International Journal of Management Sciences

Special Edition

Academic Scholars Publishing League (ASPL)

International Journal of Management Sciences

Special Edition

ASPL Journal Series

s/n	Contents	Pages

Effect of Green Advertising on Postgraduate Students' Purchasing Pattern in Nnamdi Azikiwe University

[1]Enidom, T. H. & [2]Anyasor, O. M. (Ph.D)
[1&2]Department of Marketing, Chukwuemeka Odumegwu Ojukwu University, Igbariam, Anambra State Nigeria

Abstract: *This study evaluated the effect of green advertising on postgraduate students' purchasing pattern in Nnamdi Azikiwe University. The variable of interest was green advertising. The study was anchored on sales effect theory. The research design for this study was survey research design. The postgraduate students of Nnamdi Azikiwe University were used as our respondents, which was 2499 in population. Borg & gall formula was used to determine the sample size used for the study, to arrive at 480. A total of 480 copies of the questionnaire were administered and 350 were dully filled. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and simple percentage were used both for the analysis and hypotheses testing. The research revealed that green advertising has a positive and significant effect on purchasing pattern of postgraduate students of Nnamdi Azikiwe University. The researcher recommended that there is a need for pursuit of environmental advertising through social media platforms which have overtime, been used to actively advance green marketing.*

Keywords: *Green advertising, Purchasing pattern, Eco-friendly, Postgraduate students, Environmental hazards, ANOVA*

Introduction

Green advertisement was initially incepted in the late 1960s as a result of concerns brought up by user activism, public and scientific communities and others about firms using anti-environmental practices (Easterling, Kenworthy, & Nemzoff, 1996). Over the years, green advertising decreased because of false claims via advertisements and exaggerations in the advertisement content. And it was found that consumers were perplexed about the terminologies used (Polonsky, Carlson, Grove & Kangun, 1997). The most successful tool that the marketers and advertisers frequently use to get consumers' awareness is advertising, which helps consumers to intricate their knowledge concerning product attributes and specifications (Buda & Zhang, 2000). Zinkhan and Carlson (1995) defined green advertising as the appeals that try to accomplish consumers' requirements and ambition concern to ecological concern and health issues from different perspectives including ecology, sustainability, and pollution-free messages.

Yin and Ma (2009) stated that green advertising wedged momentum in the 2000s, with developments in global legislations, worldwide support, transformed interest with consumers and so on, therefore, starting the sustainable age (Belz & Peattie, 2009). Green advertisements

refer to adverts including sustainability of the environment, eco-friendly content, substance targeting needs and desires of green consumers and other stakeholders (Zinkhan & Carlson, 1995). Lutz (1985) interprets that, advertising is one of the vital factors contributing to consumers' attitude and consumer openness to any products or services. Baldwin (1993) maintained that green advertisements add in translating consumer's supposed value of green products into purchases. However, contrary to this, in a research by Chase and Smith (1992), it was found that only about 70% of the respondents were influenced with green messages from advertising and eco-labelling. The same study further reported that more than 50% of the respondents did not pay enough attention to green messages from the advertisements because of its exploited use, making these advertisements less credible (Chase & Smith, 1992). Chan (2004), pointed that the core reasons for less credibility observed in terms of green advertisements may be as follows:

a. The country that is advertising the green product does appear as eco-friendly.

b. The manufacturer of the product does not appear eco-friendly.

c. The asserted eco-friendly nature of the product does not meet consumers' experience with the product.

There are numerous concerns among the buyers about environmental advertisement. According to Hashem (2011), this refers to giving true data about the items in a manner that does not harm the materialistic and good buyers' investments. Companies should give it a critical thought before they advertise their products, it is very important for companies to list the functions, design or uses of their products before they advertise them, this will help to avoid any misleading information about the products. According to Dua (2012), designing the tools of promotion is what the green promotion includes. For instance, web sites, signage, material for marketing and white papers by keeping planet and individuals in mind as their main aim is to make profit. After carrying out empirical research, Morel and Kwakye (2012) concluded their results by stating that there is a positive relationship between advertisement (publicizing) and state of mind towards green items.

In order to improve green movements worldwide and raise public attention to environmental problems, most organizations prefer environmental advertisements through media or newspapers as green techniques for introducing their products to environmentally responsible consumers. Green advertisement is one of the ways to influence consumers' purchasing behavior that will strongly encourage consumers to buy products that are eco-friendly to our environment. Besides, direct their attention to the positive consequences of their purchasing behavior, for themselves as well as the environment (Delafrooz, Taleghani & Nouri, 2014). Davis (2004) described that there are three elements in green advertisement. Firstly, the company will start a statement that is related to the environment. Secondly, the company will demonstrate its concern and dedication to improve the environment by its changed procedure from the green advertisement. Thirdly, specific environmental actions in which the company is involved will be promoted by green advertisement (Rahbar & Wahid, 2011). When the

population of companies using environmental interest in their advertisement is getting higher, even though some of them are just simply green washing, it will lead consumers to be suspicious towards environmental advertising. For marketing managers, who try to be environmentally responsible and anticipate a reward from consumers for their responsible behavior, the reliability and influences of green advertising is a major issue as marketing managers and advertising professionals need to master environmental information, communication and presentation of environmental information in the ads (Alniacik & Yilmaz, 2012).

Advertising is the main source of communication tool between the producer and the consumer. Advertising is a subset of promotion mix and it is one of the 4ps in the marketing mix which comprise product, price, place and promotion. Advertising is a promotion strategy which serves as a major tool in creating product awareness in the mind of the consumer to take purchasing decision. Advertising, sales promotion and public relations are mass communications tools used by marketers. Advertising through mass media influences audience, but television has mass reach and is the strongest medium of advertising. Advertising can influence the attitude of individual behavior, life style in the long run, as well as the culture of the country (Latif & Abideen, 2011). A company can enhance the brand of their product by investing in promotional activities in order to compete in a consumer market that is dominated through advertising (Hussainy, Riaz, Kazi & Herani, 2008). The primary aim of an advertisement is to reach consumers and influence their awareness, attitude and buying behavior. Their major preoccupation is to keep individuals' interest in their product through spending on advertising. They also need to understand what influences customer's behavior. Advertising has the potential to contribute to brand choice of consumers (Latif & Abideen, 2011).

Advertising impacts on consumer behavior. Brand memories consist of those associations that are related to brand name in consumer's mind. They are brand cognition influence consideration, evaluation and final purchase (Romaniuk & Sharp, 2003). Consumer behavior should be analyzed for effective advertising, to know why consumers behave in particular ways under certain circumstances. And also to know the factors that influence consumer behavior, especially the economic, social and psychological aspects (Ayanwale, Alimi & Ayabinpe, 2005). Advertising also creates advertisements which carry emotional bond with consumers.

Positive emotional appeals also provide a strong brand cue and stimulate category based processing (Abideen & Latif, 2011). With successful categorization, the effect and beliefs associated with this category in memory are translated to the objective itself. Consumers try to categorize the brand association with the existing memory, when thousands of products are faced by them and might reposition memories to a brand image and perception towards new products. In this way, they can categorize latest information in particular brands and store accordingly in their memory. Some organizations do not attach importance in advertising their products and this has adverse effect on their output in terms of sales of product. Others use different advertising media like television, internet (face book; email) newspaper, billboard,

magazine etc to convey their product message to their target audience. Companies spend major part of their budget on advertising strategies to promote their products/services. These advertisement strategies influence consumer buying behavior (Abideen & Latiff, 2011).

Rafique *et al,* 2012 argued that advertisement is a way to communicate with the audience. They believed that culture highly influence the buying behaviors of the people because, every person has different wants and trends according to their life styles. Thus if we say that advertisement is like a magic then it will not be false because advertisement actually changes the needs and wants of the people and sometimes it creates the need among the people (Yasir, Rafique, 2012).

People are highly affected by the advertisements, and organizations are trying to target the masses of the people. Organizations are using above the line and below the line techniques of the advertisement which fit best with their products. Researchers have found that media advertisement are most popular advertisements and people like television ads, so it is a suitable medium to advertise products like cosmetics and Fast-Moving Consumer Goods (FMCG). A research conducted in India found that adolescents are highly attracted towards the TV commercials. Along with that, teen girls also influenced by the TV commercials and they tend to buy the products which they saw in commercials. So it gives us an idea that mass media has the great impact on advertisements. Organizations are moving towards the creative content which attracts the teenage girls as well as boys to buy the products (Nidhi Kotwal, 2008). With the modern era there has been a remarkable boom in technology. With this technology, advertisers now consider the number of mass media channels and means of communications which provide them the easy and fast access to the consumers. Other side of this technology advancement is that customers are now having plenty of information and they can get the thing which best suits them. So it becomes very difficult for the advertiser to build the brand awareness and condition the mind of the customers to make final purchase decision, as customers are gaining more control over the products and information (Raju, 2013).

Theoretical Framework
Most theories on advertising focus on its connection to the consumer in provisions of how it is able to influence, create awareness and promote brand loyalty. Some of these include the influential argument, the educational view and competitive view. However, an argument often neglected is the sales effect. An effective advertising framework can generate for the company. The sales effect model was put forward by Leads and Shultz (1990) and it is based on the fact that advertising, like any other firm pledge that involves the use of its limited resources should be measurable. They further contended that the most excellent way to determine the effect of advertising is to critically analyze the extent to which it is able to pressure the company's sales level. According to them, an effective advertising program should increase sales revenue of the advertising company by an amount or a proportion more than the expenditure on the advertising process or the advertising budget. Previous studies expanded the argument further by contending that since all expenses relating to advertising are eventually deductible from

gross earnings, the actual benefits of advertising will be more visible in the advertising firm's net profit of the company, paints a truer picture of the real effects of the advertising program in monetary terms. Given that the focus of the study is to establish the link between green advertising on purchasing patterns, the study adopts the sales effect theory as its framework. This is necessary, especially considering the fact that the actual sales and by extension, the profit effects of advertising for green product in Nigeria are yet to be empirically established. Green advertising communicates settlement of using green products such as less resources and energy for manufacturing products, sustainable sources, less detrimental to the environment and the society. Those massages impact on consumers' consciousness and inspire them to buy green products (Chang, 2004).The study has established that promotional activities on eco-friendly products and reference groups expansively influence consumers' buying decisions of products (Siddique & Hossain, 2018). Green promotion includes collaborating information on the environmental promises and the efforts made by businesses to clients (Singh, 2013). Green promotion refers to transferring real environmental information to those consumers who are participated in a firm's behavior. More so, firms' promise to keep normal assets is for the purpose of fascinating the target audience (Shirsavar & Fashkhamy, 2013).

Empirical Review

Abdullahi (2014) evaluated the effectiveness of advertising expenses on the sales revenue and profitability of Nigerian Bottling Company Plc. This study is based on secondary data collected for advertising expenditure, sales revenue and profitability of Nigerian Bottling Company Plc over the period of 1996 to 2009 from the annual report and accounts of the company under study. Among the objectives of the study is to evaluate the extent of the effect of advertising on the sales revenue of the company. Correlational and regression analysis study designs were adopted for the study. The contribution of the first hypothesis has found that advertising expenses has depicted significant relationship between advertising and the sales revenue of the company. Furthermore, the second hypothesis result has shown that advertising has no significant effect on the profitability of the company. It is therefore recommended that not only advertising should be given adequate attention while formulating strategies relating to sales revenue and profitability promotion policy. Other factors which are crucial to increase sales revenue and profitability such as; sales promotion, personal selling, publicity etc., which are crucial should be considered.

Bing (2018) aimed to explore how green advertising affect consumers' purchase intention of green products. The data were collected from 313 consumers in Shanghai, China. The research findings revealed that credibility of claim ($\beta=0.847$, $p<0.001$) and consumer attitude toward green advertising ($\beta=0.65$ $p<0.05$) significantly influence consumer purchase intention of green products. The firms should not use exaggerated linguistics for the advertising; in contrast, the claims should be specific, trustful and sincere in all aspect.

Amberg and Fogarassy (2017) examined the effect of green consumer behavior in the cosmetics industry**.** The novelty of the analyses is mainly that consumers were ordered into clusters, based on consuming bio-food industry and preferring natural cosmetics. The cluster analysis has multiple variables, namely: consumer behavior in light of bio-product, new natural cosmetics brand, or health and environmental awareness preferences. The data was collected using online questionnaire, exclusively in Hungary during April– May of 2018. 197 participants answered some questions. The results of descriptive statistics and the cluster analysis showed that there are consumers who prefer natural cosmetics, whereas some of them buy traditional ones. A third group use both natural and ordinary cosmetics.

Auwal (2014) studied synthesis of green marketing concept as a recipe for healthy environment in Nigeria. The study established that green marketing, if properly exploited can serve as a solution to the vulnerable and volatile environmental situation we are in. The study therefore recommends that government should provide the enabling environment and structure for eco-friendly production in Nigeria. Governments should also be holding seminars and workshops to reorient the citizenry on the importance of proper refuse disposal and the implications of littering of our environment with disposable containers.

Oluwasanmi and Ogunro (2018) examined green marketing and green consumerism with focus on issues of environmental sustainability in the petroleum industry. The study engaged archival research method with the aid of Kokkinen maturity model in analyzing multiple literatures. Special reference was made regarding how the degradation in Ogoni land can impact the entire industry. The conclusions posit the below average awareness of the prospects of green consumerism in the petroleum industry. The study recommended, amongst others, that the consumer protection council of Nigeria and other relevant agencies should expand their focus to include the activities of firms in the petroleum industry.

Karatu, Nik and Nik (2015) investigated the predictors of green purchase intention in Nigeria: the mediating role of environmental consciousness hence, the objectives of this study are two-folds: (1) to examine the direct predictors (perceived green knowledge, perceived behavior control, green availability, green trust, and green price sensitivity) of green purchase intention and (2) to establish the mediating effect of environmental consciousness on the relationship between the above mentioned predictors and green purchase intention. This study uses quantitative method by distributing 150 questionnaires to lecturers in Nigerian universities. 102 datasets were returned representing 68 percent response rate. The screened data were analyzed using regression. The findings indicated that green availability is directly and significantly related to green purchase intention (β=.355, p<.001), while green price sensitivity is directly and significantly related to environmental consciousness (β=.377, p<.000). The relationship between green price sensitivity and green purchase intention is fully mediated by environmental consciousness. In conclusion, green purchase can be increased when there is abundance of green products. Nigerians also believe that high priced green products will increase their awareness towards environmental consciousness. Environmental consciousness

plays a very significant mediating role in influencing the relationship between green price and green purchase intention.

