as well as sing hymns. Women also progressed beyond primary level to secondary school, elementary teachers training institutes, nursing and other tertiary institutions available at the time. These ones were those who gained employment in the colonial civil service as classroom teachers, nurses, clerks, secretaries, dispensers, etc.

Interestingly, these educated women returned home to educate their fellow women on the values of western education. This was done through adult and evening class (Igbara, 2009). As a point of fact, new skills and knowledge acquired through formal education highly sharpened the women's world view and liberated them from the clutches of harmful tradition, belief, custom, and practice. Kpone-Tonwe (2003b,p. 8) made the point when he said, "Western education change the norms of social stratification in Ogoniland. A certificate in western education became the means of social recognition and a passport to better life... the radio, the TV and the video cassettes have replaced the lectures, teachings and demonstrations by the elders. Gradually, the youths have been estranged from the local traditions and drawn away to the wider world of the cities. More and more parents have been persuaded to send their sons and daughters to school". Western education had actually brought transforming changes to Ogoni women. With the ever increasing number of Ogoni female graduates from educational institutions every year, Ogoni educated women are found in strategic employment and white collar jobs. Even in professions or occupations previously reserved for the male folk. Indeed, women were seen serving as lawyers, doctors, teachers/lecturers, judges, clergies and captains of industries.

It has to be stressed however, that the education provided by the missions was discriminatory. While the boys in Ogoni were trained outside the land particularly in Uyo in order to "man the local administration at the lowest ranks" (Walter, 2005,p. 293), the girls were taught entrepreneurial skills like needle work, baking crochet, how to cook and use sewing machines, as well as to read the Bible at boarding schools at home. This disparity in educations was deliberate as it was in tandem with the notion of the Victorian Concept of Womanhood designed to make women perpetual and perfect house wives. The discrimination meted out to women in political, and administrative structures and from the wage economy even with qualifications equivalent to their male counterparts is also worrisome. Post-colonial African leaders have blindly adopted this concept and excluded majority of African women from the development programmes, social and education policies and military institutions of their various states.

viii. Colonial Episode and Mothers of Twins

The custom of killing of twin babies and ostracisation of mothers of twin babies was common in all Ogoni communities. It was upheld that the birth of twin was a manipulation of evil forces and as such it was a sign of an impending disaster or punishment on the community. To forestall this, mothers of twins were banished and their twin babies thrown into the evil forest (*Kuetaa*) designated for that purpose. Also, the land priest conducted sacrifices to the spirits, goddesses or gods of the land as an appeasement and to avert another calamity. The mothers of twin and their babies were stigmatized, deprived of their fundamental human rights and debased. The practice did not spell out any punishment for the father of the twins. He was only expected not to have sexual intercourse with the wife or other mothers of twins because it would reduce the efficacy and potency of their charms.

During the colonial period, the missionaries and the colonial administrators in Ogoni

made frantic efforts to curtail the excesses of twin murder and ostracisation of their mothers. The missionaries provided shelter for them at their various mission premises in Ogoni. These kind gestures coupled with their preaching and teaching of equality and love made Christianity very attractive to the Ogoni people. One thing that should be noted is that the custom did not end with colonialism. Although the twins are no longer murdered today, they and their mothers are still quartered in different areas reserved for them in the community. Also, in most Ogoni communities, mothers of twins and their babies cannot emerge as community and opinion leaders, chiefs and elders. They can only exercise their human rights in the church alone. Women are still de-humanized, discriminated against and hunted in this 21st century.

ix. Colonialism and Economy

The Ogoni economy was well organized to address the needs for food, shelter and other material necessities. Traditionally, farming was their major occupation with yam cultivation as the main crop. By the Ogoni customs, women were assigned the duty of cultivating food crops like, cassava, vegetables, coco yams, three leaves yam, taro-yams. Yam cultivation was given to the male. However, women occupy important place in the traditional economy of the people as they complemented the role of the male folk. The arrival and involvement of the missionaries in the economic activities astronomically increased the pace of economic development in many significant ways. To stimulate the production of raw materials need for Christian Europe, the colonial government and Christian missions supported the cultivation of oil palm plantation. In pursuance of this goal, men were mostly favoured than women in the oil palm plantation scheme in Ogoni. The women were side lined in the teaching of new agricultural techniques and the distribution of seedlings to interested cultivators of oil palm trees. Only the male benefitted from the colonial economy in Ogoni. For example, the most enterprising Ogoni men emerged as private owners of oil palm plantations in the area. This is true of Rt. Hon. Paul N.T. Birabi who established oil palm scheme in Ban-Ogoi, Chief H.M. Dike of Okwali, and Michael Gwa in Botem-Tai (Ziinu, 1993). Women were excluded and neglected, yet, they bore the brunt of the oil palm processing. Through the indigenous technology known as *biaba*, Ogoni women pocked out the nuts and squeezed the oil from the pericarp with their bare hands. They also extracted kernel oil (*noo-ip*) from the oil palm (Gbenenye, 1988; Ziinu, 1993). Reflecting on the status of women in the colonial economy, Denzer (1988) as quoted by Abasiattai, (1991, pp.574-575) disclosed:

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.

Little wondered, therefore, that women in the former Easter Region sternly protested against the introduction of pioneer oil mills. In Ogoni oil mills, which were located at Gure, Bean, Nyokuru and Kaa, all in Khana Local Government Area, Nwenbiara in Gokana Local Government Area, Ban-Ogoi in today's Tai Local Government Area and Ebubu in present day Eleme Local

Government Area, were to extract the oil palm and crack the nuts. They contested that the advent of the mechanized process would further reduce their minimal role in the capitalist economy and deprive them of their source of income earning (Abasiattai, 1991).

Craft productions which were the preserve of some skilled crafts Ogoni women also depreciated both in value and in production during the colonial period and beyond. The major female cottage industries in Ogoni were pottery, mat weaving, basketry, and salt making, to mention but a few. The capitalist economy introduced by the colonial system made women to de-emphasise local industries and moved to cash-related activities that would guarantee the sufficient flow of money. Besides, the introduction of formal education provided better opportunities for gainful employment as workers than the tedious local industries. What is more, the products of the more technologically advanced Europe like ceramic, plates, spoons, metal pots, iron and plastic buckets and so on rendered the use of female locally made ones less attractive. The position of Derefaka (2002, p. 229) on ceramic industry is very relevant and instructive here:

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. Another contributory factor may have been the continued use of often hearth firing technique and the non-adopting of the potter's wheel in the formative process. With the emphasis on western education for girls and the availability of paid employment and easier economic ventures, daughters became reluctant, if not unwilling to learn the trade from their mothers and so the manufacture of ceramic products has virtually ceased in most communities..., which were famous for ceramics product in the past.

In all, Ogoni women who were excluded from the main stream of the colonial economy, suffered marginalization, deprivation and neglect more than their male counterparts who were afforded more privileged and advantageous positions.

x. British Colonial System and Politics and Administration

In Ogoni during the periods before European contact, women wielded exceptionally powerful influence as key players and leaders in the traditional political organization of their people. Like in ancient polities and states like Oyo, Benin, Kanem-Borno, Hausa, to mention but a few (Stride & Ifeka, 1991; Crowder, 1973; Isichei, 1983) Ogoni women occupied exalted position as political, military and religious leaders. Oral traditions of the people collected and recorded by Kpone-Tonwe (1990; 2003a; 2003b) indicated that Ogoni women in the past exercised enormous power and influence over the people in varying degrees and diverse ways. Kpone-Tonwe (2003a, p. 13) instructively noted that:

The first rule of Ogoni was a woman by name Kwaanwaa. After the death of Kwaanwaa at Gure, the succession did not pass to her son but to her first and only daughter, Za. After the death of Za, succession also passed to her own first daughter by name Bariyaayoo, who ruled at Luawii. After Bariyaayoo, the succession

went to another daughter, a great granddaughter of Za byname Gbeneyaana, whose seat of rulership was at Ka-Gwaara. The last of these royal ancestresses was Gbenebeka, who succeeded in the Ka-Gwaara stool in the sixteenth century.

Though it may be argued that this happened in a non-centralized polity and virtually small area, women were actually the power behind the throne and the real ruler of the people. In this present circumstance, men did not rule for women by proxy. These Ogoni communities operated true matriarchal system in which women held and wielded real power in all ramifications. Most of those extra-ordinary women added *Gbene* (literary meaning Great) prefix to their names like Gbenekwaanwaa, Gbeneneyaana, GbeneZah and Gbenebeka as mentioned above. More than the male-folk, some of these women had the mysteries of the gods and became goddesses of the communities as founder-heroines. Consequently, they were worshipped and deified.

The colonial situation, which consciously emphasized and encouraged gender-inequality, bred irritation, and anti-colonial feelings by Ogoni women. Ogoni women were not found worthy to become warrant chiefs, interpreters, “Key holders” to the Central Treasury at Bori, or to serve in the Native Authority Councils. Ogoni women, like elsewhere, suffered political relegation. In fact, they did not fare well in the new government. Collaborating this assertion, Denzer (1988) observed: “In politics women lost their former establishing new government and legal institutions. Women became invisible in the sense that their influence was overloaded and their opinions discounted” (quoted by Abasiattai, 1991, p. 572). Being worried by the burden of direct taxation and their tactical neglect in the colonial economic system, Ogoni women closed ranks with their Nkoro, Andoni, Bonny, and Southern Ibibio colleagues to wage “war” against the colonial authorities in December, 1929 at Egwanga. They categorically informed the government of the day and announced that there was “no more government” (N-ue, 2018, p. 245). The Niger Delta Women War of 1929 went down in recorded history as secondary resistance against British oppressive rule.

xi. **Colonial Rule and Indigenous Medicine and Health Care**

Sporadic outburst of deadly diseases and ill-health like malaria, leprosy, convulsion, small-pox epidemics, cerebra-spinal meningitis, the influenza epidemic, yaw and mental illness which were prevalent in Africa were treated successfully with herbal medicine and psychotherapies. Women indigenous practitioners, like herbal doctors, priests, the bone setters, the Traditional Birth Attendants (ABAs), chiropacts and Homeopaths, and the Acupunturists, blessed with the divine healing power of certain roots, herbs, leaves of plants, barks available in their ambient environment were involved in healing the sick and assist pregnant women to give births successfully.

Ogoni women (*pya dambie*) believed to have supernatural power and equipped with perfect workability of herbs used them to treat the bites of poisonous snakes, stings of bees, boost fertility rate in both male and female as well as cure impotency. They played important role in the traditional birth and maternity care of pregnant women. Those endowed with specialized skills either through apprenticeship or divine revelation served as midwives (*pya meneenwiiwa*). They took a great deal care of the pregnant women until they gave births, most of which were without complications. These midwives also taught and trained nursing mothers how to take good care of themselves and the new babies. They often revealed to nursing mothers herbs used for treating babies’ illness like fever, frequent stooling, measles, cold, and aches.

Having mastered these basic health care tips and practices, the nursing mother would later transmit them to other women. Most midwives took the lecture and teaching of child bearing and upbringing, sex, womanhood, functions of different herbs to the participants in the fattening room. The indigenous medicine practitioners skilfully imparted the knowledge of how to train and take care of children to the initiates.

Colonialism greatly and phenomenally influenced Ogoni women in the traditional health sector in multi-dimensional ways. The dispensaries, maternity homes and hospitals established by the colonial government in Ogoni brought about remarkable changes in the medicine and health care needs of the people. Our investigations point out that modern medicine has not completely taken over the pivotal place occupied by the traditional medicine. The latter is still popular among the people due to lack of access to modern health care facilities as such it is highly patronized. This could be exemplified in the traditional birth system, bone setting, and even healing homes which are affordable by the common people.

Conclusion

This paper has shown profound impact of colonial rule on Africa and its peoples, despite its short interlude in Africa's long history. Unarguably, the European contact contains both negative and positive effects even if the latter was not intended or calculated. The paper argued that the colonial system when critically x-rayed affected women more than their men counterparts. The role, status and contributions of women during the pre-colonial days differed remarkably from those of the colonial period. Adopting the concept of "England Victorian", women were meant to suffer deprivation, marginalization and discrimination as they were reduced to the rank of domestic house wives. Ukpokolo (2007,p. 112) wrote:

Imported ideologies and values more often than not have proved to be detrimental to the African sub-region especially in the areas relating to women issues. For instance, the idea of woman-as-house wife' was imported from Victorian England to Africa. This has undermined the African realities to the detriment of the women, and the continent at large. In Africa, prior to the colonial contact, the division into private and public domains were non-existent as men and women laboured in all areas of production, industries and commerce. Men and women, for instance, were farmers, craft workers such as basket makers, carver and sculptors and so on. Under the colonial administration, however, women were denied employment in the new dispensation, and their reproductive work in agriculture, trade and industry was side tracked and eventually undervalued while men were given prominence through the provision of employment in new capitalist and political systems. Ever since, women have remained a marginalized group in Africa.

The colonial situation which imposed foreign culture more than any other factors, inflicted permanent scars of docility, oppression, exclusion and discrimination on African women. Sadly, too, the post-colonial African leaders borrow these negative cultures wholly from ex-colonial administrators without moderations. Nevertheless, colonial rule and its paraphernalia emancipated women from the yoke of obnoxious traditional taboos, culture, practices, and

customs. With the high level of education attained by women today coupled with their huge numerical strength, the paper suggests that concerted efforts should be made to give them a pride of place in the society. The men, their husbands and relatives, must give them maximum support to enhance gender equity.

References

- Abalubu, T.A. (2011). Ogoni systems of marriage over time: A comparative analysis. Unpublished M.A. dissertation, University of Port Harcourt.
- Abasiattai, M.B. (1991). Women in modern Ibibioland. In M.B. Abasiattai (Ed.) *The Ibibio: An introduction to the land, the people and their culture*. (569590). Calabar: Alphousus Akpan Publishers.
- Alagoa, E.J. (2003). God is mother: A historical review of women in the development of Niger Delta communities. In N.C. Ejituwu & A.O.I. Gabriel (Eds.) *Women in Nigerian history: The Rivers and Bayelsa States experience*. (35-44). Port-Harcourt: Onyoma Research Publications.
- Anokari, N.B. (1986). *Nigerian inheritance: A history of the Ogoni*. Port Harcourt: Ano Publications Company (APC).
- Apenda, A.Z. (2006). Inter-group marriage and its implications for Tiv culture. In O. Akinwunmi, O.O. Okpeh, & J.D. Gwamna (Eds.) *Inter-group relations in Nigeria during the 19th and 20th centuries*. (188-206). Makurdi: Aboki Publishers.
- Awortu, B.E. & N-ue, U.S. (2018). Constance M'maneh Sira Saronwiyo (1939-2015). A pride to womanhood in the Niger Delta. *International Journal of African and Asian studies* 41, 1-8.
- Boahen, A.A. (1985). Colonialism in Africa: Its impact and significance. In A.A. Boahen (Ed.) *General history of Africa. Volume II: Africa under colonial domination, 1880-1935*. (782-809). Paris: UNESCO/Heinemann.
- Crowder, M. (1973). *The story of Nigeria*. London: Faber and Faber
- Derefaka, A.A. (2002). Indigenous technology in E.J. Alagoa and A.A. Derefaka (Eds.). *The land and people of Rivers State: Eastern Niger Delta*. (221-228) Port Harcourt: Onyoma Research Publications.
- Ebine, S.A. (2012). The social, economic and political impact of French colonialism in Africa. In J. Mangut & T. Wuam (Eds.). *Colonialism and the transition to modernity in Africa (791-801)*. Ibadan: San-Adex Printers.
- Ejituwu, N.C. & A.O.I. Gabriel (Eds.). *Women in Nigerian history: The Rivers and Bayelsa States experience*. Port Harcourt: Onyoma Research Publications.

- Gbenenye, E.M. (1988). A political history of Ogoni from early times to 1960. Unpublished M.A. Dissertation, University of Port Harcourt.
- Gibbons, E.J. (1932). *Intelligence report on Ogoni* Opobo Division Calabar Province File 28032 CS 026/3. N.A.E.
- Hollard, W.J.W. (1947). The Ogoni tribe. File OG/1395/128. N.A.E.
- Igbara, P.I. & Keenam, B.C. (2013). Ogoni in perspective: *An aspect of Niger Delta history*. Port Harcourt: Onyoma Research Publications.
- Igbara, P.I. (2009). *The making of a monarch. A biographical account of the life and times of king (Dr.) Mark Tsaro Igbara (JP) and scientific analysis of the origin of the Ogoni people*. Port Harcourt: LSB Publishing.
- Ikpe, E.B. (1997). The role of women in national development in A. Osuntokun & A. Olukoju (Eds.) *Nigerian peoples and cultures*. (245-274). Ibadan: Davidson Press.
- Isichei, E. (1983). *A history of Nigeria*. London: Longman Group Limited.
- Kpone-Tonwe, S. & Gbenenye, E.M. (2009). Izon and their Ogoni neighbors. In E.J. Alagoa, T.N. Tamuno, & J.P. Clark (Eds.). *The Izon of the Niger Delta*. (599-618). Port Harcourt. Onyoma Research Publications.
- Kpone-Tonwe, S. (1990). Ogoni of the eastern Niger Delta mainland: An economic and political history from the early times to about 1900. Unpublished Ph.D thesis, University of Port Harcourt.
- Kpone-Tonwe, S. (2003b) *Youth and leadership: Training in the Niger Delta. The Ogoni example*. Port Harcourt: Onyoma Research Publications.
- Loolo, G.N. (1981). *A history of the Ogoni* Port Harcourt: N.P.
- Naanen, B.B.B. & N-ue, U.S. (2016). The Impact of colonialism on the Ogoni relations with the Igbo/Igbo stranger elements, 1900-1960. In *Port Harcourt Journal of History and Diplomatic Studies (PJHDS)* 3(1), 111-142
- N-ue, U.S. (2014). A toast to Constance Saro-Nwiyo at 75. *The Tide*, Wednesday March 19 Vol. 13 NO. 245
- N-ue, U.S. (2018). Ogoni and her neighbours during the colonial period, 1900-1960. Unpublished Ph.D Thesis, University of Port Harcourt.
- Okoh, J. (2003). Feminism: An African perspective in Ejituwu N.C. & A.O.I. Gabriel (Eds.). *Women in Nigerian history: The Rivers and Bayelsa States experience*. (15-34) Port Harcourt: Onyoma Research Publications.
- Rodney, W. (2005). *How Europe underdeveloped Africa*. Abuja: Panet Publishing.

- Saro-Wiwa, K.B. (2012). *A month and a day: A detention diary Ibadan*: Spectrum Books Limited.
- Stride, G.T. & Ifeka, C. (1971). *Peoples and empires of West Africa in history, 1000-1800*. Lagos: Nigeria.
- Ukpolo, C. (2007). Gender politics and African culture: Concepts, issues and practices in Oguntomisin, G.O. & V.O. Edo (Eds.) *African culture and civilization*. 112-126.
- Williamson, K. (1988). The pedigree of nations. Historical linguistics in Nigeria. Inaugural Lectures 1987/1988 No. 5, University of Port Harcourt.
- Zezeza, T.P. (1994). *A modern economic history of Africa*. Dakar: Codesira.
- Ziinu, N.M. (1993). Ogoni and the forces of change, 1800-1960. An unpublished M.A. dissertation, University of Port Harcourt.

Gender Classification of Farm Crops and Labour in Ikwerre: A Review of its Impact on Agricultural Development and Sustainability

Mbadiwe Jeremiah, Ph.D

Department of History and Diplomatic Studies, Faculty of Humanities, University of Port Harcourt | Email: mbadiwejeremiah@gmail.com

Abstract: *This paper examines the structure and nature of gender classification of farm crops and labour in Ikwerre ethnic nationality of Rivers State. Since independence, the structure and methods of agricultural production in Nigeria have seemingly remained the same. The farming population is predominantly small scale subsistence peasants, farming on average, about two hectares of land on scattered holdings. This structural position of agriculture has led several scholars to submit that the known effects of limited capital, non-mechanisation and over dependence on crude oil are responsible for the lack of sustainable development in agriculture. While using Ikwerre agricultural practices, the paper argues that the existing gender organisation and classification of farm crops and labour in most Nigerian communities have had greater negative impacts on agricultural productivity. Both crops and farm labour are classified into masculine and feminine types in which each gender rigidly confines itself to the cultivation of its classified farm crops and performance of its labour type. The attendant result of this mode of production becomes low productivity, unexpanded market, low income and low savings. This paper therefore concludes that for a realisation of the full potentials of the agricultural sector, both crops and farm labour should be seen for whatever profit or wages accruable from them and not on gender consideration as this would enhance sustainable development.*

Key words: *Gender classification, Farm crops, Farm labour, Agricultural Development, Sustainability, Ikwerre, Nigeria.*

© 2020. Mbadiwe Jeremiah. This is a research/review paper, distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-Noncommercial 4.0 Unported License <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0>, permitting all non-commercial use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

INTRODUCTION

Before 1960 agriculture was the largest export earner and remained the largest single employer of labour in Nigeria. It was a major contributor to wealth creation and poverty alleviation (Afolabi, 2008: 169). However, from the early post-civil war years Nigeria began to experience food shortages as agricultural production could not meet the food demand of the rapidly increasing population. The agricultural sector which had hitherto been the backbone of the economy experienced little productivity growth. Thus, the National agricultural situation

revealed the stark reality of national food and nutritional problems. And since this period, food requirements have continued to increase faster than production. There has been shortage in the supply of yam, cassava, rice, palm oil, groundnuts and maize from domestic production (Falusi, 1981: 55; Gbosi, 1993:20). Worst still, is the abject poverty of the masses which have made the purchase of the relatively existing food items very difficult. This explains why the United Nations Food and Agricultural Organisation classified Nigeria under the hunger and poverty ridden Nations (FAO report, 1990, 2012).

However, in order to cushion the effects of hunger, the Nigerian government has at different times resorted to food importation from the United States of America, Holland, Asia, Norway and other European Nations. This action, no doubt, has steadily increased the weight of import bill on the government. Between 1970 and 1975 alone, the Nigerian import bill rose steeply from N 71 million to N1.5 billion (NTJ, 1981: 14). It is therefore, disheartening to note that Nigeria, which was known for decades ago as a food-secured Nation is today classified as a Hunger-ridden Nation.

In attempting to find a plausible explanation for this poor agricultural performance, several debates and controversies have been generated among the principal actors and operators of the economy, namely academics, researchers, the private sector, the entrepreneurs, policy makers and administrators, especially as Nigeria has surplus agricultural lands (Afolabi, 2008:174).

In all, they have attributed the problem to a variety of causes with the factors of lack of capital and the farmers' inability to mechanize ranking first (Ekundare, 1973; Agboola, 1979; Akinjogbin and Osoba, 1980; Nwosu, 1985; Isirimah, 1989).

The relative effect of these factors on the agricultural production stands clear, but this paper argues that the cause of Nigeria's low agricultural productivity is much more than that. This is because the agricultural Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of Nigeria does not rest in the hand of a single individual or firm as in the case of the developed countries of Europe and America where an increase in capital and an application of mechanisation would have a corresponding increase in production (Odey, 2012:638).

Realizing the fact that Nigeria's total agricultural production is an aggregate of the various productions by several small scale farmers scattered all over the several farming communities and towns, the style of this paper is therefore, less general. It tends to focus on the specific; hence it focuses on gender classification of both farm crops and labour in Ikwerre. This is because it is my view that one cannot get much insight into the factors militating against agricultural food supply in Nigeria from aggregational facts unless one appreciate their components.

FARM PRACTICE IN IKWERRE ETHNIC NATIONALITY

Agriculture constitutes the major economic activity in Ikwerre society with over 55 percent of the people engaged in it. In pre-colonial times, however, the percentage was higher than this, as it was a predominant occupation which extensively engaged the services of men and women alike. The character of agricultural practice and the types of crops cultivated were largely dependent on the ecology of the area which had a favourable climatic conditions and fertile soil.

In pre-colonial Ikwerre society, almost every member of the society was a farmer and it was a yard-stick for measuring both men and women's social status. The chances of a man or woman to get married depended largely on his or her ability to perform farm work. Farm work attracted a high prestige that it became the people's staff of office (Uchendu, 1970:28).

Land tenure agreement hardly recognise individual proprietary rights. Individuals, more

often than not, had and still have only usufructuary rights. Proprietary and ownership rights on land were and are still vested in the family and community from where the individual farmers obtain their rights of use. The economic inadequacies of this tenurial pattern were what the substantivists considered as irrational in African economic thought (Havinden, 1982:102). This submission is simplistic and apologetic. Land in Africa is abundant and has been available for use by the farmers (Nduka, 2013:5). Farmland prospecting was determined by the fertility of the soil in relation to the species of the crops to be cultivated. In this situation, land was not scarce. However, exceptional cases, where there existed relative scarcity due to the facts above, an individual farmer could have access to the use of land other than that of his family or community through mortgage or lease arrangements (Jeremiah, 2000:74). Having foraged for land through usufructuary rights or lease arrangement in any given year, the farmer cultivates between two and five hectares of land which usually may be in different parcels of land that may not be adjacent to one another.