Wario (2014) established the determinants of the adoption of green marketing strategies in Kenya's floriculture industry. The specific objective was to determine the influence of stakeholder pressure and regulatory pressure on the adoption of green marketing strategies. An explanatory research design was employed, where convenience sampling method was used to select 25 firms out of the 75 registered members of the Kenya flower council. Data obtained was analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistical analyses. The study established that both stakeholder pressure and regulatory pressure have a significant influence on the adoption of green marketing strategies. It recommends that organizations ought to be proactive in environmental protection rather than reactive. And government should legislate and enforce environmental laws and policies.

Sayedi and Ringim (2019) investigated the effects of environmental factors (self image, social influence, environmental concern and man-nature orientation) on green purchase behavior among students of Ahmadu Bello University Zaria. The study utilizes a descriptive and cross-sectional research design. The population for study is 35,000 students' enrolment in 2015 and stratified randomly sampling were utilized with the aid of probability sampling technique. Data collected using self-administered questionnaire with the help of research assistant. Descriptive statistics, correlation and regression analysis of the data collected was done with the aid of software package of social science (SPSS) for inferential statistical test, construct measurement validation as well as to establish the relationship between the environmental factor and green purchase behavior. The results indicated that environmental factors such as self image and man-nature orientation have significant effects on green purchase behavior at 1% and 5% significant levels respectively. But, social influence and environmental concern have insignificant effect on green purchase behavior.

Bilal, Wahab and Ummi (2015) studied the effects of green marketing strategy on the firms' performance. The study aims at presenting the reviews of the literature on the green marketing and analyses the four factors that will influence the firms' performance. As green marketing strategy becomes increasingly more important to firms adhering to a triple-bottom line performance evaluation, the present study seeks to better understand the role of "green marketing mix" as a marketing strategy. The conclusion that was drawn is that, green product, price, distribution and promotion have a positive effect on the firms' performance.

Zuhairah and Alib (2014) studied the impacts of green marketing strategy on the Malaysian certified ISO 14001 Environmental Management System firms' performance. The study aimed at presenting the reviews of the literature on the green marketing and analyzing the two factors that will influence the firms' performance. Despite the rising trend of consumers that

are willing to spend for a green product and the potential of green products, previous literature revealed that green marketing has encountered some challenges. The conclusion that was drawn is that, green innovation and the green promotion have a positive effect on the firms 'performance.

Bila, Kalsom, Zainon, Tareq Bandar and Negeri (2016) investigated the influence of green marketing strategy on sales growth of green cars in Jordan. The study analyzed the data of 332 car dealers during 2010-2014. The results revealed both positive (green product, green promotion and green process) and negative (green price, green physical evidence, green people, green distribution on sales growth) influence of green marketing strategy on sales growth. The study further found that adoption of green marketing strategy may significantly increase the sales volume of green cars. However, the adoption of marketing strategies may decline the sales volume of non-green cars comparing with the green cars.

METHODOLOGY

This study is quantitative. For collecting primary data, personal interview was conducted. From the secondary sources, the literature review has been developed. Structural questions prepared consisted of 9 items for data collections. Four issues were related to demographic variables such as gender, age, occupation, and education. Five questions were about sources of green advertising which influence consumers' purchase green products. Thus section 2 is composed of green advertising measures by using five point Likert scales (from 5= 'Strongly disagree' to 1= 'Strongly agree'), The population of the study comprises of post-graduate students of the Nnamdi Azikiwe University Awka, Anambra State. There were a total 2499 post-graduate students in our population (UNIZIK SPGS, 2016). For this purpose, students were selected on gender basis with respect to their various faculties. As a matter of convenience, Borg and Gall formula of (1973) was used to reduce the population to the sample size of four hundred and eighty (480). A convenience sample of 480 respondents was selected to achieve the research objectives. The frequency and percentage analyses were carried out to understand the socioeconomic characteristics of respondents and effect of green advertising on purchasing intention. The results were discussed and formulated hypotheses were analyzed by analysis of variance (ANOVA), using by using SPSS 20.0.
The following hypothesis were raised for the study:

Ho: Green advertising does not have significant effect on purchasing pattern of post graduate students in UNIZIK.

Ho: Green advertising has significant effect on purchasing pattern of post graduate students in UNIZIK.

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

This section presents the analysis of the data collected and discusses the research findings on the impact of green advertising on purchasing pattern of post-graduate students of Nnamdi Azikiwe University (UNIZIK) Awka. All completed questionnaires were edited for accuracy, uniformity, consistency and completeness. The response rate of 90% was achieved. This good response was attributed to the fact that quite a good number of the respondents interviewed were knowledgeable to fill the questionnaires. 480 Questionnaire was distributed while 350 were returned and analyzed. Summaries of data findings together with their possible interpretations were presented by the use of frequency tables.

Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents
In this section, the demographic features of the respondents such as gender, marital status, age bracket, educational qualification and working experience were presented and analyzed. A total of three hundred and fifty respondents were sampled and the results were presented in the tables below.

Table 1: Gender of the Respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Male	151	41.5	42.0	42.0
Valid	Female	203	57.3	58.0	100.0
	Total	350	98.9	100.0	

Source: Field Survey, 2020/SPSS

The above table revealed that the 42% of the respondents which represents ninety (151) persons were male respondents, while two hundred and three (203) respondents which represent 58.0% were female respondents. By implication, female respondents were more than male respondents by 15% in our selected population sample for this study. The implication of this is to enable us to know the number of female and male that successfully returned their questionnaire.

Table 2: Marital Status of the Respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Single	180	59	59	60
Valid	Married	140	38	38	40
	Others	30	3	3	
	Total	350	100	100.0	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2020/SPSS

In the table above, out of the three hundred and fifty (350) respondents, one hundred and eighty (180) of the respondents, representing 59% were single while one hundred and forty (140) respondents which represent 38 percent are married. While fifty-four respondents (30) which represents 3% were among widowed, divorced and separated. It is therefore glaring that the majority of the respondents are single as at the time of this study. Thus marital status table helped us to know the number of single, married, and divorce respondents that answered the distributed questionnaires

Table 3: Age Bracket of the Respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18 - 30 years	130	37.1	37.1	48.6
	31 - 40 years	120	34.3	34.3	74.0
	41 - 50 years	70	20	20	89.7
	51 years and above	30	8.6	9	100.0
	Total	350	98.9	100.0	

Source: Field Survey, 2020/SPSS

The above table depicted the age bracket of the respondents. The distribution shows that 37.1% of the respondents were between the age brackets of 18 to 30 years while 120 respondents representing 34.3% were within the age bracket of 31 - 40 years. On the same note, 20% of the respondents were within the age bracket of 41 - 50 years while the remaining respondents representing 9% were within the age bracket of 51 years and above

Analysis of Thematic Data

Data relevant in answering the research questions and testing the hypotheses were presented in tables below.

Table 4: Green advertisements and environmental friendly products in a credible manner.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	76	21.5	21.7	21.7
	Agree	152	42.9	43.4	65.1
	Undecided	32	9.0	9.1	74.3
	Disagree	61	17.2	17.4	91.7
	Strongly Disagree	29	8.2	8.3	100.0
	Total	350	98.9	100.0	

Source: Field Survey, 2020/SPSS

The table above indicated that seventy-six (76) respondents which represent 21.7% agreed strongly that **Green advertisements should promote environmental friendly products in a credible manner**, while 43.4% of the respondents which represents one hundred and fifty-two (152) also agreed to that. Furthermore, 9.1% which represents thirty-two (32) are undecided, while 17.4% of the respondents which represents sixty-one (61) disagreed. Finally, twenty-nine (29) respondents which are 8.3% of the respondents strongly disagreed.

Table 5: Attractive environmental advertisements and green purchasing patterns.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	102	28.8	29.1	29.1
	Agree	160	45.2	45.7	74.9
	Undecided	36	10.2	10.3	85.1
	Disagree	31	8.8	8.9	94.0
	Strongly Disagree	21	5.9	6.0	100.0
	Total	350	98.9	100.0	

Source: Field Survey, 2020/SPSS

The table also shows that 29.1% of the respondents' view strongly agreed that Attractive environmental advertisements will encourage them to adopt green purchasing patterns, 45.7% agreed, 10.3% were Undecided, 8.9% disagreed while 6.0% of the respondents strongly disagreed.

Table 6: Green advertisements and Green products

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	84	23.7	24.0	100.0
	Agree	191	54.0	54.6	76.0
	Neutral	27	7.6	7.7	21.4
	Disagree	39	11.0	11.1	13.7
	Strongly Disagree	9	2.5	2.6	2.6
	Total	350	98.9	100.0	

Source: Field Survey, 2020/SPSS

The table revealed that 24.0% of the respondents strongly agreed that green advertisements are not exaggerated for green products. 54.6% agreed, 7.7% were neutral, 11.1% disagreed while 2.6% of the respondents strongly disagreed.

Table 7: Environmental advertisement and customers in making an informed purchasing decision

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	64	18.1	18.3	100.0
	Agree	229	64.7	65.4	81.7
	Neutral	20	5.6	5.7	16.3
	Strongly Disagree	16	4.5	4.6	4.6
	Disagree	21	5.9	6.0	10.6
	Total	350	98.9	100.0	

Source: Field Survey, 2020/SPSS

The table above indicates that sixty-four (64) respondents which represent 18.3% agreed strongly that environmental advertisement guides customers in making an informed purchasing decision., while 65.4% of the respondents which represents two hundred and twenty-nine (229) agreed to that. Furthermore, twenty (20) respondents which represent 5.7% of the respondents were undecided, while twenty-one (21) which represents 6.0% disagreed and lastly, sixteen (16) of the respondents which represents 4.6% strongly disagreed.

Table 8: More visibility and green products

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	93	26.3	26.6	100.0
	Agree	184	52.0	52.6	73.4
	Undecided	8	2.3	2.3	20.9
	Strongly Disagree	36	10.2	10.3	10.3
	Disagree	29	8.2	8.3	18.6
	Total	350	98.9	100.0	
Total					

Source: Field Survey, 2020/SPSS

The table above indicates that ninety-three (93) respondents which represent 26.6% agreed strongly that there should be more visibility in the way in which green products are marketed in South East. While 52.6% of the respondents which represent one eighty-four (184) agreed. 2.3% of the respondents which represent eight (8) were undecided. 8.3% of the respondents which represent twenty-nine (29) respondents disagreed. Lastly, thirty-six (36) respondents which is 10.3% strongly disagreed.

Test of Hypotheses

Ho: Green advertising does not have significant effect on purchasing pattern of post graduate students of UNIZIK.

ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	22.784	3	7.595	9.36331	.000
Within Groups	4.278	347	.030		
Total	27.062	350			

Source: SPSS, Version, 20 2020

However, from the ANOVA table above, it was observed that the probability value of hypothesis two is less than 0.05% level of significance (0.000), as a result null hypothesis will be rejected and alternative accepted, and alternative hypothesis is accepted meanwhile, Green advertising has significant effect on purchasing pattern of post graduate students in UNIZIK.

Conclusion and Recommendation

Green advertising is a convincing communication which attempts to strengthen one's earlier attitude and it is mainly done not only to update customers regarding products, rather it is a process which advance influences and persuades customers to purchase. Based on the primary data collected, it purposively selected Nnamdi Azikiwe University Awka as a case study. The data utilized in this study was collected from the structured questionnaire. Consumer approach towards green advertising positively sways consumer purchase intention of green products. According to Ajzen (1991), the more positive attitude consumers have towards behavior, the stronger intention the consumers will have to achieve the behavior under his or her control. In this study, consumers' intentions to purchase green products are strong as their attitudes toward green advertising are positive. While the consumers positively react to green advertising, the companies and their products, the firms should stress their ecological proceedings, which will allow clients to make a distinction between "green" firms and "non-green" firms as green products are in demand. Furthermore, the claim of green methods and green product attributes should be emphasized to encourage and attract consumers. More so, a green advertising crusade should be connected with a clear, transparent, comprehensible and concise ecological claim, through which the firms will be able to grip the consumers' awareness. There is a need for the pursuit of environmental advertising through social media platforms which has overtime been used to actively advance green marketing. The company should emphasize on cost effective advertisement and strategic promotional policy aimed at sustaining increased sales revenue.

References

Abdullahi, D. (2014). Assessment of advertising on the sales revenue and profitability of Nigerian bottling company Plc. *European Journal of Business and Management* 6 (7) 37-46

Alniacik, U. & Yilmaz, C. (2012). The effectiveness of green advertising: Influences of claims specificity, product's environmental relevance and consumers' pro-environmental orientation. *Economic Inferences*,14,(6) 207-222.

Amberg, N and Fogarassy, C (2017). Green consumer behavior in the cosmetics market perspective. *European Journal of Economics, Finance and Administration Sciences*

Anyanwale, A.B., Alimi, T & Ayanbimpe, M.A. (2005). The influence of advertising on consumer brand preference. *Journal of social science 10,(5) 96-112*

Auwal Y. A (2014). Synthesis of green marketing concept as a recipe for healthy environment in Nigeria. *International Journal of Business Management and Administration* 3(1), 001-008

Baldwin, P. (1993) Advertisers beginning to see green', *The Dallas Morning News*, 4 (8) 1–11

Belz, F.M. and Peattie, K. (2009) *Sustainability Marketing: A Global Perspective*. Edited by John Wiley & Sons. Glasgow

Bilal M E , Wahab,K.A .& Ummi A B (2015). Effects of green marketing strategy 4ps on firm performance. *International Journal of Applied Research* 1(12): 821-824

Bilal M. E. .Kalsom A.W. & Zainon M.SP, Tareq F. O, Bandar B. N. & Negeri S.,(2016). Effects of green marketing strategies on sales volume of green carsp. *Singaporean Journal of Business economics and management Studies, 5 (3)45-56*

Bing Z (2018). The Impact of green advertising on consumer purchase intention of green products. *Department of Marketing, Assumption University Thailand 1-9*

Buda, Rand Zhang, Y2000, Consumer product evaluation: the i nteractive effect of message framing, presentation order, and source credibility, *Journal of Product & Brand Management,* 9, (4), 229-242

Chan, R.Y.K. (2004) 'Consumer responses to environmental advertising in china', *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, 22(4), 427–437.

Chase, D. and Smith, T.K. (1992) Consumers keen on green but marketers don't deliver', *Advertising Age*, 63(63) 12-23.

Davis, J. J. (2004). Consumer response to corporate environmental advertising. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*. 11(2), 25 - 37.

Delafrooz, N., Taleghani, M., & Nouri, B. (2014). Effect of green marketing on consumer purchase behavior. *QScience Connect*, 1(5), 5.

Dua. (2012). Green marketing- the growing marketing mantra. VSRD *International Journal of Business and Management Research*, 3 (4) 447-452.

Easterling, D., Kenworthy, A. and Nemzoff, R. (1996) 'The greening of advertising: A Twenty-Five year look at environmental advertising', *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 4(1), 20–34.

Hashem TN and Al-Rifai NA (2011). The influence of applying green marketing mix by chemical industries companies in three Arab States in West Asia on consumer's mental image. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 2(3): 92-101.

Hussainy, S.K., Riaz, K, K., Kazi, A.K.m & Herami, G.M. (2008). Advertising styles impact on *International journal of management research and business strategy*, 5 (7) 189-197.

Karatu, VM.H & Nik K. & Nik M. (2015). Predictors of green purchase intention in Nigeria: the mediating role of environmental consciousness. *American journal of economics* 2015, 5(2): 291-302

Latiff, A. & Abideen, Z.U. (2011). Effect of television advertising on children: A Pakistan Journal of Finance 5 (7) 12-23

Leads & Shultz, D.E. (1990). *The Marketing Guide to Public Relations*, John Willy New York.

Nidhi Kotwal, N. G. (2008). Impact of T.V advertisements on buying pattern of adolescent girls. Kamla-Raj J. Soc. Sci., 16(1): 51-55 .

Oluwasanmi, O.O. and Ogunro V. O. (2018). Green marketing, green consumerism and environmental sustainability in the Nigerian petroleum industry. *International Journal of Social and Management Sciences.* College of Social and Management Sciences, 6   (1), 228-242.

Polonsky, M.J., Carlson, L., Grove, S. and Kangun, N. (1997) 'International environmental marketing claims', *International Marketing Review*, 14(4), 218–232.

Rafique, Y., Rasool, M. S., Naseem, M. A., Javaid, S., Najeeb, M., & Hannan, M. (2012). Impact of advertisement on consumer behavior of FMCG in Lahore city. *Academic Research International,* 2(3), 571-574

Rahbar, E., & Wahid, N. A. (2011).Investigation of green marketing tools' effect on consumers' purchase behavior. *Business strategy series*, 12(2),73-83.

Raju, D. D. (2013). The role of advertising in consumer decision making. *Journal of Business and Management* 14, (4) 23-34 .

Romanuik, J. & Sharp, B. (2003). Brand salience and consumer defection in subscription markets. *Journal of Marketing Management,* 19, 25-44.

Sayedi, S.N & Ringim, K.J (2019). Effect of environmental factors on green purchase behavior of students department of business administration faculty of management and social sciences

Shirsavar and Fashkhamy (2013). Green marketing: A new paradigm to gain competitive advantage in contemporary business. *Trends in Advanced Science and Engineering*, 7(1), 12-18.

Siddique, Z. R. and Hossain, A., (2018). Sources of consumers awareness toward green products and its impact on purchasing decision in Bangladesh. *Journal of Sustainable Development*, 11(3), 9-22

Wario, G., J. (2014). Determinants of the adoption of green marketing strategies in Kenyan floriculture industry. *Strategic Journals. 2 (41), 775-790,*

Yasir Rafique, M. N. (2012). Impact of advertisement on consumer behavior of fmcgin lahore city . *Academic Research International* 2 (8) 34-44

Yin, H. and Ma, C. (2009) 'International integration: A hope for a greener china?', *International Marketing Review*, 26(3), 348–367

Zinkhan, G.M. and Carlson, L. (1995) 'Green advertising and the reluctant consumer', *Journal of Advertising*, 24(2), 1–6.

Zuhairah H. & Alib, N.A (2014). The impact of green marketing strategy on the firm's performance in Malaysia. *Global Conference on Business & Social Sc*ience-2014, GCBSS-2014, 15th & 16th December,Kuala Lumpur

Workplace Ethics and Organizational Success of Constructions Companies in Port Harcourt, Rivers State, Nigeria

Samuel Azowa & Dr. E. Tantua Jnr.

Department of Office and Information Management, Faculty of Management Sciences, Rivers, State University, Nkpolu-Oroworukwo, PMB 5080, Port Harcourt, Nigeria

Abstract: *The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between workplace ethics and organizational success of construction sector in Port Harcourt, Rivers State. The study used cross sectional survey design. The population of the study comprised of 165 staff of five (5) construction companies in Port Harcourt, Rivers State, sample size of 116 employees were sampled using the Krejcie and Morgan determination table. Data collection was done using structured close ended questionnaire based on the sample of the study and retrieved for analyses. Analyses of collected data were done using Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient through the help of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). The findings show significant relationship between the three dimensions of workplace ethics – transparency and the two measures of organizational success – growth and market share, and the two measures of organizational success. Therefore, we recommended that, management of organizations should provide an enabling or supportive work environment that will help and motivate employees to put in their best in service through transparency, when carrying out punitive measures on violators of ethical conduct.*

Keywords: *Workplace Ethics, Organizational Success, Transparency Growth and Market Share*

INTRODUCTION

Ethics is a critical issue in today's workplace. If employers and employees don't consistently follow high standards conduct, organizations cannot prosper. Ethics is the system of moral principles, rules and conduct. The word ethics originated from Latin word Ethicus or in Greek Ethics. These two words are derived from 'Ethos' meaning character or ideal standards of human behaviour. Workplace ethics is the process of acting morally to the set standards of rules and behaviour to avoid harm to others when carrying out organizational activities Ugoji (2009). It is a group of moral principles, standards of behaviour, or set of values regarding proper conduct in the workplace. As workplace ethics involved moral principles, standards of behaviour, or set of values regarding proper conduct in the workplace, employees or employers who act against these principles and set values is acting unethically. If criminality is considered to be unethical practice, an employee who steals organizational properties or harms his/her co-workers is practices unethical behaviour.

Jones, George and Hill (2000), defines ethics as moral principles or beliefs about what is right or wrong. These beliefs guide individuals in their dealings with other individuals and groups

(stakeholders) and provide a basis for deciding whether behaviour is right and proper. Workplace ethics is tailored towards inculcating set standards of behaviour among workers in the organization. In today's competitive world every organization is facing new challenges regarding sustained productivity and creating committed workforce. Now our days no organization can perform at its peak levels unless each employee is committed to the organizations objectives. Hence, it is important to understand the concept of organizational success and its feasible outcome.

Organization is a social unit of people that is structured and managed to meet a need or to pursue collective goals or organization is a systematic arrangement of people to accomplish the same specific purpose. Every organization is composed of three elements i.e. people, goals and system. The purpose is expressed as goals generally. Each organization has a systematic structure that defines members and some members are managers and some are operatives. Thinking along this line, Caroline (2008) in her opinion stated that organization is a social entity whose goal is directed, deliberately structured activity systems with a permeable boundary. They have reached to every corner of the globe in various sizes, capabilities and influenced societal growth. Their success has influenced economics and various aspect of social landscape.

However, organizational success depends on it human capital development, which is the employee and other resources both tangible and intangible. There is a large and growing body of evidence that demonstrates a positive linkage between the development of human capital and organizational success. The emphasis human capital in organizations reflects the view that market value depends less on tangible resources, but rather on intangible ones, particularly human resources. Recruiting and retaining the best employees, however, is only part of the equation. The organization also has to leverage the skills and capabilities of its employees by encouraging individual and organizational learning and creating a supportive environment where knowledge can be created, shared and applied and this can be done through the organization management were decision can be reached concerning the future of the organization as well as the individual that drive the success of the organization.

According to George and Jones (1996), organizational ethics are rules, beliefs, and values that outline the way manager and workers should behave when confronted with a situation in which their action can help or harm other people inside and outside the organization. According to them, ethical behaviour can enhances the well-being (happiness, health, and prosperity, etc), of individuals, group, and the organization, and sometimes the environment in which they operates. An ethical workplace begins with an honest and objective assessment of an organization's existing ethical culture. The Ethical Workplaces are designed to assist organizations in determining staff perception of organizational policies and practices related to ethics. Appropriate use of this practice will help organizations to identify strengths, weaknesses and opportunities as well as to begin a dialogue relative to workplace ethics.

Furthermore**,** this study was guided by the following research questions:

i. To what extent does transparency enhances growth in the construction sector in Rivers State, Nigeria?

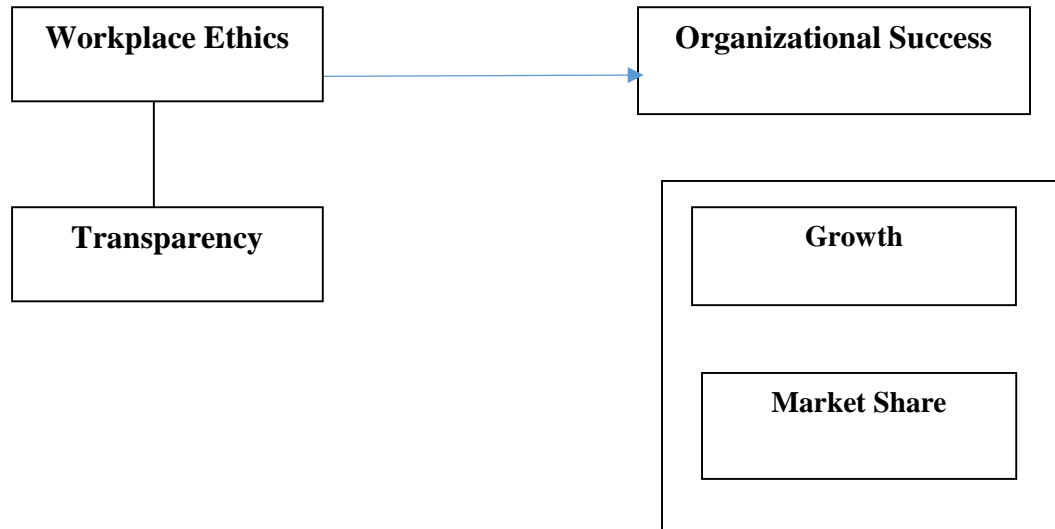ii. To what extent does transparency enhances market share in the construction sector in Rivers State, Nigeria?

```
┌─────────────────────┐                    ┌─────────────────────────┐
│  Workplace Ethics   │ ─────────────────▶ │ Organizational Success  │
└─────────────────────┘                    └─────────────────────────┘
          │
          │                                ┌─────────────────────────┐
┌─────────────────────┐                    │  ┌───────────────────┐  │
│    Transparency     │                    │  │      Growth       │  │
└─────────────────────┘                    │  └───────────────────┘  │
                                           │                         │
                                           │  ┌───────────────────┐  │
                                           │  │   Market Share    │  │
                                           │  └───────────────────┘  │
                                           └─────────────────────────┘
```

Fig.1 Conceptual Framework for the relationship workplace ethics and organizational success

Source: Desk Research (2020)

LITERATURE REVIEW

Theoretical Foundation
Institutional Ethical Theory

Institutional theory was propounded by William Richard Scott in 1995. This theory states that organizations are "product of social reality that is constructed by human interaction and symbolic and relational systems, routines, and artefacts. It is a theory on the deeper and more resilient aspects of social structure which considers the processes by which structures, including schemes; rules, norms, and routines, become established as authoritative guidelines for social behaviour. Different components of institutional theory explain how these elements are created, diffused, adopted, and adapted over space and time; and how they fall into decline and disuse" (Foote, 2008). Scott (1995) in defining institution stated that there is "no single and universally agreed definition of an 'institution' (workplace) in the institutional school of thought". He asserts that institutions are "social structures that have attained a high degree of resilience. They are composed of cultural-cognitive, normative, and regulative elements that, together with associated activities and resources, provide stability and meaning to social life. Institutions are transmitted by various types of carriers, including symbolic systems, relational systems, routines, and artefacts. Institutions operate at different levels of jurisdiction, from the

world system to localized interpersonal relationships. Institutions by definition connote stability but are subject to change processes, both incremental and discontinuous".

This framework is selected for this study because of the uniqueness in ways of approach to the notion promoting the ethical structure in the organization. It considers the processes by which structures, including schemes; procedures, standards, rules, norms, and routines, become established as authoritative guidelines for social behaviour which is the bases of workplace ethics.

Workplace Ethics

Workplace ethics is a system of moral principles applied in the workplace. It is a whole new scientific area because it combines law theory and politics as much as philosophical and historical documents. Ethics become a term very flexible and have many different aspects. Workplace ethics provide guidelines for acceptable behaviour by organizations in both their strategy formulation and day-to-day operations. An ethical approach is becoming necessary both for corporate success and a positive corporate image. Especially nowadays ethics in the workplace are obligated because many organizations are only interested in making money despite the ethical costs or the harm they would probably cause to people or even to nature (environmental pollution). Corporate social responsibility defines all the cases of ethics that organization can follow effectively. Many organizations are choosing to make a public commitment to ethical workplace by formulating codes of conduct and operating principles. In doing so, they must translate into action the concepts of personal and corporate accountability, corporate giving and corporate governance Broni, (2010).

Workplace ethics is a form of applied ethics that examines ethical principles and moral or ethical problems that arise in a work environment Solomon, (1991). It applies to all aspects of business conduct Baumhart, (1968), Ferell - Fraedrich, (1997) and Singer, (1991), and is relevant to the conduct of individuals and business organizations as a whole Bernard, (1972), Donaldson, (1982). Applied ethics is a field of ethics that deals with ethical questions in many fields such as technical, legal, business and medical ethics Preston, (1997). Workplace ethics consists of a set of moral principles and values. Jones - Parker - Bos, (2005) stated that workplace ethic govern the behaviour of the organization with respect to what is right and what is wrong in the workplace. Badiou, (2001), Seglin, (2003). It spells out the basic philosophy and priorities of an organization in concrete terms French, (1979); French, (1995). It also contains the prohibitory actions at the workplace, Collier - Esteban (2007); Duska, (1999). It provides a framework on which the organization could be legally governed. With time, certain moral philosophies have helped in the evolution of four basic concepts of ethics. They are deontologism, relativism, egoism, and utilitarianism Kotsiris, (2003). Workplace ethics is the behaviour that an organization adheres to in its daily dealings with the world and among members of the organization Borgerson - Schroeder, (2008). The ethics of a particular workplace can be diverse Solomon, (1983). They apply not only to how the business interacts with the world at large, but also to their one-on-one dealings with a single customer (Solomon, 1991).