The predominant farming systems in Ikwerre communities have been rotational bush fallow and shifting cultivation. Before the 1980s, the bush fallow period spanned over seven to ten years depending on the land available to each family or community. But in recent years, rapid population growth has increased pressure on land, forcing fallow period to reduce to two or three years. This has resulted to systematic degradation of arable land and declining crop yields. Not only in Ikwerre, this system has been used to describe generally the farm practice in most part of West Africa (Hopkins, 1973:33, Allison-Oguru, 2010:366). The essence of fallowing is to allow the land to regenerate and regain its fertility before the next cultivation season (Wahua, 1993:131).

Following the relative scarcity of farm land in recent times, occasioned by both private and government acquisition of land in various Ikwerre communities, the predominant rotational bush fallow has gradually given way to continuous cropping. Given this situation, the practice of mixed cropping becomes prevalent in which one major crop such as yam or cassava is planted with one or more supplementary crops like maize, pepper, okro, melon and pumpkin added to it.

Although the current trend of sale of land has increased tremendously in Ikwerre, its effect on Agricultural productivity seem not to have been strongly felt as the clan is highly endowed with large expanse of farmlands. It is not possible here to undertake a detailed critique of the possible impact of this outright sale of land on Ikwerre agricultural productivity because of space and time. The main thrust of this paper is to highlight the nature and character of gender classification of crops and labour with emphasis on its effects on production.

GENDER CLASSIFICATION OF FARM CROPS

Evidence from Ikwerrefarm practices show that farmers cultivated varieties of cash crops and food crops. The major food crops cultivated include white yam (*Dioscorea alata*), yellow yam (*Dioscorea cayenensis*), water yam (*Dioscorea alata*), trifoliate yam commonly known as three-leave yam (*Dioscorea dumetorum*), Cocoyam (*Colocasia esculenta*), cassava (*Manihot esculenta*), pepper (*Capsicum* spp.), melon (*Colocynthis vulgaris*), fluted pumpkin (*Telfandia occidentalis*), maize (*Zea mays*), Okra and 'Ibaa' (a local specie of soup condiment). In addition to these food crops are plantain and Banana (*Musa* spp), Pawpaw (*Carica papaya*), etc. There are also Oil Palm (*Elaeis guineensis*) and cocoa (*Theobroma cacao*) which though grow by self-propagation, the farmers in Ikwerre also engage in their production (Allison-Oguru, 2010:365).

Interestingly to note here, is that these crops are rigidly classified along gender lines. Some crops are owned and planted by men while some are owned and cultivated by women. The

ownership and cultivation of food crops such as yam, plantain, and cash crops like Oil palm, cocoa and coconut is the exclusive preserve of men. And conversely, ownership and cultivation of crops such as cassava, cocoyam, trifoliate yam (three-leave yam), banana, orange, okra, pepper, melon, fluted pumpkins, “Ibaa” and “Adu”, etc, is reserved mainly for the women.

This issue of classifying crops along gender lines in Ikwerre assumes a greater economic concern when its implication on the productive capacity of the area is considered. More so, this classification has been identified in most communities of Ikwerre, Ogoni, Ahoada, Etche in Rivers State, and most societies in Akwa Ibom, Cross River, Delta, Imo, Enugu, Abia, Ebonyi and Edo States. Wokoma (1986:19) and Obuah (1989:25) have variously maintained that the people of Omerelu and Ishimbam clan classified their agricultural crops along sex line. The greatest threat of this gender classification of farm crops to our economy today is the food shortage syndrome which arose from the gross impact of gender classification of both crops and labour in our farm practice.

GENDER CLASSIFICATION OF FARM LABOUR

Like crops, specialization and division of farm labour along gender lines is common feature of the practice of agriculture in Ikwerre ethnic nationality. There is specialization in the performance of agronomic practices such as bush clearing, stumping, mound making, planting, staking, directing of tendrils, weeding and harvesting. Beginning from the precolonial period, farm work has been considered to be a very tedious task and the stages involved are many, time consuming and energy sapping. It is a production process that requires many hands (Onukwe, 2014: 97).

The gender classification of labour is determined by the labour required for the cultivation of a specific crop type. Men have the responsibility of foraging for and clearing of bush for cultivation. The men dig holes, stake and direct the tendrils of yams. They also harvest and take every necessary step to preserve the yams. In oil palm production, the men perform the task of planting and harvesting.

Women on their own part, collect all debris which arise from clearing process and burn same for use as organic fertilizer. It is also the duty of the women to make mounds and plant yams, cocoyam, cassava and other various species of crops. They are responsible to take rid of weeds in the farm throughout the duration of the farming season. Harvesting and carrying of food crops to the house is also their duty. Apart from these labour tasks, the processing of the food crops into a consumable stage is also done by the women. In most Nigerian societies, this pattern of gender classification of farm labour has been identified. Susan Martin (1984:411) noted that in the 19th and 20th centuries, the women in Ngwa land did most of the work in food farming and cash crop production. Like the Ngwa land, the amount of labour rendered by men in Ikwerre during a giving farming season is less than that performed by women. While men specialize in clearing, staking and harvesting of yams, the women specialize in virtually all farm labour practices.

IMPACT OF GENDER DIVISION AND CLASSIFICATION OF CROPS AND LABOUR ON AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION

Given the fact that there exist enough agricultural farm land and that two-third of Nigeria's population are farmers, one would expect that the Nigerian farmers even though they cannot produce enough for export, their subsistence production should be able to feed the teeming population. However, this is not so. The question then, is why have the farmers failed to produce enough food crops for domestic consumption and for export?

The answer simply lies in the rigid implementation of gender classification of farm crops and labour in our rural agricultural communities such as Ikwerre. The most adverse impact of gender classification and labour on agriculture is low production. As we have observed, in Ikwerre communities, women are more engaged in agricultural farming than men. Both crops and labour are classified along sex line with strict observance of such classification. Men own limited number of crops and as such also have limited aspect of labour to perform in agriculture. The women therefore, both in terms of ownership and farm labour performance become the pivot upon which subsistence farming revolves. The women are entrusted with heavier work-load in the rural economy (Otonti Nduka, 2003:120).

The implication of this situation is the fact that the major aspect of food production is left in the hands of women and as such only a very limited quantity of food crops could be produced. Thus, this low level of production cannot meet the food demand of the rapidly increasing population of the society. This is so because the feminine class which is entrusted with major part of agricultural work, combine these tasks with domestic work such as child care, cooking, fetching of firewood and water. All these extra farm labour, no doubt, limit farming strength and improvement. This over involvement of women in farming chores is also observed in yoaunde in which women not only plant most of the crops but also climb hills to dig furrows to prevent the rains from washing away the crops (Maathai, 2009:13).

To worsen this situation is the men's world view concerning this gender division and classification of both crops and farm labour. The men are never ready to engage themselves in the planting of female classified crops or in the performance of 'female' tasks. This is so because in traditional Ikwerre society, the men who in one way or the other, engage in the planting or performance of the female crops or labour type are usually despised and considered as women by their fellow men in the society. In this case despite the huge profit which may be accruable from such female classified crops and labour, the male gender never engage in them.

Closely related to the existence of low production is unexpanded market. It could be seen as a chain reaction of the first. The studies of A.G. Hopkins (1973), C. Meillassaux (1969) and B.W. Holdder and Roger Lee (1974) identified the existence of markets in West Africa since the earliest beginning of subsistence agriculture. In Nigeria, subsistence agriculture has been the mainstay of the economies of the different communities. This subsistence nature of the economy does not allow for market expansion. Even though a significant change was made in the area of moving from reciprocity to money economy, the volume of the market have still maintained its unexpanded nature. Briggs and Ndimele noted that before palm produce became a major article of trade in Port Harcourt and its environs, it was produced and consumed locally for several centuries by the indigenous people (Briggs Nimi and NdimeleOzo-Mecuri, 2013:93).

In Ikwerre, as we have observed, the amount of labour directed to agriculture is usually very small and this in turn, leads to yearly poor harvest. Most of the persons actually involved in farming chores are women and they provide regular farm labour. Even the yam which men exclusively own has been left for the women. Most men have abandoned farming for white-collar jobs in the urban cities of Port Harcourt, Lagos and Abuja. In Bayelsa state, the case is not different. Although farm holdings in the area are owned and operated mainly on farm household basis headed by men, farming is dominated by women (Allison-Oguru *et al*, 1999:284). In this situation where only necessary labour and necessary products exist in the economy at the expense of surplus labour and surplus products, the volume of the market economy would be very small. Due to the low productivity level, most farm products are consumed within the producing households and communities. Only about 30 percent of what is produced is usually

offered for sale at the local markets.

Another noticeable effect of gender classification of both crops and labour on the agricultural production of our focus area is the existence of low income and saving. It has already been said that only about 30 percent of the total produce is usually sent to the market for sale. This invariably means that the farmers earn little income yearly from their agricultural produce. It should be noted that it is only when there is surplus labour that surplus product could be produced, and that when surplus production occur in an economy, more of the surpluses are usually pushed into the market which in turn, would lead to increase in the incomes and savings of the farmers. When the farmers' income remain very small the desire to save is lost. A random sampling of the small-scale farmers in Ikwerre indicates that the average savings of twenty peasant farmers stood at about ten to fifteen thousand naira each per annum. This indicates that the farmers are usually unable to provide themselves with essential household items and good shelter.

CONCLUSION

This impact review has demonstrated that the existence of gender division and classification of both farm crops and labour in Ikwerre society constitute a great constraint on agricultural production and development. And since this rigid implementation of gender classification of both crops and labour is experienced in most Nigerian communities, low productivity, unexpanded market, low income and low savings become a threat to the realisation of Nigeria's pursuit for national food sufficiency. Indeed, Nigeria is a society that with a little more effort and complete removal of inhibitive factors can produce enough food for its population and for export, given its agricultural resources. For a manifest sustainable development to occur in Nigeria's agricultural sector, gender-based inhibitive factors must be removed. Agricultural production of crops and performance of its required labour should be determine by the amount of profits or wages accruing from them.

REFERENCE

- Afolabi, A.B. (2008). "Agricultural Research Efforts in Nigeria", in Alao, Akin and Babawale, T. (eds), *Culture and Society in Nigeria: Traditions, Gender Relations and Political Economy*. Concept Publication Ltd.
- Agboola, S.A. (1979). *An Agricultural Atlas of Nigeria*. Oxford University Press.
- Akinjogbin, I.A. and Osoba, S.O. (1980). *Topics on Nigerian Economic and Social History*. University of Ife Press Ltd.
- Allison-Oguru, E. A., *et al* (1999). "Agriculture", in Alogoa, E.J. (ed), *The Land and People of Bayelsa State: Central Niger Delta*. Onyoma Research Publication.
- Allison-Oguru, E. A., Berepubo, N.A. and Kalio, A.E. (2010). "Agriculture", in Alogoa, E.J. and Derefaka, A.A, *The Land and People of Rivers State: Eastern Niger Delta*. Onyoma Research Publication.
- Briggs, Nimi and Ndimele, Ozo-Mekuri (2013). "The Economic Growth of the City of Port Harcourt ", in Alagoa, E.J. and Nwanodi, J., *Port Harcourt at 100: Past, Present and Future*. Onyoma Research Publication.
- Ekundare, R.O. (1973). *An Economic History of Nigeria 1860-1960*. Methuen and Co. Ltd.
- Falusi, A.O. (1981). "Agricultural Development: Operation Feed the Nation", in Onyediran, O. (ed), *Survey of Nigeria Affairs 1976-1977*. Nigerian Institute of International Affairs.
- F.A.O. (1990). *Women in Agriculture: Closing the Gender Gap for Development*.