Transparency

Transparency according to Clark (2004), is the ease with which an outsider is able to make meaningful analysis of a company's transactions, its economic fundamental and non-financial aspects pertaining to that business. It has become increasingly significant in recent times that organization give detailed information about its activities that cannot readily be quantified in financial terms at that point in time but which nonetheless has far reaching implications on organizations. It is a measure of how good management is at making information available in candid, accurate and timely manner, not only in audit data but also in general reports and press releases. Transparency according to Hallak and Poisson (2007) requires clearness, honesty and openness. It is the principle that those affected by administrative decisions should be informed and the duty of civil servants, managers and trustees to act visibly, predictably and understandably. Corporate governance at its core involves the monitoring of the corporation's performance and the monitor's capacity to respond to poor performance – the ability to observe and the ability to act, Nwinyokpugi, (2017). Transparency goes directly to the equity market's ability to observe a corporation's performance. Most information concerning a corporation's performance is uniquely available from the corporation. Without effective disclosure of financial performance, existing equity investors cannot evaluate management's past performance, and prospective investors cannot forecast the corporation's future cash flow. Equity investment requires good corporate governance, and good corporate governance requires the capacity to make credible disclosure of financial results. In the absence of effective financial disclosure, a country's capacity to support equity markets and, in turn, important kinds of industry, is compromised. Effective corporate governance also requires a second form of transparency – ownership transparency. Shareholders can suffer from poor corporate performance; however, they also can suffer from a controlling shareholder's divergence of earnings or opportunities to itself (Gregory and Simms, 1999).

Organizational Success

Corporations have become a powerful and dominant institution. They have reached to every corner of the globe in various sizes, capabilities and influenced societal growth. Their success has influenced economics and various aspect of social landscape. However, organizational success depends on it human capital development, which is the employee and other resources both tangible and intangible. There is a large and growing body of evidence that demonstrates a positive linkage between the development of human capital and organizational success. The emphasis human capital in organizations reflects the view that market value depends less on tangible resources, but rather on intangible ones, particularly human resources. Recruiting and retaining the best employees, however, is only part of the equation. The organization also has to leverage the skills and capabilities of its employees by encouraging individual and organizational learning and creating a supportive environment where knowledge can be created, shared and applied and this can be done through the organization management were

decision can be reached concerning the future of the organization as well as the individual that drive the success of the organization.

Our belief is that, the link between human capital and organizational success is convincing. Empirical work has become more sophisticated, moving from single measures of human resources to embrace combinations or bundles of human resource practices and in this tradition, the findings are powerful, Fitz-Enz (2002). Such results have led to some scholars to support a best practices approach, arguing that, there is a set of identifiable practices, which have a universal, positive effect on organizational performance. Other scholars contend that difficulties in specifying the constituents of a best practices set, and the sheer number of contingencies that organizations experience, make the best practice approach problematic.

Growth

The process of improving some measures of an enterprise: it can be achieved either by boosting the top line or revenue of the business with greater product which will in return sustain the business. Deal and Kennedy (1992), states that effective growth ensures the availability of well-trained managers who understand the organisation's mission, values, culture and strategy. These managers have virtually "grown up" in the organisation, they identify with its mission, have assimilated its values and have been socialised into its culture. Such characteristics have been associated with more effective individual and organisational performance.

Rhodes (1998), agrees that business growth can be an important element in achieving competitive advantage, so long as it is viewed and structured as both a strategic and tactical process. However, he stipulates that it cannot be cumbersome, overweight, and slow focused on hypothetical situations. Rather, it must be forward looking, flexible, lean, decisive and results oriented.

Market Share

The relationship between market share and profitability continues to be a critical research issue in business strategic management in the world. There is growing pressure to make the right decisions quickly and one of the challenges facing managers is how to increase business profits in the competitive business world today. In order to do this, managers need to understand the factors that increase profitability. Several previous studies have linked market share with profitability Buzzel et al. (1975); Rumelt (1991) and McGahan and Porter (1997).

Woo (1981), stated that though the correlation between market share and profitability has been sustained over the years, it remains a generalization which has been over-extended and accepted without acknowledgement of all its attributes. The general question has always been whether establishing a high market share would ensure greater profits. Researchers who have investigated this question have not succeeded in resolving this dilemma and therefore the question remains. The close association between market share and profitability is strongly acknowledged by managers and management scholars as a basic premise of business strategy.

Given the high cost and high risk associated with share building, it is necessary that managers have clearer evidences of the benefits and chances of success for such commitments and it is sufficiently vague to warrant caution against a market share strategy to enhance profitability.

Workplace Ethics and Organizational Success

It is apparent that in many organizations, today, there are generally accepted unethical practices. Such organizations where managers are only profit- driven without adhering to ethical principles have often resulted in situations where they are being called for explanation and then asked to pay the necessary fines that follow, thereby distracting and disrupting the main focus of the organization. Ethical practices by managers cannot be over- emphasized. It builds trustworthiness, good reputation and confidence in the organization's stakeholders and shareholders. Marot and Dunn (2010) puts it that ethical managerial practices as included in the behavior of an organization has been shown to possess channels that affect the results organization achieve in the form of ethical decision-making, creativity, trustworthiness safety and resilience. In the same vein, Schoeman (2014) admits that ethical managerial practices are important to a lot of important business results and that it differentiates conspicuous organizations from the ordinary.

Transparency, even though it has been regarded as an essential constituent of good governance and democratic politics since long ago (Hood & Heald, 2006), has been treated as a "peripheral concept" to organizational theories until the late 20th century; and henceforth started to drag significant attention of research (Patel, Balic, & Bwakira, 2002). More formal studies on transparency in organizational research domain have taken place in the past two decades. There are considerable number of studies that empirically examine the relationships between transparency and organizational outcomes. Many studies in the fields of public and private management have established that transparency has positive effects on organizational outcomes (Fleischmann & Wallace, 2005). It has been established that transparency contributes to productivity of the organization through increasing the employees' faithfulness to the organization (Cucciniello & Nasi 2014).

The study postulates the following hypotheses to be tested:

H_{01}:   There is no relationship between transparency and growth in the construction sector in Rivers State, Nigeria.

H_{02}:   There is no relationship between transparency and market share in the construction sector in Rivers State, Nigeria.

METHODOLOGY

The study adopted the cross-sectional survey in its investigation of the variables. Primary data was sourced through structured questionnaire. The population of the study comprised of 165 staff of five (5) construction companies in Port Harcourt, Rivers State, sample size of 116

employees were sampled using the Krejcie and Morgan determination table. The research instrument was validated through by experts as provided by supervisors vetting and approval while the reliability of the instrument was achieved by the use of the Cronbach Alpha coefficient with all the items scoring coefficients above 0.70. The hypotheses were tested using the Pearson Product Moment Correlation. The tests were carried out at a 95% confidence interval and a 0.05 level of significance.

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Bivariate Analysis
The Pearson Product Moment Correlation is calculated using the SPSS 21.0 version to establish the relationship among the empirical referents of the predictor variable and the measures of the criterion variable.

Table 1: Correlation Matrix for transparency and organizational success

		Transparency	Growth	Market share
Transparency	Pearson Correlation	1	.733**	.724**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001	.002
	N	90	90	90
Growth	Pearson Correlation	.733**	1	.888**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001		.000
	N	90	90	90
Market share	Pearson Correlation	.724**	.888**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.000	
	N	90	90	90

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

$H_{o1:}$ There is no significance relationship between transparency and growth in the constructions companies in Port Harcourt, Rivers State.

$H_{o2:}$ There is no significance relationship between transparency and market share in the constructions companies in Port Harcourt, Rivers State.

The table 1shows the correlation for hypothesis one and two. The correlation for hypothesis one shows a significant correlation at r = .733** where P-value = .000 (P<0.001). This implies a strong and significant relationship between both variables at 95% level of confidence. We therefore reject the no hypothesis ($H_{o:1}$), and upheld the alternate hypothesis, thus, there is a significance relationship between transparency and growth.

The correlation for hypothesis two shows a significant correlation at r = .724** where P-value = .000 (P<0.001). This implies a strong and significant relationship between both variables at 95%

level of confidence. We therefore reject the no hypothesis (Ho:$_2$), and upheld the alternate hypothesis, thus, there is a significance relationship between transparency and market share.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The results from the test of hypotheses revealed that there is a significant positive relationship between workplace ethics and organizational success of selected constructions companies in Port Harcourt, Rivers State. This finding support the study conducted by Clark (2004), who stated that, the ease with which an outsider is able to make meaningful analysis of a company's transactions, its economic fundamental and non-financial aspects pertaining to that business. It has become increasingly significant in recent times that organization give detailed information about its activities that cannot readily be quantified in financial terms at that point in time but which nonetheless has far reaching implications on organizations.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study workplace ethics and organizational success is synonymous with organizations. This is because every organization must have set standard rules, principles guiding the workers. These mode of conducts and rules that bonds the employees and employers together to influences the strength of employees comprising of work, career and organizational success that brings increase productivity. Effective workplace ethics increases the level of organizational success in terms of service rendered thereby strengthening the organizational competitive power that leads to growth and high market share. The culture of a workplace controls their ethical behaviour and organizational success that take care of their challenges for sustained productivity. This means that effective workplace ethics practices that guides and protects the interest of their employees with good supportive work environment motivates workers to perform at their maximum level. The study provides insight of how workplace ethics could be used to build and sustained organizational success for increase productivity. The result of the analysis which serves as evidence from the study led to the conclusion that elements of workplace ethics has significant and direct association with the indicators of organizational success (growth and market share).

Based on the foregoing conclusions, the following recommendations are suggested.

Management of organizations should provide an enabling or supportive work environment that will help and motivate employees to put in their best in service through transparency, when carrying out punitive measures on violators of ethical conduct.

REFERENCES

Badiou, A. (2001). *Ethics: An essay on the understanding of evil.* London, Verso.

Baumhart, R. (1968). An honest profit: what businessmen say about ethics and business, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Broni, V. (2010). Ethics in Business, in Greek, IuS.

Buzzel, R.D., Gale, B.T., & Sultan, R.G.M. (1975). Market share a key to profitability. *Harvard Business Review 53(1) 97-106.*

Cucciniello, M., & Nasi, G. (2014). Transparency for trust in government: How effective is formal Transparency? *International Journal of Public Administration*, 37(13), 911-921.

Donaldson, T. (1982). *Corporations and morality.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Ferell, O.O., & Fraedrich (1997). Business ethics: Ethical decision making and cases. Haugton Mifflin.

Fleischmann, K. R., & Wallace, W. A., (2005). A covenant with transparency: Opening the black box of models. *Communications of the ACM,* 48(5), 93-97.

Foote, M. & Ruona, W. E. A. (2008). Institutionalizing ethics: A synthesis and framework and the implications for HRD. *Human Resource Development Review, 7 (3)*, 292-309.

French, P.A. (1979). The corporation as a moral person, *American Philosophical Quarterly,* 16(2) 207-215.

French, P.A. (1995). Corporate ethics, fort worth: Harcourt Brace, Florida: ICSA Publishing.

George, J.M., & Jones, G.R. (1996). Understand and managing organizational behaviour. New York: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co.

Hood, C., & Heald, D. (2006). *Transparency: The Key to Better Governance*? UK: British Academy Industry, *American Journal of Industrial and Business Management*, 3, 196-208

Jones, G. R., George, J. M., & Hill, C. W. L. (2000). Contemporary management (2nd ed.). Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill

McGahan, A.M. and M. Porter, (1997). How much does industry matter, really? *Strategic Management Journal, 18(6) 15-30.*

Patel, S.A., Balic, A., & Bwakira, L. (2002). Measuring transparency and disclosure at firm-level in emerging markets. *Emerging Markets Review,* 3(4), 325–337.

Rumelt, R.P., (1991). How much does industry matter? *Strategic Management Journals, 12(3) 167-185.*

Scott, W. R. (2008). *Institutions and organizations: Ideas and interests.* Los Angeles, CA: Sage Publications.

Solomon, R .C. (1983). *Above the bottom line: An introduction to business ethics.* Harcourt Trade Publishers.

Solomon, R.C. (1991). Business ethics, In: Peter Singer (Ed.), *A companion to ethics*. Malden, MA: Blackwell London.

Ugoji, E. I. (2007). *Contemporary office ethics.* Port Harcourt, Nigeria: Dokus Press.

Sustainable Marketing and Customer Retention in the Food and Beverage Firms in Nigeria

Godday, Raymond Luke[1] and Owuso, Stephen. M[2]

[1]Department of Marketing, Niger Delta University, Wilberforce Island, Bayelsa State | Email:
raymondluke99@gmail.com
[2]Department of Marketing, Rivers State University, Port Harcourt | Email:
Stephen.owuso@gmail.com

Abstract: *The purpose of the study was to examine the effect of sustainable marketing and customer retention in the Nigerian food and beverage firms. The study adopted the the cross-sectional survey research design. The population of this study consists of the customers of the food and beverage firms in Nigerian. Implying an infinite population, a sample size of 384 was used for the study we relied on Krejche and Morgan (1970). Only 294 questionnaires were returned, useful which represented 76.4% of the total questionnaires distributed. The hypotheses were tested using the multiple regression with the aid of the Statistical Tool for Social Science (SPSS version 22) The study revealed that there is a significant relationship between sustainable marketing and customer retention in the food and beverage firms in Nigeria.*

Keywords: *Sustainable* marketing, *Customer Retention, Green Marketing, Social Marketing, Repeat Purchase, Customer Commitment*

Introduction

Customer retention is the key to healthy business growth. Loyalty can help the business to retain most valuable customers. Loyalty reflects relationship development and retention reflects relationship continuity. Customer retention is a crucial component of customer relationship. Scholars are in consensus that "customer retention is important to most companies because the cost of acquiring a new customer is greater than the cost of maintaining a relationship with a current customer" (Sima & Elham, 2015; Singh & Imran, 2012). Others argues that the main aspect of customer retention is the emotions evoked by the customer experience combined with the organization's strong reputation. As Emery (2012) puts it "sustainability issues are modifying the relationship between business organizations and the business environment they exist in. The relationship between the business organization and the consumer is also changing and the sustainable marketer needs to learn how to address these situations in order to be successful.