- F.A.O. (2012). State of Food Insecurity in the World.
- Gbosi, A.N. (1993). Monetary Economics and the Nigerian Financial System. Pam Unique Publishing Co. Ltd
- Havinden, S. (1982). History of Crop Cultivation in West Africa: A Bibliographical Guide. Economic History Review.
- Hodder, B.W. and Roger, Lee (1974). Economic Geography. Methun and Co. Ltd.
- Hopkins, A.G. (1973). An Economic History of West Africa. Longman Group Ltd.
- Isirimah, M.O., Monsi, A. and Kinako, P.D.S. (1989). Strategy for Agricultural Development in Nigeria: Focus on Rivers State. Belk Publishers.
- Jeremiah, M. (2000). The Effects of Land Tenure System and Gender Division of Labour on Agricultural Production. M.A. Thesis, University of Port Harcourt.
- Maathai, Wangari (2009). The Challenge for Africa: A New Vision. William Heinemann.
- Martin, Susan (1984). "Gender and Innovation: Farming, Cooking and Palm Processing in the Ngwa Region, South-Eastern Nigeria 1900-1930", in Journal of African History, Vol. 8, No. 5.
- Mellaseaux, C. (1969). The Development of Indigenous Trade and Markets in West Africa. Oxford University Press.
- Nduka, Otonti (2013). "The Acquisition of Port Harcourt", in Alogoa, E.J. and Nwanodi, J., Port Harcourt at 100: Past, Present and Future. Onyoma Research Publication.
- Nigeria Trade Journal (1981). Vol. 44, No. 2.
- Nwosu, E.J. (1985). Achieving Even Development in Nigeria: Problems and Prospects. Fourth Dimension Pub. Co.
- Obuah, E.E. (1989). An Economic History of Ishimbam (Elele District) from 1900-Present Change and Continuity. M.A. Thesis, University of Port Harcourt.
- Odey, M.O. (2012). "Early Growth and Development of Commodity Production in Nigeria: the Case of Lower Benue Province, 1900-1960", in Mangut, J. and Waum, Terhemba, Colonialism and the Transition to Modernity in Africa. SamAdex Printer.
- Onukwe, E.C. (2014). Palm Oil Processing in Elele. Edison Publishers.
- Uchendu, V.C. (1970). "The Impact of Changing Agricultural Technology on African Land Tenure", Journal of Development Areas, No. 4.
- Wahua, T.A.T. (1993). "Farming Systems in Ikwere Land", in Nduka, O., Studies in Ikwere History and Culture, Vol. I. Kraft Books Ltd

Impact of Human Capital Development on Economic Sustainability in Nigeria

Chinelo P. Ohanyere¹, Chidi L. Atueyi² and Ibekwe Angela O.³

¹Department of Business Administration, Chukwuemeka Odumegwu Ojukwu University, Igbariam, Anambra State, Nigeria | E-mail: ohanyerechinelo64@gmail.com | Phone: 08036314505

²Department of Banking and Finance, Chukwuemeka Odumegwu Ojukwu University, Igbariam, Anambra State, Nigeria | E-mail: atuleo410@gmail.com | Phone: 08036354014

³Department of Banking and Finance, Chukwuemeka Odumegwu Ojukwu University, Igbariam, Anambra State, Nigeria | E-mail: atuleo410@gmail.com | Phone: 08033879546

Abstract: The study examined the impact of human capital development on economic sustainability between the period of 1981-2016. The study adopted multiple linear regression model to statistically establish a relationship between human capital development and economic sustainability in Nigeria. The included variables were Total productivity, Mortality Rate, Tertiary Education Enrolment Rate, Government Expenditure, Domestic Investment. The data was sourced from the Central Bank of Nigeria, 2016. Ordinary least square model was used for the analysis. The study found that tertiary enrollment rate was positive and statistically significant. Investment in education should be taken seriously by developing nations. The bedrock of sustaining economic development has universally been agreed to be education, if investment in education is given more attention, it will increase the nation productivity. It was also observed that mortality rate was negative and statistically insignificant. Increase in mortality rate will decrease total productivity, since it is a number of death during a particular period of time. Amongst other the researcher recommends that Budgetary allocations should be channeled towards health delivery schemes and education promoting activities since the likelihood of elongating life expectancy is tandem with such exercises. The government should, increase budgetary allocation and stimulate more funding channels to education and health sectors of the economy.

Key words: Total productivity, human capital development, health, education, Tertiary Education Enrolment Rate

© 2020. Chinelo P. Ohanyere, Chidi L. Atueyi and Ibekwe Angela O. This is a research/review paper, distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-Noncommercial 4.0 Unported License <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/>), permitting all non-commercial use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Human capital is considered as the most valuable asset and needs to be mobilized (Awopegba, 2003). Human capital as an economic term encompasses health, education and other human capacities that can raise productivity (Todaro and Smith, 2003). Human capitals are active factors of production. Human capital constitutes the most valuable resource of a country; in its

absence there will be the non performance of physical capital (tools, machinery, and equipment) which will impede economic growth.

Health and education are two closely related human (resource) capital components that work together to make the individual more productive. One component cannot be considered important than the other (Lawanson, 2009). Health connotes the ability to lead a socially and economically productive life (Anyawu et.al, 1997). A healthy populace will be highly productive and the educated have the tendency to apply a degree of sophistication in the production process. In political terms, investment in human capital prepares people for participation in the political processes, particularly as citizens in a democratic society. From the social, economic and cultural points of view, human capital investment helps to lead fuller and richer lives, less bound by tradition. It is a way to empower people; this in turn will help them contribute substantially to the growth process in the economy. In Nigeria, the process of human capital development is carried out in so many ways. The most obvious of them all is by formal education beginning with primary or first level education and then higher education; including teachers training and technical colleges, higher agricultural institution and the universities. On the other hand, it can also be carried out on the job through systematic or informal training programmes, includes the old types of apprentice organized by farms. The trainee is placed on the job and given instructions on what to do. He is then made to work satisfactorily and under supervision until he is able to acquire enough skill to work under minimal supervision [Canton, 2007]. In Nigeria, investment in human capital is very crucial for the development of her economy in order to achieve the millennium development goals and objectives. Nigeria administrators are increasingly emphasizing that the development of Nigeria's human capital should not be left to random market forces but should be coordinated, so as to co-operate with the other factors of production.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Several studies were carried out on human capital development thought with mixed findings. Studies carried out outside Nigeria such as Appleton and Teal (2007) studied the impact of human capital development in China, discovered that human capital through education and health has a positive and significant impact on the economy. Schultz (2003) studied the importance of human capital development in France, his study revealed a positive significant impact on the economy. The studies in Nigeria by authors such as Adelakun (2011) studied the human capital development and economic growth in Nigeria. The research adopted ordinary least (OLS) method. The variables used were on total government expenditure on education, total government expenditure on health, tertiary school enrolment, secondary school enrolment, primary school enrolment as well as gross domestic product. The analysis conforms that there was a strong positive relationship between human capital development and Nigeria economic growth. Olatunji, Odeleye & Olunkwa (2014). The study examined the impact of human capital investment on economic development of Nigeria. The finding indicated that there was a negative short run relationship between economic development and human capital investment in Nigeria. Ditimi and Nwosa (2011), it was discovered that there exist negative impact between human capital development and economic. Oluwatoyin (2015) This study looked at Human Capital Investment and Economic Growth in Nigeria. The study finds that a negative relationship exists between government expenditure on health and economic growth. It can be clearly seen that there are divergent views and findings. These can be as a result of short observation, method of analysis, model specification. We also witness the problem of geography this was as a result that most work were done outside the shore of Nigeria. Against this backdrop the study improves the previous studies on the following ground. Firstly the study uses an updated literature on the impact of human

capital development, secondly it is carried out in Nigeria since most of them are carried outside Nigeria. Thirdly the study sought to adopt OLS to examine the effect of human capital on the economic sustainability of Nigeria.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The main objective of this study is to investigate the impact of human capital development on the economic sustainability in Nigeria.

. The specific objectives are

- i. To evaluate the help of education on the growth of output in Nigeria
- ii. To determine the help of healthy living on the growth of output in Nigeria

1.4 Scope of the Study

The research work covers the period 1981 to 2016, This period is particularly important because to cover the various reform and regulations in human capital it also cover the period of structural adjustment program of 1986.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Conceptual Framework

Human capital development has been described as an end or objective of development. It is a way to fulfill the potentials of people by enlarging their capabilities, and this necessarily implies empowerment of people, enabling them to participate actively in their own development. Human capital development enhances the skills, knowledge, productivity, creativity and inventiveness of people. Thus, human capital development is people and not goods or production centered strategy of development. Essentially, it is the empowerment of people to identify their own priorities and to implement programmes and projects of direct benefit to them. The active participation of people in the development process and the consequent need to establish institutions that permit and indeed encourage that participation. The concept of human capital refers to the abilities and skill of human capital of a country (Adamu, 2000). Human capital formation refers to the process of acquiring and increasing the number of persons who have the skills, education and experience that are crucial for the economic growth and political development of a country (Okojie, 1995). Human capital formation is thus associated with investment in man and his development as a creative and productive resource (Erhurua, 2007).

In human capital development, education and health are essential. Education is concerned with the cultivation of the whole person including intellectual, character and psychomotor development. It is the human capital of any nation, rather than its physical capital and material capital, which ultimately determines the character and pace of its economic and social development.

The term "human capital" refers to the totality of energies skills and knowledge available in a country. The Directorate of Manpower of the government of India define human capital as the Managerial, Scientific, Engineering, Technical craft and other skills which are employed (or could be employed) in creating designing and developing organization and economic institutions. Walt el al (2000) asserted that human capital consists of all employees

both workers' managers of the organization. Human capital investment, according to Udo-Aka (2007), is also an effective way to meet several challenges including employees turn over, employee's obsolescence and socio technical changes. By meeting these challenges the personnel department can help maintain an effective workforce.

2.2.1 Human Capital Theory

This theory shows how education leads to increase in productivity and efficiency of workers by increasing the level of their cognitive skills. Schultz, Becker and Mincer introduced the notion that people invest in education in order to increase their stock of human capabilities which can be found by combining innate abilities with investment in human beings (Babalola, 2000). Examples of such investments include expenditure on education, on - the - job training, health and nutrition. However, the stock of human capital increases in a period only when gross investment exceeds depreciation with the passage of time with intense use or lack of use. The provision of education is seen as a productive investment in human capital, an investment which the proponents of human capital theory consider to be equally or even more equally worthwhile than that in physical capital. Human capital theorists have established that basic literacy enhances the productivity of workers low skill occupations. They further state instruction that demands logical and analytical reasoning that provides technical and specialised knowledge increases the marginal productivity of workers in high skill or profession and positions. Moreover, the greater the provision of schooling society and consequently the greater the increase in national productive and economic growth.

2.3 Empirical Review

Early studies on the effects of human capital on growth such as Aderemi (2014) used micro-data to study the empirically relationship between human capital investment and economic development in Nigeria. The variables employed were on real gross domestic product per capital education expenditure, per capital health as well as per capital income the findings reveal that education and health are good components of human capital development in Nigeria. Imoisi (2013) used survey design to study human capital investment as an effective tool for economic development in Nigeria using Edo state higher institution as a case study. The chi-square was used to analyze the data collected from the respondents and the result revealed that investment on human capital has a significant impact on the Nigeria economy. Isola and Alani (2013) studied the human capital development and economic growth empirical evidence from Nigeria. Among their objectives was to examine the contribution of different measure of human capital development to economic growth in Nigeria. They adopted ordinary least squared (OLS) and descriptive statistics analysis. The researcher found out from their result that though little commitment had been accorded health compare to education. empirical analysis showed that both education and health components of human capital development are crucial to economic growth. Abdua (2013) used a simultaneous equation model to study the impact of human capital on economic growth in Sudan. Based on three stage least square technique the empirical result show that quality of the education has a determinant role in the economic growth. Health factor has a positive impact on economic growth as expected and total factor productivity which mainly represents the state of technology. It has adverse effect on economic growth and human capital development due to the obsolete and old fashion. Oluwatoyin (2015) This study looked at Human Capital Investment and Economic Growth in Nigeria – the Role of Education. Even though there are different perspectives to economic growth, there is a general consensus that growth will lead to a good

change manifested in increased capacity of people to have control over material assets, intellectual resources and ideology, and obtain physical necessities of life like food, clothing, shelter, employment,. This study made use of the Unit Root and Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) tests and found out that a positive relationship exists between government expenditure on education and economic growth while a negative relationship exists between government expenditure on health and economic growth.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design

The study adopted analytical and ex-post facto research designs.

3.2 Model Specification

$$TP = F(TER, MR, GOVT, DI)$$

Where

TP = Total productivity proxy by

MR = Mortality Rate

TER = Tertiary Education Enrolment Rate

GOVT = Government Expenditure

DI = Domestic Investment

F = Functional Notation

Our model can be restated in an econometric form as:

$$TP = \beta_0 + \beta_1 MR + \beta_2 TER + \beta_3 GOVT + \beta_4 DI + u$$

Where

β_0 = Autonomous Intercept

β_1 = Coefficient of parameter MR

β_2 = Coefficient of parameter TER

β_3 = Coefficient of parameter GOVT

β_4 = Coefficient of parameter DI

U = Stochastic error term

The model can be also restated in logarithm form as:

$$TP = Lb_0 + L_1 MR + L_2 TER + L_3 GOVT + L_4 DI + \mu$$

Where

L = logarithm

3.4 Source of Data

The study utilized the central bank of Nigeria statistical bulletin to obtain these data (secondary data) which concern the parameter under study, which covers the period of 1981-2016.