According to Heck and Yidan (2013) Consumers choose the product based on the available information. Sustainable marketing plays significant role in strengthening awareness about society. Evidences suggest that consumers are willing to pay premium when they realize

importance of sustainable products and services. There is no gainsaying the fact that the food and beverages (F&B) manufacturing firms are the bedrock of the development of nations a positioned established by scholars such as Akpan, Ikon, Chukwunonye and Nneka (2016). On his part Okere (2012) posits that (F&B) are the primary producers of consumer goods as well as beverages in Nigeria and probably the largest sub-sector of the Nigerian manufacturing sector on the Nigerian Stock Exchange. While, Osundina (2014) is of the view that the industry is a growing and powerful subsector of the Nigerian manufacturing industry within which there is fierce competition (KPMG, 2014, 2015). Food and beverage firms are characterized by several features that shape the innovation process: long production cycles, slow growth, food safety, high regulation and technological convergence (Boehlje *et al.*, 2009).

Problem Statement

The twenty first century witnessed an avalanche of environmental challenges such as resource conservation, climate changes and global warming, which are directly related off shoots of served business practices that have a detrimental impact on economy, environment and society. As mentioned by Emery (2012) sustainability seems be a latterly issue, but it has been discussed for many years, the background of sustainable marketing is numerous. Sustainable marketing is a kind of marketing that builds long-lasting customer relationships effectively - without any particular reference to sustainable development or consideration of sustainability issues. Social and Green Marketing are connected to Sustainable Marketing. The exploration and search about these themes are a little scarce, but its importance has grown fast thus, this study seeks to examine the nexus between sustainable marketing and customer retention in the food and beverage firms in Nigeria.

Purpose of the study

To examine the nexus between sustainability marketing and customer retention in food and beverage firms in the Nigerian. Other sub-objectives include:

   I.   To determine the nexus between green marketing and customer retention
   II. To ascertain the nexus between social marketing and customer retention

Study Variable and Research Framework

Study variable unveils the direction of the research work they serve as the skeletal structure upon which the entire work is built upon. This study has two major variable sustainable marketing which is the predictor variable with green marketing and social marketing as dimensions. While, customer retention as the criterion variable with repeat purchase and customer commitment as measures is depicted below in the diagram
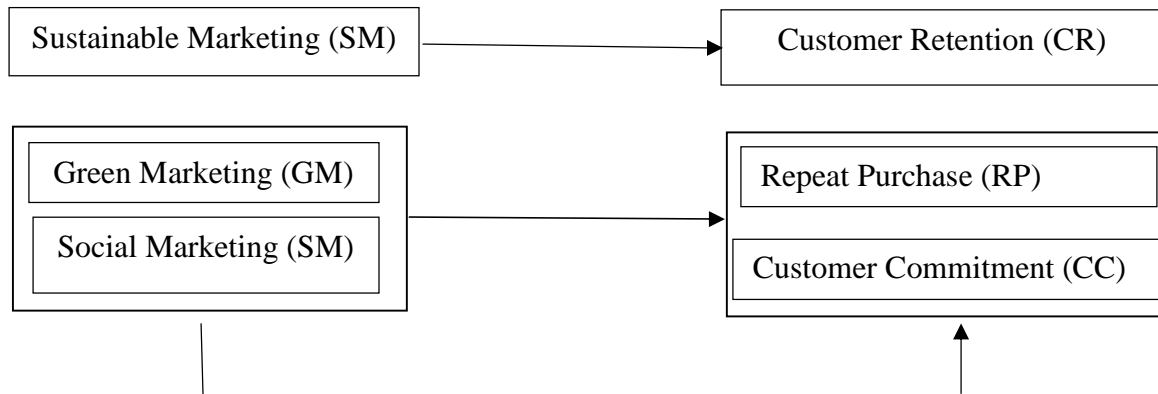
Fig.1.1: Conceptual Framework for sustainable marketing and customer retention
Source: authors' conceptualization from literature

Literature Review
Theoretical foundation

This study is anchored on the commitment-trust theory as propounded by Morgan and Hunt (1994). The theory stipulates that relationship commitment and trust are essential to creating and maintaining long-term RM a position that has been supported by Brown *et al*. (2018). The key component of this theory is trust, because relationship commitment is premised on trust. Scholars agree of the centrality of trust which they considered as a lubricant for social interactions and commercial interactions between parties (Hobbs & Goddard, 2015; Ndubisi, 2007; Chen *et al*., 2015). the definitions of trust above posit the acceptance of vulnerability by a party as an enabler of trust. This vulnerability applies particularly to the purchase of energy-efficiency products, a situation in which the customer is in a weak position due to their limited ability to authenticate the energy rating displayed on the energy efficiency label (Atkinson & Rosenthal, 2014; Darnall *et al*., 2018). Given that the environmental features of a product are not as tangible as other attributes such packaging, shape or taste, appraising environmental claims is often a challenge for customers, sometimes even after using the product (Darnall *et al*., 2018; Taufique *et al*., 2017). In such a purchase situation, the buyer has no choice but to trust the environmental claims displayed by the seller

Concept of Sustainable Marketing

Emery (2012) described sustainable marketing as "a holistic approach whose aim is to ensure that marketing strategies and tactics are specifically designed to secure a socially equitable, environmentally friendly and economically fair and viable business for the benefit of current and future generations of customers, employees and society as a whole." The emphasis of this definition is on creating and sustaining a healthy, equitable and economical viable society without depleting the ecosystem. Gordon *et al*. (2011) divides SM in Green Marketing, Social Marketing and Critical Marketing. The main focus of this thesis will be Green Marketing and Social Marketing and as a complement of this theme, Corporate Social Responsibility will be linked to the main focus, as well as branding and consumer's behavior

Emery (2012) stated that sustainable marketing acknowledges all human activities as dependent on the availability of the natural capital that are provided by the earth, it also recognizes that in the long run sustainable economic viability is the result of both social equity and environmental stability. Also, Emery (2012) asserts that "Sustainable Marketing is the key of transformation, meaning that SM practice has the potential to transform business and the communities in which they operate. Companies that already practice sustainable marketing are keen to emphasize the benefits of the people, planet and profit approach". Martin and Schouten (2012) pointed out that "Sustainability became important many decades ago, in one form or another, people have been advocating for sustainability for a long time. It is natural that their voices have not reached the business world, even with all the creative ideas, the typical structures based in a long-held beliefs face terrible objection."

Green Marketing
Sharma and Trivedi (2016) described green marketing as "a management process that prioritizes and satisfies the customers aspirations and societies at large in a sustainable manner as well as the marketing of products that are for both the environment and the society at large." In this description the authors highlight the salient point of marketing products that are not detrimental to the environment and the society at large. Another set of scholars like (Brough, Wikie, Isaac, & Gal, 2016) stated that green marketing can be liken to the activities that promotes environmentally safe product." Meanwhile, Yeng and Yazdanifard (2015) contends that green marketing is associated with the ability to promote products and services that are deemed environmentally friendly. A closer look at the various description on green marketing shows a consensus on that green marketing basically is concerned with organizations are to produce goods and services that do not harm the environment. For Yeng *et al*. (2015) adopting green marketing strategy is viewed as a beneficiary strategy for the firm in the long run.

Social Marketing
Scholars like (Asgari, Khademi, & Mehriya, 2015; Hasaj & Krymbi, 2013; Hasting, 2011) have described social marketing as those primary efforts that focuses on influencing the behaviours that will improve health, prevent injuries, protect the environment, contribute to communities, and, more recently, enhance financial well-being of the society at large." The emphasis of this definition is the attempt to shape or reorient people to live healthier lives as well as ensure the preservation of the environment, give back to the society and aid in the reduction of poverty by lifting people up financially in the society. This same though was seen in the definition as given by another group scholar's such as (Akinsanya & Bach, 2014; Weinrich, 2011) when they described social marketing as "a process that uses marketing principles and techniques to influence target audience behaviours that will benefit society as well as the individual. Also, Andreasen (2012) views "social Marketing as the application of commercial marketing concepts and tools to influence the voluntary behaviour of target audiences to improve their lives or the society of which they are a part." A closer look at this definition will suggest that there exists a consensus in the social marketing is all about modifying the behaviors of the people. Adetuni,

Asikhia, Adefulu, and Kabuoh (2019) posits that "the main purpose of social marketing is creating a positive behaviour changes in the society. Which include engraining in positive behaviours in accordance with social needs and serving the good of the society are among the purposes of social marketing." This position is consistent with the view of Akdogan, Coban and Ozturk (2013) when they argue that "Social marketing generally is based on the benefit of the society, but also very useful for the benefit of an individual or an organization.

Customer Retention

Sima and Elham (2015) described customer retention as those processes by which the firm are able to their customers by providing products and services that provide great experiences for the customers. This description imply that organization aim is to continuously offer products that are able to satisfy the customers. Reinartz (2015) stated that customer retention can be likened to customer relationship management practices that analyzes and uses marketing and leveraging communication technologies to determine corporate practices and methods that maximize the lifetime value of each customer to the firm, which implies that customer retention is entirely about the customers and their experience. Singh and Khan (2012) asserts that customer retention earns the business a good reputation and goodwill in a competitive market. Also, Singh and Imran, (2012) argues that most "retention programs are designed to turn the occasional customer into a frequent customer; they would be more likely to recommend the business to their friends and relatives." It's been established that Customer retention is a crucial component of customer relationship. The main aspect of customer retention is the emotions evoked by the customer experience combined with the organization's strong reputation. Customer retention is important to most companies because the cost of acquiring a new customer is greater than the cost of maintaining a relationship with a current customer (Sima & Elham, 2015).

Repeat Purchase

Nwulu and Asiegbu (2015) described repeat purchase as a good indicator that shows the sustainability and profitability of an organization base on the fact that repeat purchase unveils the level of satisfaction of the customers and the total quantity that are retained. Earlier scholars like Wirtz and Lwin (2009) defined repeat purchase as the willingness of an individual to re-patronize a service organization. Based on the fact that the first experience was satisfactory and thus a relationship is built on trust and commitment is engendered and then becomes a major predictor of future purchases/ this line of argument was also put forward by other scholars like Caudill and Murphy (2000) when they argued that Customers regularly visit a particular firm based on their perception of trust-that is, they believe that the company has their best interest at heart when providing a service. Studies have shown that rrepeat purchase customers are customers who are satisfied emotionally, intellectually, physically with an organization offering which could be in the form of a product which exceeds their expectations. Meanwhile, repeat purchase is the prime goal a company can set for its products since it is a consumer reference to purchase a given brand in a product category.

Customer Commitment

Moorman, Zaltman and Deshpande (1992) described customer commitment as an ''enduring desire to maintain a valued relationship.' Another group of scholars like Dwer, Schurr and Oh (1987) defined customer commitment as an "'an implicit or explicit pledge of relational continuity between exchange partners.'' Meanwhile Moorman, *et al*. (1992) underscores the fact that an important driver of repurchase intentions is customer commitment meanwhile, scholars like Mittal, Sambandam, and Dholakia (2010) are of the view that customer commitment can also insulate firms from the deleterious impact of negative events like product failures and corporate scandals. Recent research has identified that customer commitment is a powerful predictor of various metrics related to customer retention, like switching/staying intentions and repurchase intentions (Bansal *et al*., 2004; Fullerton, 2003). In other words, scholars like (Venetis & Ghauri, 2004; Reichheld, 1993, 1996) are in consensus that a better understanding of customer commitment is crucial for the success of an organization.

Green Marketing and Customer Retention

Alabdali (2019) conducted a study on factors affecting the application of the concept of green marketing: An empirical study in Saudi food industry companies. The aim of the study was to investigating the factors affecting the adoption of green marketing in food industry companies in Saudi Arabia and the level of their adoption of green marketing concept. Finding from the study revealed a statistically strong relationship between all independent variables and adoption of green marketing by food companies except the variable of consumer behaviors, it has no significant relationship with the adoption of green marketing. In addition, results show a low level of adoption of green marketing in four marketing mix dimensions by Saudi food companies.

Machara, Kinera, Munyoki and Kinoto (2017) conducted a study on relationship between green marketing practices and customer satisfaction in the soft drink industry in Kenya Nairobi. The objectives of the study were to establish the influence of green marketing practices and customer satisfaction in the soft drink industry in Kenya. The specific objective was to establish the relationship between green marketing practices and Customer satisfaction in the Soft Drink industry in Nairobi Kenya. Findings from the study showed a significant relationship between green marketing practices and customer satisfaction in the soft drink industry in Kenya. In the light of these revelations from literature we therefore hypothesized that:

$H0_1$:   There is no significant relationship between green marketing and repeat purchase in the food and beverage firms in Nigeria.

$H0_2$:   There is no significant relationship between green marketing and customer commitment in the food and beverage firms in Nigeria.

Social Marketing and Customer Retention

Issock, Robrts-Lombard and Mpinganjira (2019) conducted a study on the importance of customer trust for social marketing intervention: A case for energy-efficiency consumption. The purpose of the study was to examine the importance of relationship marketing and particularly

customer trust in energy-efficiency labels in social marketing interventions geared towards energy-efficient consumption. The study tested a conceptual model with a sample of 517 users of electronic appliances living in South Africa. The results indicated that customer trust is influenced by customers' perception of the price and quality of energy-efficiency products, their attitude towards such products, and their level of satisfaction with the environmental performance of the products. Customer trust, in turn, showed a positive influence on the customers' intention to purchase energy-efficiency products and their loyalty to such products. As a central variable, customer trust was found to be an important mediator in the conceptual model.

Shukla, and Banerjee (2015) conducted a study on Customer commitment to luxury brands: Antecedents and consequences. The purpose of the study was to examine the antecedents and consequences of customer commitment to luxury brands. The findings indicate the differential influence of various antecedents on affective, calculative and normative commitment, and highlight the role played by these forms of commitment on consumption satisfaction and advocacy intentions. The results demonstrate the importance of affective commitment as a relationship enhancer, and identify managerial implications for customer commitment to luxury brands.

HO_3:   There is no significant relationship between social marketing and repeat purchase in the food and beverage firms in Nigeria.

HO_4:   There is no significant relationship between social marketing and customer commitment in the food and beverage firms in Nigeria.

Methodology

This study adopted the cross-sectional survey research design. This research design enabled the researcher to collect unprejudiced data from the study targets and describe the relationship between the variables. The population of this study consists of the customers of the food and beverage firms in Nigerian. Implying an infinite population, a sample size of 384 was used for the study we relied on Krejche and Morgan (1970) to use that figure, but only 294 questionnaires were returned in good condition, which is 76.5% of total questionnaires sent out this a good percentage for the study. All the items used in the questionnaire were measured using a 5-item scale ranging from "very low" (1) to "very high" (5). Reliability was measured using the Cronbach's Alpha at an average level of 0.7%. Hair, Black, Barry, Anderson, and Tatham (2010) argued that a Cronbach's Alpha equal or greater than 0.7 is regarded to be an indication of reliability. Therefore, the researcher considered the Alpha coefficient greater than 0.7 to indicate reliability of the research instrument. The reliability coefficient of the instrument for each sub-variable of the study is presented in table 1 below

Table 1: Reliability Coefficient of the Research Instrument

Variables	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Comments Above 0.7
Green Marketing	5	0.802	Reliable
Social Marketing	5	0.871	Reliable
Repeat Purchase	5	0.954	Reliable
Customer Commitment	5	0.815	Reliable

Source: SPSS output 2020

Multiple regression analysis was used to predict the value of dependable variable based on the value of two or more independent variables. The study hypotheses were therefore tested using multiple regression analysis where the significant level was set at 0.05. In this regression analysis, standardized coefficients (Standardized Beta) were used for all analyses.

Hypothesis Testing

The purpose of this section is to test the hypotheses earlier raised in order to determine the strength of significance of the influence of the independent on dependent variables, if any. Specifically, the multiple regression was used to confirm the influence of our independent and dependent variables, as well as determine at what level it is significant and thus, either accept or not accept the null hypotheses. This section focuses on empirical analysis and hypotheses testing.

Table 3: Summary of the Result of Multiple Regression Analysis on the effect of Green marketing and Social Marketing on Repeat Purchase in Food and Beverage Firms in Nigeria.

Model	Unstandardized Coefficient		Standardized Coefficient	t	Sig
	B	Std.Error	Beta		
Constant (Repeat Purchase)	12.720	1.176		10.813	.000
Green Marketing	.160	.055	.174	1.656	.001
Social Marketing	.032	.062	.054	.571	.002

R-Square	0.204
Adjusted R-Square	0.579
F	1.243
Sig	0.001

a. Dependent Variable Customer retention

The result of the analysis performed indicates that that Green Marketing (β= 0.078, t = 1.656, p = 0.000) and Social Marketing (β= -0.032, t = -0.571, p = 0.002) have a significant effect on repeat purchase in food and beverage firms. Thus, at 95% confidence level, green marketing, and social marketing have significant positive effect on repeat image. These results also illustrate that a unit increase in green marketing and social marketing are responsible for increasing repeat purchase by 0.204 and 0.32 respectively. The regression results revealed that Green Marketing (β= 0.174, t = 3.264, p<0.05) contributed most towards repeat purchase of food and beverage firms. This study concludes that sustainable marketing affects repeat purchase of food and beverage firms in Nigeria, hence, the null hypotheses were rejected.

We find support for our position in the work of Machara, Kinera, Munyoki and Kinoto (2017) whose study showed a significant relationship between green marketing practices and customer satisfaction in the soft drink industry in Kenya. Again our position is consistent with that of Issock, Robrts-Lombard and Mpinganjira (2019) whose study results indicated that customer trust is influenced by customers' perception of the price and quality of energy-efficiency products, their attitude towards such products, and their level of satisfaction with the environmental performance of the products. and finally our positions were in line with the position of Eniezam, Wahab and Kalsom, (2015) whose study found that indicated significant positive relationship in green marketing strategies and customer satisfaction (an antecedent of customer retention).

Conclusion

Based on the overall result obtained from the study hypotheses, it is concluded that there is a significant relationship between sustainable marketing and customer retention in the food and beverage firms in Nigeria.

Practical Implication of the study

The implication of the results to the study is that sustainable marketing is a worthwhile strategy which the management of the food and beverage firms should be committed to in order to gain competitive advantage in a competitive industry with changing dynamic marketing environment. The findings will therefore assist the marketing managers to convince the senior management and business owners on sustainable marketing issues to be implemented due to widespread perception that sustainable marketing practices may have a significant impact on profit due to the cost of going green. Further, Heck and Yidan (2013) stated that Consumers choose the product based on the available information. Sustainable marketing plays significant role in strengthening awareness about society. Evidences suggest that consumers are willing to pay premium when they realize importance of sustainable products and services.

References

Adetunji, O.L., Asikhia, O. U., Adefulu, A.O., Kabuoh, M.N. (2019). Effect of sustainable marketing on corporate image of selected deposit money banks in Ogun state Nigeria. *International Journal of Economic, Commerce and Management, 6*(4),1-2.

Akdogan, M. S., Coban, S., & Ozturk, R. (2013). Ethical perceptions of social marketing Campaigns. *An empirical study on Turkish consumers. European Scientific Journal,* 8(25), 146-160.

Akpan, P. L., Ikon, M., Chukwunonye, O., & Nneka, M. I. (2016). Economic environment and performance of food and beverage sub-sector of a developing economy: Nigeria. *International Journal of Recent Research in Commerce Economics and Management,* 3(3), 85-90.

Akinsanya, A., & Bach, C. (2014). *Social marketing: Concept and application*. Paper presented at the University of Bridgeport, conference Bridgeport, CT,

Alabdali, H. (2019). Factors affecting the application of the concept of green marketing: An empirical study in Saudi food industry companies. *International Journal of Business and Social Science, 10*(6), 43-53.

Andreasen, A. R. (2012). Rethinking the relationship between social/nonprofit marketing and commercial marketing. *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing. 31(1),36-41.*

Asgari, N., Khademi, M., & Mehriyari, H. (2015). Studying the effects of social marketing on brand equity in non-for profit organisation. *International Journal of Economics, Commerce and Management,* 3(4), 1-17.

Atkinson, L. and Rosenthal, S. (2014). Signaling the green sell: The influence of eco-label source, argument specificity, and product involvement on consumer trust. *Journal of Advertising, 43 (1),33-45*

Boehlje, M., Broring, S., & Roucan-Kane, M. (2009). Innovation in the food agricultural industries: A complex adaptive system, 1240,2016-101687.

Brough, A. R., Wilkie, J. E. B., Ma, J., Isaac, M. S., & Gal, D. (2016). Is eco-friendly unmanly? The green-feminine stereotype and its effect on sustainable consumption. *Journal of Consumer Research, 4*3(4), 567–582.

Brown, J.R., Crosno, J.L., & Tong, P.Y. (2018), "Is the theory of trust and commitment in marketing relationships incomplete?", *Industrial Marketing Management*, 77,155-169.

Caudill, E. M., & Murphy, P. E. (2000). Consumer online privacy: Legal and ethical issues. *Journal of Public Policy and Marketing*, *19*(5), 7-19.

Chen, Y.S., Lin, C.Y., & Weng, C.S. (2015). The influence of environmental friendliness on green trust: The mediation effects of green satisfaction and green perceived quality. *Sustainability, 7(8),10135-10152.*

Dwyer, R., Schurr, P., & Sejo, O.H. (1987). Developing buyer-seller relationships, *Journal of Marketing, 51*(April), 11-27

Eneizan, B.M., Wahab, K.A & Kalsom, A. W. (2015). Effect of green marketing strategy on customer satisfaction in Jordan. *Arabian Journal of Business and management Review, 5*(9), 33-41

Emery, B. (2012). *Sustainable Marketing*. Harlow; Pearson Inc.

Hair, J.F., Black, W.C., Babin, B.J., & Anderson, R.E. (2010). *Multivariate Data Analysis* (7 ed.). Pearson Prentice Hall.

Hasaj, A., & Krymbi, E. (2013). Branding strategy for non - profits in developing countries: Case study of Albania*. Academic Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies, 2(*9), 351-356.

Hastings, G. (2011). When is social marketing not social marketing? *Journal of Social Marketing, 1*(1), 45-53.

Heck, G. & Yidan, X. (2013). The effects of sustainable marketing on brand equity and consumer behavior A case study of Cia, Herring. (unpublished theses, Halmstad) Sweden.

Hobbs, J.E. & Goddard, E. (2015). Consumers and trust. *Food Policy,* 52,71-74

Issock, P.B.I., Robert-Lombard, M., Mpingajira, M. (2019). The importance of customer trust for social marketing interventions: A case of energy-efficiency consumption. *Academic Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies 3*(12)11-18.

Kibera, F.N., Munyoki, J.N., & Kinoti, M.W. (2017). Relationship between green marketing practices and customer satisfaction in the soft drink industry in Nairobi Kenya. *European Journal of Business and Management 9*(6), 69-81.

KPMG (2014). Acting with Integrity International Annual Review,

KPMG International. KPMG (2015), Currents of change: The KPMG survey of corporate responsibility.

Krejche R.V., & Morgan, D.W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 30, 607-610.

Mittal, V., & Carly M. F. (2010). Customer Satisfaction: A strategic review and guidelines for managers fast forward (MSI Report 10-701). Marketing Science Institute.

Moorman, C., Gerald Z., & Rohit D. (1992). Relationships between providers and users of market research: The dynamics of trust within and between organizations. *Journal of Marketing Research, 29*(August), 314-328.

Morgan, R.M. & Hunt, S.D. (1994). The commitment-trust theory of relationship marketing", *Journal of Marketing, 58*(3),20-38.

Ndubisi, N.O. (2007). Relationship marketing and customer loyalty, *Marketing Intelligence & Planning, 25(1),98-106.*

Nwulu, C. S. & Asiegbu, I. F. (2015). Advancement inclination behaviors and university academic staff patronage of deposit money banks in Port Harcourt. *International Journal of Research in Business Studies and Management*, *2*(I6), 34-56.

Okere, R. (2012, February 15). Nigeria's food, beverage industry riding above the storm. Guardian. Retrieved on December 3, 2012 from http://www.ngrguardiannews.com.

Osundina, J. A. (2014). Working capital management and profitability: evidence from quoted food and beverages manufacturing firms in Nigeria. Research *Journal of Finance and Accounting, 5*(4), 101- 107.

Razali, N. M., & Wah,Y. B. (2011). Power comparison of Shapiro-Wilk, Kolmogorov-Smirnoff, Lilliefors and Anderson Darling Tests. *Journal of statistical modeling and Analyticas, 2*(1), 21-33.

Reichheld, F.F. (1996), The Loyalty Effect, Harvard Business School Press, Boston, MA.

Reichheld, F.F. (1993). Loyalty-based management, *Harvard Business Review, 71,* 64-73.

Sima. G. M. & Elham. F.T., (2015). The impact of customer loyalty programs on customer retention. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, *68*(1) 1-16.

Singh Roopa & Khan Imran (2012). An approach to increase customer retention and loyalty in B2C world. *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications*, *2*(6), 1-16.

Sharma, M., & Trivedi, P. (2016). Various green marketing variables and their effects on consumers" buying behaviour for green products. *International Journal of Latest Technology in Engineering, Management & Applied Science, 5*(1), 14-33.

Shukla, P., Banarjee, M. (2015). Customer commitment to luxury brands: Antecedents and consequences. School of Business Administration, American University of Sharjah, United Arab Emirates.

Taufique, K.M.R., Vocino, A. & Polonsky, M.J. (2017). The influence of eco-label knowledge and trust on pro-environmental consumer behaviour in an emerging market. *Journal of Strategic Marketing, 25*(7),511-529.

Venetis, K.A. and Ghauri, P.N. (2004). Service quality and customer retention: Building long-term relationships, *European Journal of Marketing, 38*(11/12),1577-98

Weinreich, N. K. (2011). *What is social marketing: A step-by-step guide to designing change for good.* Sage Publications.

Wirtz, J & Lwin, M.O (2009). Regulatory focus theory, trust, and privacy concern. *Journal of Science Research*, *12*(2), 190-207.

Yeng, W., & Yazdanifard, R. (2015). Green marketing: A study of consumers buying behaviour in relation to green products*. Global Journal of Management and Business Research*, *9*(3), 23-36.

International Response and Support in the Prevention of Boko Haram Insurgency in Nigeria

Dr. Dominic Shimawua

Department of Public Administration, Veritas University Abuja-Nigeria | Email: dshimawua@gmail.com | Tel: 08065968062

Abstract: *The outbreak of the Boko Haram insurgency in 2009 has steadily become the greatest social problem to global community. This study therefore examines international response and support to the prevention of Boko Haram insurgency in Nigeria. The paper adopted analytical research design where evidential documented secondary sources of data collection were used to investigate into the international response and support in addressing Boko Haram menace in Nigeria. Using thematic, analytical and explanatory techniques to analyze the data that were available, the paper observed the efforts made by the international organizations and groups in curtailing the activities of the Boko Haram in Nigeria but suspected however that such efforts were not sufficient to assist the country in ending the insurgency. The paper also envisaged a lot of shortcomings in Nigeria's efforts and approaches in dealing with insurgency as the country over-relied on hard approaches in additional to other variables such as corruption; lack of political will; ethnic, cultural and religious sentiments; conspiracy; lack of safety of members; poor leadership; lack of cooperation and community involvement; illiteracy etc that always stand as stumbling blocks against some of the international programmes and supports which also contributed to the withdrawal of some of the international supports. The paper concluded with a strong conviction that Nigeria will get maximum supports from the international organizations and groups capable of defeating Boko Haram insurgency only if the country itself demonstrates sincere commitment devoid political, cultural, religious and ethnic sentiments; corrupt tendencies; in addition to provision of adequate security cover for international groups' members; and adequate involvement of the community members.*

Keywords: *International Response, Support, Prevention, Boko Haram, Insurgency*

Introduction

One of the biggest security challenges Nigeria is battling with since a decade ago is the Boko Haram insurgency. The escalation of the Boko Haram insurgency in Nigeria has had increasingly harmful impacts on the security and lives of the Nigerians. United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF, 2016) report estimated that 7 million Nigerian children have been internally displaced and exposed to frequent violence, which has implications for their mental health. Despite mental health concerns related to these children's experiences, they are rarely assessed and provided with mental health treatment. Events associated with the Boko Haram insurgency severely undermine the psychological and educational outcomes of children in northeastern

Nigeria (Amnesty International, 2014; Human Rights Watch, 2014; Oxfam, 2015). A survey conducted by UNICEF (2016) showed that 7 million Nigerians have been displaced as a result of the Boko Haram insurgency, of which 57% are children (International Organization for Migration IOM, 2015).