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

4.1 Testing for Unit Root

Stationary of variables means that the mean and standard deviations does not change with time. The Result obtained from the analysis is presented in the table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1 Unit Root Result

Variable	ADF	Integration	Significance
TP	-3.693673	1 (1)	1 %
MR	- 5.854093	1 (2)	1 %
TER	-8.785360	1 (1)	1 %
GOVT	- 3.811339	1 (1)	1 %
D1	-5.169236	1 (1)	1 %

Using the augmented Dickey-Fuller tests, the results as presented in Table 1 has shown that all the variables are stationary at the at first and second difference. That is, the result indicates that the variables, are integrated of order one I(1,2).Therefore, a co-integration test shall carried out to confirm and determine the existence of a long-run relationship among the variables as specified in the equation

4.2 Testing for Co-integration

The table 4.2 below gives the summary of co-integration result for the model.

Table 4.2 Co-integration Result

Unrestricted Co-integration Rank Test (TRACE)

Hypothesized	Trace	0.05	Max- Eigen	0.05
No of CE(s)	Statistic	Critical value	Statistic	Critical value
None*	157.3068	69.81889	71.08193	33.87687
At most 1	86.22482	47.85613	40.50082	27.58434
At most 2	45.72400	29.79707	27.45525	21.13162
At most 3	18.26875	15.49471	15.37557	14.26460
At most 4	2.893179	3.841466	2.893179	3.841466

From table 4.2, it is observed that both trace test statistic and the max- Eigenvalue test indicates four co-integrating equation at 5% level of significance. The Johansen co integration test reveals

that there is a long-run relationship dependent and independent variables.. The conclusion drawn from the result is that there exists a unique long-run relationship between the variables.

Table 4.3 Regression Result for the Model.

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t- statistics	Prob
C	14.78089	1.253754	11.78931	0.0000
DLMR(-1)	-0.560182	0.255300	-2.194208	0.0367
DLGOVT(-1)	0.015383	0.017022	0.903687	0.3739
DLGOVT(-1)	0.015383	0.017022	0.903687	0.3739
DTER(-1)	0.050763	0.016327	3.109253	0.0043
DLDI(-1)	0.031633	0.010894	2.903834	0.0071
ECM(-1)	-0.333362	0.193205	-1.725428	0.0955

R- Squared	0.985533
Adjusted R- squared	0.982950
F – Statistics	381.4883
Prob (F- statistics)	0.000000
Durbin- Watson stat	1.926461

Interpretation of the Result

Coefficient of determination, This is also called the goodness of fit. This explain the percentages, proportion or total amount of variations in the regreesand or dependent variables as a result of changes in the regressors or independent variables included in the model. This will portray the usefulness significance of the regression. The closer its values is ti 1 the better the fit since it is usually 0-1. From our regression result, R^2 is 0.98%. This implies that the independent variables can explain about 98% of the variable in the dependent variable, leaving the remaining 2% which would be accounted for by other variable outside the model.

The adjusted R^2 is 98% meaning that even with an adjustment in the independent variables, they can still account for about 98% of the changes in the dependent variables.

The F- statistics, this is use to test for the overall significant of the model. . From the result in table 4.3 above, our computed value of F- statistics is 381.4883, while the probability is 0.000000. Since the probability of the F- statistics in the computed output is less than the desired 0.05 level of significance, we accept and state that there is a significant relationship between the variable of the estimate and that of the dependent variable

The a' priori criteria which is determined by the existing economic theories and indicates the signs and magnitude of the economic parameter under regression.

in table 4.3 above, we find out that mortality rate has a negative sign given its value as - 0.560182, this implies that a unit decrease in MR decreases the total productivity by 56%, this conform to our a' priori expectation. Tertiary education enrolment has a positive sign given its value as 0.050763, this implies that a unit increase in TER increases total productivity by 5% government expenditure has a positive sign given its value as 0.015383, this implies that a unit increases in government expenditure decrease the TPP by 0.15%. Lastly, it was observe that increase in domestic investment increases the TP by 31%.

T- Statistics, this is carried out to know the significant of individual explanatory variables

in the model. That is to find out the significant influence of explanatory variables on the dependent variables at chosen level of significant. It is used to test or reject the hypotheses of the study from our regression model, it was discovered that mortality rate, tertiary enrollment rate and domestic investment are statistically significant at 5% level of significant, this implies they contributed to total productivity in Nigeria, respectively. Meanwhile, government expenditure is not statistically significant.

Test for autocorrelation, this is to test whether errors corresponding to difference observation are uncorrelated. It checks the randomness of the residuals. If the value of the durbin-watson from the regression result is close to 2 no autocorrelation in that regression result but if it deviates significantly then there is autocorrelation. The Durbin-Watson statistic (D.W) of 1.9 reveals no autocorrelation in the models. Hence, the result is good for econometric analysis.

The coefficient of the error correction term carries the correct sign and it is statistically significant at 5 per cent level with the speed of convergence to equilibrium of 33 per cent.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusion

Based on the quantities exploration of the relationship between human capital development through education and health, and the findings thereof, this study concludes that there is a clear-cut relationship between human capital development through education and health and economic growth over time in Nigeria, also education and health jointly exert positive effect on economic growth.

However, the contribution of human capital development to economic growth in Nigeria has been less than satisfactory and there is much room for improvement the education and health sector need increased government funding in order to further enhance their role in the growth process further, the government has the major responsibility of providing quality education and satisfactory health care delivery with the private sector playing a complementary role since these sectors, are non profit incentive for private individuals. Genuine action to backup, meaningful human capital development effort needs to be put in place to give effect to the importance of human capital development noted in the past and present national economic plans of the country

Recommendations

- i. Budgetary allocations should be channeled towards health delivery schemes and education promoting activities since the likelihood of elongating life expectancy is tandem with such exercises
- ii. The government should, increase budgetary allocation and stimulate more funding channels to education and health sectors of the economy.
- iii. More encouragement should be given to the private sector to increase its participation in provision of education and health services to the people of Nigeria.
- iv. Government should create friendly environment that will encourage investors through provision of loan and low interest rate .

References

- Abdua, O. J. (2013). Human capital development and economic growth in Nigeria. *European Journal of Business and Management* 3 (9), 67-78
- Aderemi T.O (2014). *Financing education in Nigeria: An analytical review department of educational foundations and Management*. University of Ado-Ekiti. Nigeria.
- Adelakun, G. D. (2011). Human capital development and economic growth in Nigeria. *European Journal of Finance and Management*, 3 (4) 23-34.
- Appleton S. & F. Teal (2007). Human capital and economic development. *ADB Economic Research paper* 4 (39),1-17
- Anyanwu, J.C. (1997). *The structure of the Nigerian economy (1960-1997)*, Anambra: Joanee Educational Publishers.
- Awopegba, P.O (2003). Human resources, high-level manpower and the development of the nigerian economy. In Iyoha M.A & Itsede C.O (Eds) *Nigerian economy: structure, growth and development*. Benin City: *Mindex Publishing Co. Ltd*.
- Babalola, V. K. (2000). Public investment in basic education and economic growth. *Journal of Economic Studies*, 35(4), 352-364.
- Ditimi, A. & Nwosa P. I. (2011). Investment in human capital and economic growth in Nigeria: Using a causality approach. *Journal of Canadian Social Science* 7 (4), 114-120
- Imoisi A. I,(2013). Human capital investment as an effective tool for economic development in Nigeria; *International Journal of Management & Business Studies* 56 (3), 79-89.
- Isola,W A. & R. A Alani;(2013). Human capital development and economic growth: empirical evidence from Nigeria. *Asian Economic and Financial Review* 2(7), 813-827
- Lawanson, O. (2009), *Human capital investment and economic development in Nigeria: The role of education and health*. Manuscript, *Oxford Business and Economics Conference Program*.
- Olatunji,F, Odeleye,A & Olunkwa,G (2014). Economic growth and human capital development QEH working paper, No 18<http://economics.ouls.ac.uk>
- Oluwatoyin, S. D. (2015). Health as a component of human capital: does it really matter for the growth of the Nigerian Economy”. *Canadian Social Science Journal*. 7(4), 207-218
- Schultz, T.P (2003). The role of education and human capital on economic development: An empirical assessment. *Center Discussion Paper*. Economic Growth Center, Yale University
- Todaro M.P & Smith S.C (2003). *Economic Development*. Pearson Education (Singapore) Eke Ltd, Delhi, India.

APPENDIX REGRESSION RESULT

Dependent Variable: LTP

Method: Least Squares

Date: 08/20/18 Time: 08:30

Sample (adjusted): 1982 2016

Included observations: 35 after adjustments

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	14.78089	1.253754	11.78931	0.0000

DLMR(-1)	-0.560182	0.255300	-2.194208	0.0367
DTER(-1)	0.050763	0.016327	3.109253	0.0043
DLGOVT(-1)	0.015383	0.017022	0.903687	0.3739
DLDI(-1)	0.031633	0.010894	2.903834	0.0071
ECM(-1)	-0.333362	0.193205	-1.725428	0.0955
<hr/>				
R-squared	0.985533	Mean dependent var	12.94510	
Adjusted R-squared	0.982950	S.D. dependent var	0.432440	
S.E. of regression	0.056467	Akaike info criterion	-2.751542	
Sum squared resid	0.089278	Schwarz criterion	-2.482184	
Log likelihood	52.77622	Hannan-Quinn criter.	-2.659683	
F-statistic	381.4883	Durbin-Watson stat	1.926461	
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000			

DATA FOR THE MODEL

	LTP	LMR	TER	LGOVT	LDI	ECM
1981	12.43763	4.852030	0.740000	8.436200	6.066572	0.014978
1982	12.43342	4.836282	0.810000	8.462505	4.999911	0.036322
1983	12.41604	4.828314	1.030000	8.568285	4.310799	0.026132
1984	12.34749	4.820282	1.160000	8.431766	3.693867	-0.030811
1985	12.33383	4.820282	1.600000	8.481172	4.283587	-0.089824
1986	12.44120	4.828314	1.830000	8.434029	4.592085	-0.001657
1987	12.45988	4.828314	2.310000	8.651934	5.215479	-0.033102
1988	12.45292	4.836282	2.660000	8.880919	5.230039	-0.057921
1989	12.52601	4.836282	2.350000	9.004619	7.021263	-0.031355
1990	12.59504	4.836282	2.990000	9.502077	7.437324	-0.016352
1991	12.70261	4.836282	3.390000	9.672331	7.644536	0.060467
1992	12.70273	4.836282	3.550000	9.941761	7.910114	0.040235
1993	12.72869	4.836282	3.480000	10.30223	7.132737	0.094287
1994	12.74415	4.828314	3.850000	10.53933	9.275004	0.008534
1995	12.75196	4.828314	4.120000	10.88091	8.866271	0.012910
1996	12.77322	4.820282	4.350000	10.91190	8.990342	0.012952
1997	12.81371	4.812184	4.410000	10.98455	9.827702	0.016302
1998	12.84220	4.795791	5.130000	11.22690	6.974292	0.094813
1999	12.86997	4.744932	5.300000	11.53947	10.14916	-0.025184
2000	12.88184	4.718499	5.390000	12.18986	10.00487	-0.031462
2001	12.92958	4.691348	6.090000	12.59375	10.53298	-0.057417
2002	12.97568	4.663439	6.210000	12.95795	10.60315	-0.036993
2003	13.02096	4.634729	7.020000	13.20911	9.900598	-0.027952
2004	13.11233	4.605170	6.080000	13.22998	9.260368	0.123199
2005	13.17605	4.574711	9.640000	13.57868	9.944874	-0.051489
2006	13.23914	4.543295	9.850000	13.70382	11.47871	-0.069975
2007	13.29770	4.510860	10.40000	14.01226	12.28553	-0.088359
2008	13.36020	4.477337	10.53000	14.22472	12.59531	-0.061942
2009	13.41831	4.442651	11.12000	14.17042	11.68435	-0.021017
2010	13.48559	4.418841	11.36000	14.31532	11.73546	0.018417
2011	13.56234	4.382027	12.22000	14.53615	13.91383	-0.048290
2012	13.63399	4.356709	12.25000	14.32490	11.71363	0.088068
2013	13.69773	4.356709	12.50000	14.33039	14.28624	0.047975
2014	13.70293	4.382027	12.94000	14.32490	14.29322	0.040977
2015	13.70410	4.406719	13.11000	14.33039	14.29870	0.044531
2016	13.70580	4.073719	13.12000	14.35059	14.34270	0.045571

Souces: CBN BULLETIN 2016

Customer Retention Strategies and Business Performance: A Survey of Selected Retail Chain Stores in South-South, Nigeria

ASAGBA Samuel¹, COKER Preye Robert² and OKWUDU A. Andrew³

¹Business Practitioner, Yenagoa, Bayelsa State, Nigeria | Email: asagbasamuel@gmail.com

²Doctoral Candidate, Department of Marketing, Niger Delta University, Bayelsa State, Nigeria |
Email: cokerresearchscholar@gmail.com

³Doctoral Candidate, Department of Marketing, University of Uyo, Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria |
Email: okwuduaan@gmail.com

Abstract: The objective of this study is to examine the relationship between customer retention strategies and business performance in terms of profitability of retail chain stores in south-south, Nigeria. The study adopted the descriptive survey research design. The sample size of this study consist of 272 targeted respondents drawn from 18 selected and registered retail chain stores in south-south, Nigeria. The study utilized the stratified and convenience sampling techniques to select the target respondents. The study made use of questionnaire and personal interview and secondary sources of data collection method. Spearman rank order correlation coefficient was used for the bivariate analysis to test the first three hypotheses and partial correlation was also adopted to test the last hypothesis with the aid of SPSS version 2.0. The findings of the study reveal that pricing, service quality and customer service care are significant predictors of retail chain stores profitability. Customer satisfaction has a strong relationship with customer retention and business performance. The study concludes that for customer to remain loyal overtime with a particular chain store is dependent on the effective administration of price, service quality rendered and care given to him/her consistently. The study recommends that managers of retail chain stores must ensure that customer retention strategies such as pricing, service quality and customer service care be given priority attention in order to remain competitive and profitable. Finally, customer satisfaction should be a core managerial policy that must cut across every facet of the retail chain store.