The outbreak of the Boko Haram insurgency in 2009 according to United Nation High Commissioner for Refugee (UNHCR, 2017) has steadily become the single greatest cause of displacement in the Lake Chad Basin region, with more than 2.3 million people becoming refugees, internally displaced people (IDPs) or returnees as a result. In Nigeria, the number of IDPs has more than doubled in the span of three years, from some 868,000 people identified by the Nigerian Government in the north-eastern regions at the end of 2014 to 1.7 million people by June 2017, according the Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM) report released by IOM.

Socioeconomic inequalities, injustice, corruption, ethnic intolerance and religious extremism are some of the vices which have culminated and metamorphosed into fanatical movements demanding radical change. Insurgencies, and the terrorism that them, have become the order of the day thus posing complex challenges threatening political and social stability and defying military attempts to suppress or defeat them.

In response to the ongoing Boko Haram insurgency in Nigeria, the Nigerian government has developed counterterrorism and post conflict recovery policies. A report from the World Bank on Northeastern Nigeria that focused on recovery and peace building covering the period 2015-2016 showed that Nigeria had recorded significant successes in the fight against Boko Haram (Quick & Demetriou, 2017). The World Bank report also revealed that the military campaign had been stronger and better coordinated. Boko Haram is now a less potent military threat compared to 8 years ago, when the terrorist organization killed tens of thousands of people, uprooted millions, damaged local economies, destroyed cross-border trade, and spread to the Lake Chad states of Cameroon, Chad, and Niger. The Boko Haram group has in recent months carried out fewer attacks and has chosen softer targets such as remote villages, churches, and markets (Onapajo, 2017). This is a dramatic departure from December 2013, when hundreds of Boko Haram fighters overran a Nigerian air force base in the Borno state capital, Maiduguri.

Methodology

This research adopted analytical research design to examine the international efforts and collaboration in addressing the issue of Boko Haram Insurgency in Nigeria. Evidential documented secondary materials relevant to this work were used as sources of data collection in this paper. Thematic, analytical and explanatory techniques were used in the analysis of the secondary data in the context that better addresses the concern of the paper.

Understanding Insurgency and Terrorism

Terrorism has become one of the most security challenges for many countries in the world. Due to the threat terrorism poses to international peace and security, it has attracted a lot of attention globally. Although there are international instruments which condemn terrorism and call for its suppression and elimination, there remains the primary challenge of a lack of a universally accepted legal definition for terrorism. The lack of specificity in definition has continued to pose the risk of nonstandardized, insufficient or incorrect application and implementation of counterterrorism measures. There is a long-standing consensus in the academic community over the disagreement surrounding the conceptual and operational definition of terrorism. Both the theoretical conceptualization and the empirical manifestation of terrorism are highly contested base on state, national, political, geopolitical, religious and even ideological constellations, giving rise to not one but many manifestations of terrorism, differing from one region to another, one sub-region to another and one country to another (Bartolotta, 2011).

However, even though there is still lack of agreement on what terrorism is, attempts at arriving at a definition have been made. At the 1999 Convention on the Prevention and Combating of Terrorism, the Organization of African Unity (OAU) defined an act of terrorism as "any act which is a violation of the criminal laws of a State Party and which may endanger the life, physical integrity or freedom of, or cause serious injury or death to, any person, any number or group of persons or causes or may cause damage to public or private property, natural resources, environmental or cultural heritage" (OAU, 1999). Similarly, the 2015 Global Terrorism Index (GTI) report defines terrorism as "the threatened or actual use of illegal force and violence by non-state actors to attain a political, economic, religious or social goal through fear, coercion or intimidation". In addition, Forest and Giroux (Forest and Giroux, 2011) defined terrorism as a tactic that uses violence or threat of violence as a coercive strategy to cause fear and political intimidation.

Scholars and theorists have given different definitions of insurgency. While some of these definitions are closely related, others are not so related though contain common elements and this still makes the subject technically difficult. Perhaps insurgency is best understood by first considering what it is not. Insurgency is not terrorism or conventional war for example, though it shares with them some similarities such as the use of force or guerrilla tactics to achieve an end which is often political. Basically, the difference between insurgency and terrorism lies in the scope and magnitude of violence. While for instance, terrorism rarely brings about political change on its own, insurgency attempts to bring about change through force of arms. Similarly, terrorists often apply a wide range of damages when compared to insurgents. On the other hand, while conventional war involves adversaries more or less symmetric in equipment or training, insurgency involves adversaries that are asymmetric, weak, and almost always a sub-state group. Traditionally however, insurgencies seek to overthrow an existing order with one

that is commensurate with their political, economic, ideological or religious goals (Gompert & Gordon, 2008).

Insurgency is a strategy adopted by groups which cannot attain their political objectives through conventional means or by a quick seizure of power. Insurgency could also be defined as any kind of armed uprising against an incumbent government (Calvert, 2010). It is characterized by protracted, asymmetric violence, ambiguity, the use of complex terrain (jungles, mountains, and urban areas), psychological warfare, and political mobilization which are all designed to protect the insurgents and eventually alter the balance of power in their favor. In his book titled *Globalization and Insurgency*, Mackinlay (2013) defined insurgency as the ‹actions of a minority group within a state who are intent on forcing political change by means of a mixture of subversion, propaganda and military pressure, aiming to persuade or intimidate the broad mass of people to achieve their aim. Insurgency could start as a social protest, from a given group of people, who feel continuously marginalized in the affairs of government. According to Kilcullen (2006), insurgency is a struggle to control a contested political space, between a state (or a group of states or occupying powers), and one or more popularly based, non-state challengers. Kilcullen also try to draw a line between classical and contemporary insurgencies thus: while the latter seek to replace the existing order, the former sometimes strive for the expulsion of foreign invaders from their territory or seek to fill an existing power vacuum. The British Army counter-insurgency manual, Army Field Manual (AFM) (2001, p. 34) defined insurgency as:

> The actions of a minority group within a state who are intent on forcing political change by a means of a mixture of subversion, propaganda and military pressure, aiming to persuade or intimidate the broad mass of the people to accept such a change. It is an organised, armed political struggle, the goals of which might be diverse.

This definition also conform with the US Army-Marine Corps Counterinsurgency Field Manual (FM 3-24) which defined insurgency as "an organized, protracted politico-military struggle designed to weaken the control and legitimacy of an established government, occupying power, or other political authority while increasing insurgent control" (Petraeus & Amos, 2006). In all, insurgencies connote an internal uprising often outside the confines of state's laws and it is often characterised by social-economic and political goals as well as military or guerrilla tactics. Put differently, it is a protracted struggle carefully and methodically carried out to achieve certain goals with an eventual aim of replacing the existing power structure. To launch their anger on the state, insurgents often target civilians and infrastructures. However, other than the violence of insurgency are its political and social-economic dimension, where often lies its causes and effects.

From the foregoing, Apau and Banunle (2019) explained that terrorism and insurgency arise generally from similar causal conditions, terrorism often being employed as a tactics within a broad framework of an insurgent campaign. For example, groups like Al-Shabaab in Somalia and Boko Haram in Nigeria are known to employ a mix of insurgent and terrorism tactics. It is

also clear that terrorism can stand alone as in the case of known terrorist groups such as Al-Qaeda and Islamic States (IS) (Apau and Banunle, 2019; Liolio, 2013).

Emergence of Boko Haram Terrorism in Nigeria

Boko Haram is a militant organization based in north-eastern Nigeria and also active in Chad, Niger and northern Cameroon (Chandler, 2015). The group was founded in 2002 by Mohammed Yusuf upon the principles of the Khawaarij advocating Sharia law. It turned into a violent extremist group in 2009 and has been responsible for loss of lives in many parts of Northern Nigeria. Boko Haram previously existed as Jamā'at Ahl as-Sunnah lid-Da'wah wa'l-Jihād (Chandler, 2015). One of the goals of the Boko Haram group is to champion for the establishment of an Islamic State, ruled by strict sharia law especially in the Northern part of Nigeria where the majority of the populations are Muslims. Boko Haram believes that democracy is too lenient and violates Islam. It also opposes the Westernization of Nigerian society and also the concentration of the wealth of the country among members of small political elite, mainly in the Christian south of the country (Bartolotta, 2011; Farouk, 2013; Vanguard, 2011).

The roots of Boko Haram lie in the Islamic history of Northern Nigeria, in which for some 800 years powerful sultanates centered on the Hausa cities close to Kano and the sultanate of Borno (roughly the region of the states of Borno and Yobe together with parts of Chad) constituted high Muslim civilizations. These sultanates were challenged by the jihad of Shehu Usuman Dan Fodio (that lasted from 1802- 1812), who created a unified caliphate stretching across northern Nigeria into the neighbouring countries (Bartolotta, 2011). Dan Fodio's legacy of jihad is one that is seen as normative by most northern Nigerian Muslims. The caliphate still ruled by his descendants (together with numerous smaller sultanates), however, was conquered by the British in 1905, and in 1960 Muslim northern Nigeria was federated with largely Christian southern Nigeria (Apine, 2014).

The Muslim response to the Christian political ascendency was the move during the period of 2000-2003 to impose Sharia in 12 of the northern states in which they predominated (Cook, 2011). For the most part, imposition of Sharia brought the previously feuding Muslim groups together, and there was no further use of takfiri (accusations of being non-Muslim) (Cook, 2011). While the imposition of Sharia did satisfy the official manifestations of Islam in the north (both Sufi and Salafi), it is clear that radicals who were takfiris doctrinally such as members of Boko Haram were left outside (Adesoji, 2010).

There is no doubt that the suppression operation of 2009, and the killing of Muhammad Yusuf by Nigerian security forces in July of that year, was a turning point for Boko Haram. The group was frequently said at this time to be defunct. In September 2010 (coinciding with Ramadan), however, Boko Haram carried out a prison break (said to have released some 700 prisoners) (Adesoji, 2010) and thereafter, the group began operations again. The targeted assassinations are the most revealing, involving political figures, such as Abba Anas bin `Umar (killed in May

2011), the brother of the Shehu of Borno, and secular opposition figures (Modu Fannami Godio, killed in January 2011), but also prominent clerics such as Bashir Kashara, a well-known Wahhabi figure (killed in October 2010), Ibrahim Ahmad Abdullahi, a non-violent preacher (killed in March 2011), and Ibrahim Birkuti, a well-known popular preacher who challenged Boko Haram (killed in June 2011). The shootings of these prominent clerics seem to be in accord with Boko Haram's purificationist agenda with regard to Islam (Ewi, 2013).

Boko Haram related violence has largely been confined to Nigeria's northeast, in Adamawa, Borno and Yobe states. It has been most heavily concentrated in Borno, with the brunt of the violence borne by Maiduguri, Gwoza, and Kukawa. Violence has also become common south and east of Maiduguri, along the border with Cameroon's Far North Region, and around Lake Chad. There have been sporadic incidents in places such as Nigeria's Middle Belt and the capital of Abuja that have been attributed to Boko Haram. Boko Haram has adopted suicide attacks as an important tactic in its struggle against government authority (Apau and Banunle, 2019).

Over the past seven years, Boko Haram has demonstrated flexibility and remains a formidable threat to the Nigerian state despite losing much of its territory. Though the group is undoubtedly less powerful than it was in 2015, there is no sign that the government will defeat it in the foreseeable future. In the meantime, the pervasive threat of violence sharply curtails the ability of international aid organizations and donor countries to provide humanitarian relief. The extent of the group's popular support and the extent to which the security services are fuelling Boko Haram recruitment needs to be properly assessed (Apau and Banunle, 2019).

Ideology and belief

As noted above, Boko Haram is an indigenous Salafist group which only turned itself into a Salafist Jihadist group in 2009. Accoding to Toni (2011), Paul Lubeck of the University of California noted that Yusuf was also a trained salafist (a school of thought often associated with jihad) and was heavily influenced by Ibn Taymiyyah, a fourteenth century legal scholar remarkable for Islamic fundamentalism and considered a "major theorist" for radical groups in the Middle East. According to Liolio (2013), Boko Haram propagates that not only interaction with the Western World is forbidden, but it is also against the Muslim establishment and the government of Nigeria, the latter of which they accuse of political corruption and weak judicial structure. To sanitise this, they initially fought for the establishment of a Shari'a government in Borno State under the then Governor Ali Modu Sheriff, but after 2009, their aim was directed to the Islamization of the entire Nigeria (Toni, 2011).

Boko Haram school of thought considers anything western as completely unislamic, and as such the basis for religious weakness. According to one AbdulMumuni Ibrahim Muhammad, a leader of a group of 33 members Boko Haram factions, "we are fighting westernization to protect adulteration of Islam" (Vanguard, 2011). For this reason, BBC News (2013) posits that Boko Haram thus adopted a 'non-western' lifestyle by wearing non-western clothes, eating basic foods, and worshiping in their own mosque in Maiduguri, all of which also separate them from

other Muslims in the North. In fact, its members do not interact with the local Muslim population and have even carried out assassinations in the past on anyone who criticises it, including Muslim clerics (Farouk, 2013). According to BBC News (2009), the group publicly extols its ideology despite the fact that its founder and former leader Muhammad Yusuf was himself a highly educated man who lived a lavish life and drove a Mercedes Benz.

During a 2009 interview conducted by BBC, the late Muhammad Yusuf rejected scientific explanation for natural phenomena, such as the sun evaporating water being the cause of rain, Darwinian evolution, and the Earth being a sphere "if it runs contrary to the teachings of Allah."142 Before his death, Yusuf also reiterated the group's objective of changing the current education system and rejecting democracy.