Key words: Customer retention strategy, customer satisfaction, profitability and business performance.

© 2020. Asagba Samuel, Coker Preye Robert and Okwudu A. Andrew. This is a research/review paper, distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-Noncommercial 4.0 Unported License <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/>), permitting all non-commercial use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

1. INTRODUCTION

Chain stores are two or more outlets that are commonly owned, managed and controlled by one person or group of persons (Kotler and Armstrong, 2010). Retail chain stores in Nigeria and other developing nations are growing faster in number as a result of the increase in minimum wage across the nation, increase in employment among parents, emergence of middle class in the

Nigerian society, increasing urbanization, increasing number of women labour force (Oyeniya and Abiodun, 2012; Rana, Osman and Islam, 2014) and life style dynamics of consumers taste and shopping preference also contributed to the growth of retail chain stores in Nigeria and other developing economies. As such, chain outlets in Nigeria are adopting a more consumer-oriented strategy that would help to attract customers and retain them as well in order to gain competitive advantage.

In today's contemporary and competitive business world, customer retention strategy focused on satisfying and preserving the customer in order not to be taken over by competitors. The chain store business is so competitive and dynamic in the sense that competitors are looking out for ways to capture customers from another company by providing value added services in a unique way. This has reinvigorated the need for a more robust customer retention strategy in chain stores to facilitate business performance. One of the key challenges is how retail chain stores can manage the effective implementation of customer retention strategy which holds strongly to business performance. Perhaps, over the years there has been a high rate of liquidation or closure of supermarkets and chain stores in most Nigerian cities (Ezenwanne, 2005). This is caused by poor management and the inability to initiate robust customer retention strategies that would help to leverage business performance. Under this condition, the defection rate of existing customers becomes imminent, by losing significant number of buyers to competitors that impact major support to organizational profitability and growth, which is quite worrisome. The essence of customer retention strategy is to address these problems by striving to retain customers that will be devoted to the retail firms due to the benefit attached to customers who are committed (Schmittlein, 1995; Ghavami and Olyaei, 2006). This argument is valid, because there is a general saying in marketing that retaining customers is far better than pursuing to acquire new ones, which is more expensive to the firm. This could be achieved by incorporating effective pricing policy, service quality and customer service care, which are key dimensions of customer retention strategies (Igwe et al, 2012; Ocloo and Tsetse, 2013; Sharmeela et al., 2013; Mukwada, 2011; Rajaram and Sriram, 2014; Ode, 2013). These strategies have not been fully implemented by retailers of chain stores in Nigeria, despite the benefits accrued to it.

However, in exploring extant literature it is obvious that there is sparse research on financial measures of business performance; most of the empirical studies are more of non-financial measures in relation with customer retention strategies and business performance, and customer satisfaction as moderating construct. Based on the foregoing, it is imperative to ask; to what extent does pricing as a customer retention strategy relates with retail chain store's profitability? Does service quality impact on chain store profitability? Or does customer service care influence retail chain store profitability? Does customer satisfaction moderates customer retention strategy and business performance in selected chain stores in south-south, Nigerian? The answers to these questions are the basic justification of this study and it would contribute immensely to the growing literature in the retail chain stores in Nigeria and possibly bridge the gap. Therefore, this paper is targeted at exploring the empirical relationship between the dimensions of customer retention strategies and business performance of retail chain stores in south-south, Nigeria.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

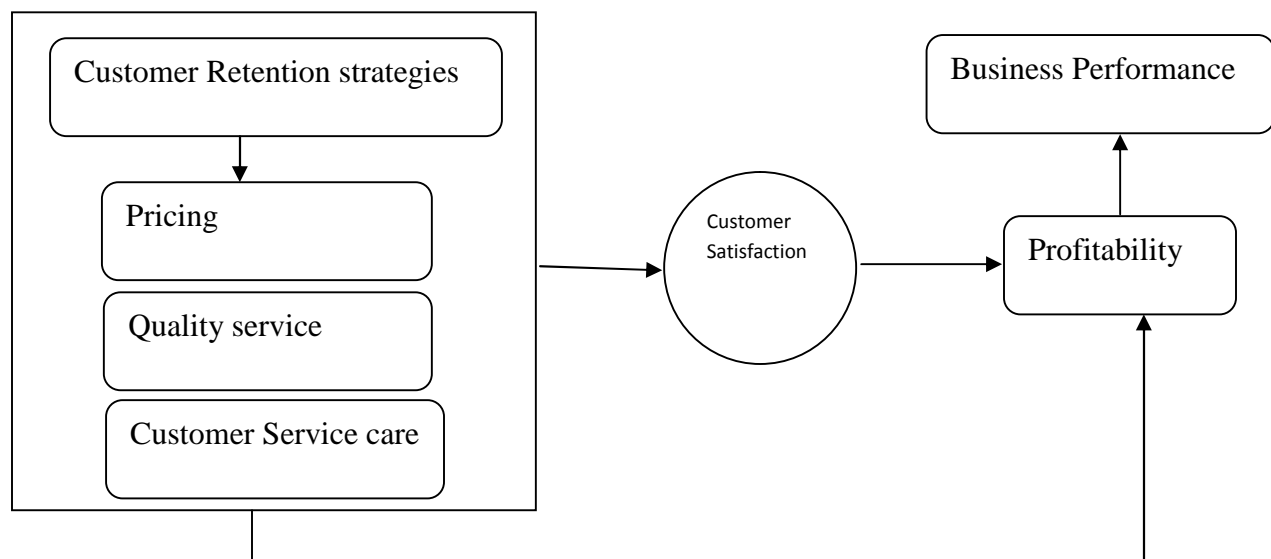
2.1 Theoretical Framework

The theoretical underpinning of this study is rooted from the work of Slater (1997) on customer value-based theory of firms. The theory states that the organization should strive to understand

what the customer wants, provide it, surpass customer expectations and stand out in the market. The creation of customer value must be the ultimate justification for the firms' existence and success. The increasing complexity and competitive environment facing the chain stores in Nigeria, requires chain outlets owners to map out better strategies that will retain its customers, so as to increase performance in the long run. These performances can only be attained, if organizations are willing to create values in the products they sell or services rendered to customers. Slater (1997) argues that when customers demand a product it depends on the service quality a firms provide for buyers. Customer satisfaction can be achieve when superior customer values is delivered by organization. Slater further argues that greater performance of any business is the result of providing superior customer values; better performance enable firms possess competitive advantage. The strategies to be adopted by retail chain stores that will enhance better performance solidly rest on the perceived value customers attach to the products or services.

In order to establish the empirical relationship and provide a deep theoretical insight on customer retention strategies and business performance, we have to operationalize the conceptual framework of this study.

Conceptual Framework for the study



Source: Researchers conceptualization, 2019 as adapted from Igwe, et al, 2012; Sharmeela-Banu et al (2013); Otaibi and Yasmeen, (2014); Rana, Osman and Islam (2014).

2.2 Customer Retention Strategies

Customer retention strategy is the marketing oriented goals that prevent customers from competitors (Ramakrishnan, 2006). According to Mostert et al (2009) asserts that it is a strategy aimed at sustaining existing customers to stay with the company in established time. We can say that customer retention strategies are action plans geared towards creating value for customers by encouraging them to be loyal customers with the company over time. However, from the various

definitions it is obvious that sustainability is the primary focus of retention strategy. Perhaps acquiring new customer is a very difficult task and highly cost intensive for firms. It is more desirable to strive to retain customers than seeking to acquire new ones. According to Robert (2017) the easiest way to grow your business is not to lose your customers. That is why Honts and Hanson (2011) argue that retaining customers improve profitability by reducing cost incurred to acquire new customers. Sharmeela-Banu, et al (2013) opines that retained customers are more loyal as a result of incentives or value created for them.

2.3 Dimensions of Customer Retention Strategies

The dimensions of customer retention strategies in this study are pricing, service quality and customer service care (Igwe et al., 2012; Ocloo and Tsetse, 2013; Sharmeela-Banu et al., 2013; Molapo and Mukwada, 2011; Rajaram and Sriram, 2014; Ode, 2013).

2.3.1 Pricing

Pricing is regarded as one of the key elements of the marketing mix. Price is the amount of money charged for a product or service (Kotler and Armstrong, 2010). It is the most powerful tool available to raise business performance (Michan et al., 2011). According to Igwe et al (2012) price has been perceived as a significant variable influencing products or services acceptance, usage and future patronage. Price could be measured in terms of price cut, price discount, sales promotion and other price incentives (Ocloo and Tsetse, 2013). Whatever pricing measure adopted in acquiring customers and also influencing customer's retention and lifetime value with the firm sometimes might be counterproductive (Polo et al., 2011 as cited in Sharmeela-Banu et al., 2013; Ocloo and Tsetse, 2013). This is because many retail chain stores and companies in Nigeria do not manage pricing strategy effectively. Pricing should be continually reviewed and revised based on prevailing market conditions. Perhaps effective customer oriented pricing should look at how much value consumers attached on the benefits they get from the product or service and setting a price that actually captures this value (Kotler and Armstrong, 2010). Carolyn and Saad (2006 as cited in Rana et al., 2014) corroborates by saying that if the price of the product or service is set high, customers will be looking up for high quality in return, hence they feel dissatisfied or cheated and if the price is low they will perceive a low quality. Therefore, it is admitted that if the price is high and is in line with customer expectations i.e meeting customer value, the customer would be willing to pay more (Molapo and Mukwada, 2011), satisfied, make a repeat purchase and as well as telling family and friends about the brand experience. Based on the above premise, we hereby propose that:

Ha₁: *Pricing significantly and positively accounts for retail chain store profitability.*

2.3.2 Service Quality

The concept of service quality has received great attention among scholars, researchers and practitioners globally (Ode, 2013; Angelova and Zekiri, 2011) because customer satisfaction is the basic reason for firm existence, which has impacted on business performance. According to Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1988) assert that service quality is an effort to measure the gap that exists between customer expectations and customer perceptions of service performance. We can say that service quality is the positive outcome of perceived expected performance. Customers evaluate service quality in relation with what they desire by comparing their perceptions of service experiences with their expectations of what service performance should be (Angelova and Zekiri, 2011). Since customer's expectations in regards to service quality has

become paramount, companies have realized that for them to remain in business and make profit, more strategic focus should be tailored to service quality in order to be competitive. Rendering quality service is the best way to promote customer satisfaction, customer loyalty, retention and profitability but how it is measured is a major concern to retailers. Service quality measurement in retailing most especially retail chain stores is quite different from other services as a result of its unique characteristics (Oyeniya and Abiodun, 2012). Parasuraman et al (1988) developed the SERVQUAL model in measuring service quality but this model has not met the expectation of measuring service quality within the retail setting and a more robust model i.e Retail Service Quality Scale (RSQS) was developed by Dabholkar, Thorpe and Rentz in 1996 which captured physical aspect, reliability, personal interaction, problem solving and policy (Oyeniya and Abiodun, 2012). It was empirically proven that RSQS is capable of measuring service quality and customer satisfaction (Rajaram and Sriram, 2014).

In view of the above discussion, we hypothesized as follows:

Ha2: *Service quality positively and significantly impact on retail chain store profitability.*

2.2.3 Customer Service Care

Customer service care as a dimension of customer retention strategy in this study cannot be best explain without defining the underlying concept that paved way for the construct, which is customer service. Customer service could be referred to as the provision of service rendered to customers before, during and after the purchase (Igwe et al., 2012). Customer service is perceived as the provision of value added services for firm's merchandises irrespective of the nature of its offerings (Roberts et al. 2003; Qin et al. 2009 as cited in Sharmeela-Banu, et al. 2013). We can say that customer service is a routine managerial activities tailored to enrich the customer feelings of satisfaction in line with the customer expectations. From the above conceptualizations it is clear that customer service entails series of activities that makes the customer have a sense of happiness or satisfaction in respect of the value paid. Customer service care is always experienced whenever there is an interface between the customer and the organization (Igwe et al., 2012). Customer service care as a variant of customer service entails an embodiment of activities built on customer service which may often include answering questions, taking orders, dealing with billing issues, handling complaints, attending to enquiries, response to service delivery, response to problem customers (Igwe et al., 2012) and helping customers to carry items bought on the shelves to the point of payment or to the point of loading and rendering apology for service failure. Admittedly, customer service care could be measured along these dimensions. Perhaps good customer service care greatly influence customer perception towards the quality of firm service (Sharmeela-Banu, et al. 2013) which in turn enhance satisfaction, retention and performance. Therefore, SERVQUAL or RSQS model could be applied to measure the degree of quality of customer service care and quality customer service care is very essential in building customer relationship, increase usage and patronage of a product or service (Igwe et al., 2012). Based on the above argument we proposed as follows:

Ha3: *Customer service care positively and significantly influence retail chain store profitability.*

2.4 Customer Satisfaction

Customer satisfaction is adopted here as a moderating construct between customer retention strategies and business performance in the aspect of retail chain store profitability. The term customer satisfaction is widely used by scholars and practitioners in marketing literature as a

business non-financial performance measure. Here the construct is used differently. Customer satisfaction is perceived to be a complex concept and very difficult to conceptualize and measured (Ode, 2013). Despite the complexity, let us look at few definitions and come up with ours. Customer satisfaction could be defined as the individual feelings of the performance of the product or service in connection with his/her expectation (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2009 as cited in Igwe et al., 2012). According to Ayimey, Victor and Abdulai (2013) customer satisfaction is the state of mind of the customer concerning whether his/her expectation is met over the life time of the product or service. We can deduce that customer satisfaction is the individual judgment of fulfillment or excitement in terms of expectations for product or service usage. Looking at the various conceptualizations you will see that customer satisfaction is centered on the measure of the difference between perceived service and expected service. The perceived service is the customer's experience while using the product or service, while the expected service is what the quality ought to be in the minds of the customer. The fall in expectation denotes a difference (gap) which results to dissatisfaction. The basic objective of all marketing organizations is to close this gap by maximizing customer satisfaction. In fact it is the basic justification for firm existence. Customer satisfaction has been a great challenge to most retailing firms, because they have to make available good plans or budget to monitor the progress level of how their customers are satisfied and it is the key to customer retention (Kotler, 2010). Ayimey et al (2013) reinvigorated this claim by saying that the best strategic path to customer retention is to deliver high customer satisfaction level that will lead to strong customer loyalty and performance. Thus, customer satisfaction is regarded as a great outcome of service quality, effective pricing and customer service care which can further stimulate relationship durability, profit and growth in business through increased customer loyalty and retention (Igwe et al., 2012; Ibok et al., 2012; Parasuraman et al., 1988; Nacem and Saif, 2009; Khan and Tabassum, 2010; Ocloo and Tsetse, 2013) and lesser switching tendencies. Although customer satisfaction sometimes does not really guarantee retention, because even when the customer is satisfied he/she could defect as well, due to competitors pressure or friends and family influenced or change in preference to test something new (Molapo and Mukwada, 2011; Gummesson, 1999) or impulse purchase. Customer satisfaction could be measured in terms of happiness, excitement, customers' complaint, sense of comfort, pleasant experience, and pleasure (Ode, 2013; Ocloo and Tsetse, 2013; Sharmeela-Banu et al., 2013). These measures of customer satisfaction will be adopted in this study. As a result of the above discussion we proposed that:

Ha4: *Customer satisfaction positively and significantly moderates customer retention and business performance of retail chain stores.*

2.5 Business Performance

Business performance is the operational capability of the management of organization tailored towards achieving pre-determined goals and objectives of major share holders and it is used as a measure of organizational success (Igwe, Coker and Chukwu, 2016). According to Lebas and Euske (2002 as cited in Kellen, 2003) performance is doing today what will lead to measured value outcomes tomorrow. Business performance helps businesses in periodically setting goals and providing feedback to managers on progress towards these goals (Kellen, 2003).

Business performance can be sub-divided into two distinct areas such as financial and non-financial performance (Kaplan and Norton, 2001). Financial performance is more of monetary or quantitative measures, while non-financial performance is non-monetary or qualitative measures. The quantitative measures reflects the firm's financial situation, which can be

determined using indicators like profit margin, return on assets, return on sales, return on investment etc. (Huang et al., 2004; Yee et al., 2010). On the other extreme, qualitative measures basically focused on the long term achievement of firms by looking at customer gratification, internal business process, productivity, service quality, and employee fulfillment (Laitinen, 2002; Avci et al., 2010; Aramyan et al., 2007; Zigan and Zeglat, 2010 as cited in Sharmeela-Banu et al., 2013) and customer satisfaction and loyalty are regarded to be core aspect of retail chain store non-financial performance measures (Sharmeela-Banu et al., 2013). Here we are basically concerned with profitability as a measure of retail chain store financial performance.

3. METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study is to examine customer retention strategies and firms profitability within selected retail chain stores in south-south, Nigeria. The population of this study consists of the totality of retail chain stores that currently operates in Nigeria. Since it is very difficult to study the entire chain stores in Nigeria, due to the limitation of time in regards to the duration of the study and cost of travels, we focused our study on 18 selected retail chain stores and supermarkets in south-south region of Nigeria; that would be the true representation of the entire population. However, the descriptive research design via survey method was adopted to retrieve information from the target population. Therefore, 10 copies of questionnaires were sent out to senior academicians and chain stores consultants for correctness (pre-test) in order to ascertain the content validity. Perhaps a quite number of modifications were made. The questionnaire was pilot tested to verify its suitability or applicability for the target population by administering 30 copies to top managers in chain stores across the south-south region in Nigeria. Perhaps twenty three of the respondents filled and returned theirs, while seven of the respondents did not, making 77% and 23% rate of response respectively. To ascertain the sample size, the researchers applied the Top man's formular of sample size determination since there is no available statistical record concerning the total population of chain stores in Nigeria.

$$n = (z)^2 \frac{P*Q}{e^2}$$

n= Sample size

z=Degree of confidence

p= probability of response

q= probability of non-response

e= standard error

Note: z=95%=1.96 and e= 0.05

$$p = 23/30 = 0.766 = 0.77$$

$$q = 7/30 = 0.23$$

$$n = (1.96)(1.96) * (0.77)(0.23) / (0.05)(0.05) = 3.8416 * 0.1771 / 0.0025$$

$$n = 0.6804 / 0.0025 = 272$$

$$n = 272$$

The sample size is 272.

Table 1. Questionnaires Distribution

S/No .	Names of (18) registered chain stores	Location	Accessible population	Respondents
i	Everyday Supermarket	No. 107 Aba Road/ Estate Port Harcourt River State Nig.	26	10
Ii	Buy Right Supermarket	No. 28 Liberation Stadium Road Port Harcourt, River State Nig.	17	8
Iii	Love Brothers Supermarket	No. A1/A2 Okpanam Road Asaba Delta State Nig.	12	8
Iv	Well Come Supermarket	No. 273 Nnibisi Road Asaba Delta State Nig.	16	8
V	Friendly Supermarket	No. 188 Summit Road Warri Delta State Nig.	12	7
Vi	Clean Market Supermarket	No. 202 Peter Odili Road Port Harcourt, Rivers State Nig.	15	7
Vii	Zoro Supermarket	No. 56 Sakpoba road Benin City Edo State Nig.	18	8
Viii	Nosi Supermarket	No. 213 Ugbowo Lagos Road. Benin City Edo, State Nig.	12	7
Ix	Sparks Shop Supermarket	No. 57 Ettaagbo, Opp. Unical Small Gate Calabar State. Cross River Nig.	14	7
X	Favourite Supermarket	No. 103 Marian Road by Atekong Drive, Calabar Cross River State Nig.	19	9
Xi	Sunny Tex Super Store	No. 98 Marian Road by Ekong Etta, Calabar Cross River State Nig.	13	8
Xii	Central Supermarket	No. 57 Oron Road Uyo, Akwa Ibom State Nig.	17	8
Xiii	Continental Supermarket	No. 168 Nwaniba Road Uyo Akwa Ibom State Nig.	12	8
Xiv	Mainland Supermarket	No. 54 Oron Road Uyo, Akwa Ibom State Nig.	15	8
Xv	General Supermarket	No. 201 Mbiama Yenagoa Road, Bayelsa State Nig.	18	10
Xvi	Next 2 Next Supermarket	No. 205, Isaac Boro Express way Yenagoa, Bayelsa State Nig.	12	8
Xvii	Sunky Supermarket	No. 105 Azikoro Road Yenagoa, Bayelsa State Nig.	12	8
Xviii	Grant Supermarket	No. 101 Benin Sapele Road Benin City Edo State Nig.	12	8
TOTAL			272	145

Source: Field Survey, 2019

The sample size was chosen by the adoption of stratified and convenience sampling techniques. The total of one hundred and forty five (145) respondents completely filled and returned their questionnaires out of the two hundred and seventy two (272) respondents issued, making 53.31% rate of response, which is relatively above average. The low response rate is attributed to the fact that the study is an holistic study that covers the entire south-south region of Nigeria and the inability of the respondents to completely filled and returned their questionnaires within the expected time frame given to them makes it difficult for the researchers to travel twice to retrieve it, due to the cost implications. Perhaps, the convenience and stratified random sampling techniques were adopted to select the target respondents on the basis of geographical region and status of respondents, which comprise branch managers, marketing managers, accountants, sales managers, sales attendants, cashiers and others. The study designed five (5) key constructs of customer retention strategies and used multi-item measures adopted from Igwe et al, 2012; Ocloo and Tsetse, 2013; Sharmeela- Banu et al., 2013; Mukwada, 2011; Rajaram and Sriram, 2014; Ode, 2013. Also, 5 point Likert scale type was designed ranging from strongly agreed (5) to strongly disagreed (1). In addition, the spearman rank order correlation coefficient and multi-regression statistical tools were used to test the various hypotheses with the aid of SPSS.

4. DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics

Variables	Mean	No. Of Items	Standard Deviation	Cronbach Alpha
Pricing	2.52	4	1.510	0.967
Service quality	2.94	4	1.704	0.979
Customer service care	3.49	4	1.704	0.981
Profitability	3.40	4	1.467	0.965
Customer satisfaction	2.92	4	1.499	0.972

Source: Researchers analysis, 2019.

The result from table 3 reveals that the mean scores of pricing, service quality, customer service care, and profitability are 2.52, 2.94, 3.49 and 3.40 respectively. From the findings the study reveals that the low mean score of pricing as compared to other two dimensions is attributed to the fact that price is a factor to be considered when patronizing a particular chain store but it is not a sufficient condition for the customer to remain loyal but how the customer expectations are met as well as how he/she is treated with care. The reliability of each measure was highly satisfactory with cronbach alpha values greater than the cut-off mark of 0.7. This shows that there is high degree of internal consistency of the measures used in this study.

4.1 Correlation Analysis

The correlation analysis was used to determine the strength of relationship between the dimensions of customer retention strategies and business performance using Spearman's rank order correlation coefficient (rho).

Table 3. Correlation Test of Hypotheses

Variables	Spearman rank correlation coefficient (rho)(2-tailed)	Pricing	Profitability
Pricing Profitability	N N	1.000 145 .927 0.000 145	.927*** 1 145
Service Quality Profitability	N N	1.000 .950 .000 145	.950*** 1 145
Customer Service care Profitability	N N	1.000 .975 .000 145	.975*** 1 145

****Correlation is significant at 0.01 level (2-tailed).**

Ha1: There is significant and positive relationship between pricing and profitability of chain stores in south-south, Nigeria.

The result of the findings as demonstrated in table 4 shows a very strong and significant correlation ($\rho = 0.927$) between pricing and profitability at $p < 0.005$, $N = 145$. Hence, we can say that pricing as a dimension of customer retention strategy is a predictor of chain store profitability.

Ha2: There is significant and positive relation between service quality and profitability in chain stores in south-south, Nigeria.

The result shows the correlation coefficient as 0.950 at $p < 0.005$, $N = 145$. This reveals that there is a strong and positive relationship between service quality and chain store profitability.

Ha3: There is significant and positive relationship between customer service care and profitability in chain stores in south-south, Nigeria.

From the table, the result shows a strong and positive correlation between customer service care and chain store profitability as $\rho = 0.975$ at $p \leq 0.05$, $n = 145$. However, from the basis of the strength of relationship, we therefore deduce that customer service care is a predictor of chain stores profitability.

4.2 Multiple Regression Analysis

The multiple regression analysis was used in order to ascertain the moderating influence of customer satisfaction on the three dimensions of customer retention strategies and business performance (profitability). Hence, the fourth hypothesis was developed, that "Customer Satisfaction does not moderate the relationship between customer retention strategies and business performance". This hypothesis was tested using the partial correlation analysis with the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) with the ordinal scale.

Table 4: Hypothesis four (Partial Correlation)

Correlations			Customer Retention Strategies	Business Performance	Customer Satisfaction
Control Variables					
-none- ^a	Customer Retention Strategies	Correlation	1.000	.856	.939
		Significance (2-tailed)	.	.000	.000
		Df	0	138	138
	Business Performance	Correlation	.856	1.000	.853
		Significance (2-tailed)	.000	.	.000
		Df	143	0	143
	Customer Satisfaction	Correlation	.939	.853	1.000
		Significance (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.
		Df	138	138	0
	Customer Retention Strategies	Correlation	1.000	.306	
		Significance (2-tailed)	.	.000	
		Df	0	143	
Customer Satisfaction	Business Performance	Correlation	.306	1.000	
		Significance (2-tailed)	.000	.	
		Df	143	0	

a. Cells contain zero-order (Pearson) correlations.k

The table above indicates that customer satisfaction moderates the affiliation between customer retention strategies and business performance of chain stores in Nigeria. We therefore reject the null hypothesis, meaning that customer satisfaction moderates the relationship between customer retention strategies and business performance.

5. DISCURSION OF RESULTS

On the basis of the hypotheses tested, the results are discussed within the context of existing literature of customer retention strategies, business performance and customer satisfaction. From the First hypothesis, the finding reveals that pricing as a dimension of customer retention strategy is a significant driver of business performance in terms of profitability in retail chain stores as well as supermarkets. This corroborates with the findings of Ocloo and Tsetse (2013) that price based programmes are used in solidifying customer retention which in turn increases profitability. That is why kotler and Amstrong (2010) opines that pricing is a key strategic tool and one of the elements of the marketing mix that determines a firm's profitability. The second hypothesis revealed that service quality enhances chain stores profitability. This finding is in agreement with the findings of Igwe, Amue and Asiegbu (2012) and Ode (2013) that service

quality rendered by GSM or telecommunication providers ensure customer satisfaction and sustainable customer patronage. This also confirmed the findings of Mc Daniel et al (2005) that service quality, customer satisfaction and customer service led to business performance. Molapo and Mukwada (2011) have a contrary view that service quality is necessary but not sufficient condition for customer retention. The finding from the third hypothesis shows that customer service care is a predictor of chain store profitability. This findings is in line with the findings of Igwe et al.,(2012) that sustained customer patronage(retention) is a function of customer service care which in turn generate profit for GSM firms. Oyeniyi & Abiodun (2008) also agreed that customer service attract customers who are later committed in patronizing the firm's brand from a particular business and this will in turn increases the revenue of the firm.. Finally, the fourth hypothesis uses partial correlation to ascertain the moderating influence of customer satisfaction on customer retention strategies and business performance. The findings reveal that customer satisfaction actually influences customer retention and business performance. The reason is that if a customer patronized a chain store and did not derive expected satisfaction, the customer would not want to make a repeat purchase; as such it will have a negative impact on profitability. This argument is corroborated by Igwe et al (2012) that determinants of patronage and sustained customer patronage (retention) are functions of customer satisfaction. This implies that the primary objective of any firm is to ensure that customers are satisfied, which is the basic justification for it existence.

6. CONCLUSION

In the course of carrying out this research study, we were able to unravel the relationship between customer retention strategies and business performance in retail chain stores in Nigeria. The findings reveal that pricing, service quality and customer service care are strong predictors of business performance in terms of retail chain stores profitability. This implies that the chances of customers to remain loyal over time with a particular chain store and to ensure profitability is dependent on the effective administration of prices of their products in the aspect of price incentives like discounts or sales promotion, the kind of service quality rendered such as responsiveness or reliability and customer service care in the aspect of how the customer complaints or problems are resolved instantly. Putting all these strategic measures right is a sure way for retail chain store profitability as empirically proven in this study. Although from the findings the study reveals that pricing is necessary but not the major determinants of customer retention, but service quality and customer service care as indicated by the mean scores and degree of correlations. The reason is that some customers are willing to pay more price instead of compromising quality and care. In addition, lower prices sometimes could be perceived as low quality. That is why Ocloo and Tsetse (2013) opines that relying on price incentives which seems to be one of the main strategies for retaining customers could be counterproductive. The customer does not necessary remain satisfied or loyal as a result of price, though the result shows strong correlation. Perhaps, customer satisfaction was proven to be a key moderator that interface between customer retention and business performance in retail chain stores in Nigeria. This denotes that when the customer is satisfied in respect of the prices, service quality and care given to him, there is this tendency that the customer would remain loyal, which in turn generate profit for the firm. Therefore, with the increasing competition in the retail chain stores and supermarkets in Nigeria, managers of these respective outlets must ensure that customer retention strategies such as pricing, service quality and customer service care should be the pivotal strategic measures to be adopted in order to remain competitive and profitable. More attention should be given to the latter two dimensions because they are the life-wires that strikes

the customer touch points. Finally, customer satisfaction should be a core managerial policy that must cut across every facet of the retail chain store.

7. THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

This study examines customer retention strategies and business performance in terms of profitability of retail chain stores in South-South, Nigeria. It is pertinent to say that researchers, academicians and students in marketing and other allied disciplines could use our model as a foundation to explore further research within the context of customer retention, satisfaction and profitability. The practical implication is that practicing managers most especially in retail chain stores and supermarkets will use the findings of this study as a guide to management strategic thinking and policies, which is centered on customers' sustainability in order to have competitive edge in their businesses.

8. LIMITATIONS AND FURTHER DIRECTIONS

This study made use of only three dimensions of customer retention strategies, more dimensions should be identified to expand our model.

- Only one financial measure was adopted in our study; researchers should navigate further by exploring more financial measures to ascertain if actually the dimensions chosen could account for profitability.
- There are other moderating factors which this study did not give account of such as switching cost. Other studies should look at it as key moderator to customer retention and business performance.
- Our study is limited to the South-South region in Nigeria, while chain stores and supermarkets are spread all over the country; other studies should look at other region to ascertain if actually these dimensions used by us can as well lead to business performance.

REFERENCES

- Ayimey E. K., Victor, D. A., & Abdulai, (2013). Customer retention strategies of SIC life insurance company limited in Ghana: An exploratory assessment. *Current Research Journal on Social Science*. 5(5), 163-167.
- Angelova B., & Zekiri, J. (2011). Measuring customer satisfaction with service quality using America customer satisfaction model. *International Journal of Academic Research*.1(3), 232-255.
- Ezenwanne, Y. N. (2005). *A study of customer care practices in selected major supermarket in Enugu, Nigeria*. A research dissertation. Ghavami, A. and Olyaei, A. (2006).
- Ghavami, A., & Olyaei, A. (2006). *The Impact of CFRM on customer retention* (Master's Thesis, Lulea University of Technology).
- Gummenson, E., (1999). *Total relationship Marketing*. 1st edition. Butterworth-Heinemann. Britain.
- Honts, R., & Hanson, J. (2011). *Maximizing customer retention: a strategic approach to effective churn management*. Accenture white paper.
- Huang, X., Soutar, G.N., & Brown, A. (2004). Measuring new product success: an empirical investigation of Australian SMEs. *Industrial marketing Management*, 33 (2), 117-123.
- Ibok I. N., George, E. S., & Acha, I. A. (2012). Customer retention practices of microfinance

- banks. *European Journal of Business and Management*. 4(14), 146-152.
- Igwe, S. R., Amue, J., & Asiegbu I. (2012). Nature and determinants of sustainable customer patronage in GSM Industry: The Nigerian experience. *Journal of Business and Value Creation*, 1,(1),61-74.
- Igwe, S. R., Coker, P. R., & Chukwu, G. C. (2016). Improving on time delivery through supply chain collaboration. The experience of brewery firms in south-south, Nigeria. *Journal of Asian Business Strategy*. 6(7),136-149.
- Kaplan, R. S. & Norton, D. P. (2001). Transforming the balanced scorecard from performance measurement to strategic management. Part-I. *Accounting Horizon*. 15(1), 87-104.
- Kellen, V. (2003). *Business performance measurement: at the crossroad of strategy, decision making, learning, and information visualization*. Faculty of E-commerce Depaul university, Chicago,IL, U.S.A.
- Khan, P. I., & Tabassum, A. (2010). Service quality and customer satisfaction of the beauty care service industry in Dhaka: a study on high-end women's parlors. *The Journal of Business in Developing Nation*. 12(11), 32-57.
- Kotler, P. & Armstrong, G. (2010) *Principles of marketing 11th edition*. New York: prentice Hall International. USA.
- Mechan, J, Simonetto, M, Montan L, & Goodin C. (2011). *Pricing and profitability management: A practical guide for business leaders*. 1st edition. Wiley publishers.
- Mc Daniel, J.C, Gupta A. & Herath, S.K. (2005). Quality Management in Service Firms: Sustaining Structures of Total Quality Service. *Managing Service Quality*, 15(4), 389-402.
- Molapo, M. E.. & Mukwada G. (2011). The import of customer retention strategies in the South African cellular industry: *International Journal of Business, Humanities and Technology*, 1(2), 52-60.
- Mostart, P.G., Meyer, D & Ransburg, L. R. J. (2009). The influence of service failure and service recovery on airline passenger's relationships with domestic airline: an explanatory study. *South African Business Review*. 13 (2).
- Nacem, H., & Saif, I. (2009). Service quality and its impact on customer satisfaction: empirical evidence from the Pakistani banking sector. *The International Business and Economics Research Journal*, 8(12), 99-220.
- Ocloo C. E & Tsetse E.K (2013). Customer retention in the Ghanaian mobile telecommunication industry. *European Journal of Social Science*. 2(7), 136-160.
- Ode, E. (2013). Customer satisfaction in mobile telephony: An analysis of major telecommunication service providers in Nigeria. *Asian Journal of Management Research*. 4 (1), 1-9.
- Otaibi, N. M., & Yasmeen, K. (2014) An Overview of Customer Loyalty Perceived Service Quality and Customer Satisfaction: Brief on Saudi Grocery Stores. *Journal of Entrepreneurship and Business Innovation*, 1 (1),79-97.
- Oyeniyi, O., & Abiodun A. J. (2008) "Customer service in the retention of mobile phone users in Nigeria", *African Journal of Business Management*, 2 (2), 026-031.
- Oyeniyi, O. A. & Abiodun, A. J. (2012) Measuring retail Service quality in Nigeria department stores. *International Journal of Economic Behaviors*. 2, 37-45.
- Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V., & Berry, L. (1988). SERVQUAL: A Multiple- Item Scale for Measuring Consumer Perceptions of Service Quality. *Journal of Retailing*, 64, 12- 40.

- Rajaram, P. C.S., & Sriram, V. P. (2014). Measuring retail service quality: a study on Indian departmental stores. *International Journal of Business Management and Economics Research*. 5(1), 16-19.
- Ramakrishnan, K. (2006). Customer retention: the key to business
<http://www.estrategicmarketing.com.smNovDec2/art11.html> (Accessed April 2010.)
- Rana S.M.S, Osman A., & Islam M.A (2014). Customer satisfaction of retail chain stores: evidence from Bangladesh. *Journal of Asian Scientific Research*, 4(10), 574-584.
- Robert, C. (2017). *Marketing wisdom* (Online). Retrieved from www.google.com. Assessed on 17th February, 2019.
- Schmittein, D. (1995). Customers as strategic assets: Mastering management. *The financial times*.
- Sharmeela-Banu, S.A, Gengeshwari, K., & Padmashantini, P.(2013). An extensive review on the impact of customer retention practices towards the performance of SMEs. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*.3 (7), 85-94.
- Slater, F. S. (1997) Developing a customer value based theory of the firm. *Journal of the Academy of marketing sciences*, 25(2), 162-167.
- Wang, Y. L. H. & Yang, Y. (2004). An integrated framework for service quality, customer value and satisfaction: evidence from China's telecommunication industry. *Information Systems Frontiers*, 6(4), 325-340.
- Yee, R. W., Yeung, A. C. & Edwin, T. C. (2010). An empirical Study of employee loyalty, service quality and firm performance in the service industry. *International Journal of Production Economics*, 124(1), 109-120.