Organizational and political Structures

The group, at least before 2009 had no clear organizational or political structure and consequently little or nothing was known of its command and control system. However, by 2011 and 2012 it became somewhat clear that members of Boko Haram are organised in complex cell structures from where they operate both locally and internationally. These cells which are about 26 are headed by regional commanders who in turn take commands from Abubakar Shekau, their current number one leader, a situation which makes it difficult for the Nigerian security forces to fish out and dismantle the group. The group also has a sophisticated leadership structure comprising departments headed by highly trained personnel whereupon designated assignments are effectively executed. Such departments also include bomb manufacturing, suicide bombers, intelligence, research, welfare/healthcare and other logistics needed for proper execution of their goals. It has also been said that the highest decision making body of Boko Haram is called the "Shura Council" (Liolio, 2013)

Area of Operation

The group specifically enjoys popular supports in the predominantly Muslim northern states and regions of Nigeria. Such states include Bauchi, Gombe, Kano, Katsina, Yobe and Borno. Most of its early attacks have been in the city of Maiduguri which is the Capital of Borno state. However, after 2009, they extended their attacks to virtually any part of Nigeria where they have the slightest opportunity, including the Nigerian Federal capital territory, Abuja. Additionally Boko Haram now boasts of about 540,000 members to which included militants from neighbouring Chad, Niger and Cameroon.

Strategy/Tactics

Boko Haram before 2009 was mainly involved in attacks with clubs, machetes, Molotov cocktails as well as drive-by and ride-by assassinations, often with small arms. They sometimes

shot sporadically at their targets (who might be civilians or police officers drinking alcohol in beer parlours) before running into hiding. This however changed after 2009 as the group started using bombs and improvised explosive devices (IEDs) on strategic places. Their tactics now also includes suicide bombings and the August 26, 2011 suicide car-bombing became the first and successful suicide bombing in Boko Haram history. Currently Boko Haram conducts bombs operations with flexibility and maximum effectiveness and has claimed responsibility for over twenty bombings in Nigeria. Its arsenal now also boasts of Ak-47 style rifles, grenades, rocket propelled grenades, automatic rifles, surface-to air- missiles, vehicle mounted anti-aircraft machine guns, machine guns with anti-aircraft visors, and explosives such as Semtex, all of which might have been smuggled into the Sahel from Libya during its 2011 war (Liolio, 2013).

Targets/Opponents

The group has primarily targeted the Nigerian policemen. It has shown no compunctions, killing traditional leaders who they considered informants. Its blog has triumphantly praised attacks on Nigerians who have visited drinking bars and those who publicly criticise it. More recently, Boko Haram has channelled its attacks on Christians in the North and in this order; churches have been their latest target. And also, with the bombing of the UN building in Abuja, Nigeria, it is now clear they might be targeting foreign or international organisations.

Group Affiliations/Training

Many experts on Boko haram noted that the group's suicide bombing on 26 August 2011 that destroyed the UN building in Nigeria's capital, Abuja, reveals a link with al-Qaeda in the Maghreb (AQIM). Before the attack, an internal Nigerian intelligence document had discussed possible links between Boko haram and AQIM. General Carter Ham, the general in front of United States African Command (AFRICOM) speculated that Boko Haram might want to establish partnership with the Somali terrorist group, al-Shabaab, in addition to AQIM. In January 2010, the leader of AQIM, Abd al-Malik Droukdal, released a statement offering to provide training and material assistance to Boko Haram. These connections notwithstanding, as of September 2011, several experts doubt the actualised alliance between the two groups, noting the lack of public hard evidence linking Boko Haram and AQIM**.**

However, the Republic of Niger's Foreign Minister, Mohamed Bazoum, on 25th January 2011 said Boko Haram received training and weapons from Al-Qaeda's North African wing. Bazoum, who spoke at a regional security summit in Mauritania's capital, Nouakchott, said members of the sect received training in camps in the Sahel region of West Africa as well as explosives from Al-Qaeda in the Islamic Maghreb. In his words, "there is no doubt that there is confirmed information that shows a link between Boko Haram and AQIM (Al Qaeda in the Islamic Maghreb), and it consists primarily of the training given to elements of Boko Haram. One group has been received in AQIM bases here in the Sahel and another group got training, based on information we've gotten, with the al-Shabaabs in Somalia (cited in Liolio, 2013).

It is important to state here that a press statement dated August 09, 2009 and signed by the then acting leader of the group, Mallam Sanni Umaru, had confirmed Boko Haram ties with al-Qaeda. In his words," Boko Haram is an Islamic Revolution which impact is not limited to Northern Nigeria, in fact, we are spread across all the 36 states in Nigeria, and Boko Haram is just a version of the Al Qaeda which we align with and respect. We support Osama bin Laden, we shall carry out his command in Nigeria until the country is totally Islamised which is according to the wish of Allah." In the same vein, Boko Haram's spokesman, Abu Qaqa while speaking via phone to a handful of reporters on November 2011 noted, "We are together with al Qaeda…they are promoting the cause of Islam, just as we are doing. Therefore they help us in our struggle and we help them, too." Only recently too, it has been alleged that Boko Haram has training base in the north of Mali as well as strong ties with the Tuaregs of Mali.

Finance/Funding

Not much is presently known of the annual budget of Boko haram. According to Liolio (2013), at its early stage, Boko Haram was financially supported by wealthy members from Borno and Yobe States. The group has also financed its operations by robbing a lot of banks in the North as well as sending threatening text messages to top members of the society to deposit certain amount of money into specific accounts. It has also been reported that Boko Haram was paid millions of Nigerian naira on monthly basis by some Governors of Northern Nigeria, especially those of Kano and Bauchi states. Such payments are deep rooted in an agreement to which Boko Haram was not to attack the respective governors' states.

It was alleged that the group receive huge financial supports from strong Nigerian politicians as well as former Nigerian heads of state. Even some members of the ruling People's Democratic Party (PDP) has been named as sponsors. There are also indications that the group receives funds from external forces such as al-Qaeda and Al-Shabaab. But there is no hard evidence to buttress this claim yet.

Recruitment

Boko Haram recruits members from Northern Nigeria as well as militants from neighbouring Chad, Niger and Cameroon. Their targets are usually youth between the ages of 17 to 30 who are often passionate and excessively enthusiastic for Islamic knowledge. The bulk of these youth, (especially those who execute their operations) are illiterate, poor, frustrated and jobless. This thus paves the way for successful recruitment based on "indoctrination''. The leaders persuade these youth by quoting verses from the Quran. Their former leader, Yusuf for instance, technically implants the group with extremist ideology often contrary to westernization and backed by passages from the Quran, a reason which also made many youths dropped out of school to join his supposed cause. A good example of such passages is Chapter 5, verse 47 of the Quran which reads, "Let the followers of the Gospel judge by what Allah has revealed therein, and those who do not judge by what Allah has revealed are the transgressors" (Liolio, 2013).

Additionally, the late Yusuf argued that western education or "boko" had brought but poverty, suffering, political corruption and injustice to the region and for these reasons, it is tabooed, or "haram," in Islam. And like Eric Guttschuss, Human Rights Watch researcher opined, Yusuf gained supporters "by speaking out against police and political corruption." Consequent upon these factors, which are true of the Nigerian polity, more members were recruited and some even had to sell their belongings in order to financially contribute to the cause of delivering Islam from the supposed shackles of westernization as well as sanitising the Nigerian polity which they believed can only be done through sharia laws. As time passes by, more educated people such as bankers, university students, lawyers, doctors and uniformed men were recruited and like conflict resolution expert, Rev. Oladimeji Ladi Thompson noted, Boko Haram have strong ties with some top government officials as well as other powerful members of the society. In order to also maintain their loyalty and commitment especially from the illiterate and poor members, Boko haram gives rewards in money and material gains. Lastly, Boko Haram recruits members by breaking into prisons and setting prisoners free. In return, most of these prisoners become part of the group.

Causes of Boko Haram Insurgency in Nigeria

While the incidence and spread of terrorism in the Sahel cannot be attributed to any single factor, reference is copiously made by scholars and practitioners on causal factors such as political grievances, relative deprivation and actual or perceived injustice which tend to act as catalysts and exploited by terrorist groups to justify the need to distrust government and to cause a change through violent means. While many authors have alluded to the vast geographic nature of the Sahel belt as fertile grounds for insurgencies and insurrections, others have cited the meeting of different and occasionally hostile creeds and ideologies. Nomadic pastoralists come into contact with agrarians, while predominantly Muslim northerners meet with Christian and animist southerners. Arabs, Berbers and Tuareg meet subSaharan (black) Africans. This meeting of different peoples has resulted in violence, and further created historical tribal rivalries and conflicts with occasional clashes. The inter-communal/ethnics violence has been exacerbated due to the rise in extremist groups (Apau and Banunle, 2019).

Some proximate causal factors identified include poor communication and mistrust between government and local communities, lack of government presence in local communities, inability of government to provide the basic needs of local communities, lack of opportunities, unemployment, lack of accountability by political office holders, corruption, injustice, impunity, discrimination, exclusive politics and other context-specific good governance deficits. These create conditions of disillusionment, hopelessness and frustration in local communities and facilitate radicalization as well as resort to acts of violent extremism and terrorism. Also, the lack of economic and financial capacities of Sahel countries to deliver on the expectations of the citizenry are also proximate causal factors to the state of disillusionment, hopelessness and frustration in a number of instances (Apau and Banunle, 2019).

The incidence of militant religious extremism, the presence and activities of Foreign Terrorist Fighters (FTFs), the running of criminal/illicit economy, and the trafficking of weapons and drugs are considered as key external causal factors. The threat of terrorism in the Sahel continues to evolve around local terrorist groups and insurgencies with a Militant Salafi-Jihadism worldview and an affiliation to either Al-Qaeda or Islamic State. The world view dimension of the terrorist groups also facilitates the provision and receipt of support. These groups, tend to profess an extremist religious world view with a strategic terrorism objective. In both of these cases, an examination of the Ways, Mean, and Ends employed and pursued by these groups reveals that external factors play a major part in sustaining their activities. There appears to be an externally driven grand strategy to suppress Islamic Sufism and aggressively diffuse and propagate a Salafist-jihadist ideology in the Sahel through militancy. The activities of most terrorist groups in the Sahel indicate consonance with this grand strategy. The Salafist-jihadist ideology projects a deviation of the dictates of the Islam faith and strict adherence contrary to what the local African communities have practiced over centuries and which is tolerant of other faiths and cultures. This is a recipe for confrontation (Apau and Banunle, 2019).

Other empirical and theoretical studies have examined the root causes of terrorism and the objectives of terrorists. Identified root causes can be classified as follows: economic, social, religious, ethnic and political. We now examine these studies in more depth.

Economic and Social Root Causes

Poverty and unemployment have been identified by some studies as common causes of terrorism. The general belief of the security and intelligence community is that people who are economically deprived are more likely to resort to violence as a way to express their grievances. That is poverty and unemployment creates terrorism (Aland & Jitka, 2003). The theory of relative deprivation explains that when people feel deprived of something they are expect to have, they become discontent, hence could use violence to express their grievances. Parida (2017) argued that poor economic conditions such as lack of employment opportunities and poverty create the condition for people to join terrorist organizations. A study by Kavanagh (2011) found that poor but highly educated people were the ones likely to participate in terrorism. Bhatia and Ghanem (2017) in their study that examined the relationship between education, unemployment and violent extremism, however, found that unemployed educated youth are more likely to be radicalized by terrorist groups due to the unemployment and lack of employment opportunities in Arab countries.

Similarly, the lack of economic opportunities has been found as a root cause of terrorism. A study by Gassebner and Luechinger (2011) found a negative relationship between lack of economic opportunities and terrorism. The study further shows that countries that restrict economic freedom are susceptible to more terrorist attacks than countries that promote economic freedom. For example, Mohammad (2005) argued, "the deterioration of socio-economic conditions in the Middle Eastern societies has contributed in many ways to the

eruption of terrorism." In his study that examines the relationship between poverty, minority economic discrimination and domestic terrorism, Piazza (2011) revealed that countries that subject minority groups to economic discrimination are more likely to experience domestic terrorism than countries where minority groups are not affected by economic discrimination.

Religious and Ethnic Causes of Terrorism

It is common belief that religious tension and religious fundamentalism cause terrorism. There is empirical evidence to support this argument (Gassebner & Luechinger ,2011). With respect to Boko Haram, religion plays a vital role in their discourse (Haldun & Odukya, 2013). The group holds extreme religious ideology, which they use as the basis to commit their heinous crimes. Akinola (2014) argued that the rise of Boko Haram is embedded in Islamic fundamentalism, which they use to justify their actions. For example, the group aims to promote Sharia law and create an Islamic state in Northern Nigeria. As a result, it has waged war on any group or western idea, which they believe is against Islam. This has created the notion that terrorism is linked to religion fundamentalism (Campbell & Asch, 2018). In the study, why do people join Boko Haram? Onuoha (2014) found that, "ignorance of religious teaching is the leading factor influencing the adoption of extreme religious views, especially among youth" in all the northern states surveyed.

In addition, religious and ethnic tensions are found to cause terrorism. Historically, Nigeria has experienced intermittent ethno-religious clashes (Haldun & Odukya, 2013). Although, it is hard to claim that the emergence Boko Haram is related to religious or ethnic conflict, some studies have found a positive relationship between religious and ethnic tensions and terrorism (Basuchoudhary & Shughart II, 2010). This implies that societies experiencing religious tension can become a breeding ground for terrorists to operate.

Political Causes of Terrorism

With respect to the political root causes of terrorism, several studies have indicated that the lack of civil liberties, corruption, weak political institutions, political instability, weak government, high level of repression, civil wars can foment the incidence of terrorism (Eubank & Weinberg, 2001). In addition, a study by Piazza (2011) shows that society with large complex multiparty systems are more prone to terrorist incidence than those with few homogeneous systems. Also, democratic countries, which are assumed to be in a better position to stop terrorist attacks, are more prone to terrorist attacks than autocratic countries. Krieger and Meierrieks (2014) argued that democratic countries are prone to terrorist attacks due to the promotion of democratic ideals like respect for civil liberties and free press, which open doors for terrorists to operate and also hinder counter-terrorism measures. On domestic terrorism in Northeast Nigeria, some studies blamed the emergence of Boko Haram on the country's elite politics.[64] Botha, Salifu & Abdile (2011) argued that "Boko Haram is a political construct, sponsored by politicians." According to Mbah, Nwangwu and Edeh (2011) Boko Haram emerged

from the struggle among northern and southern political elites to gain control of state political power, especially after the death of President Yar'Adua.

The re-election of Jonathan Goodluck in 2011 then led to the use of Boko Haram as an instrument of destruction by northern political elites (OKoro, 2012). However, these claims cannot fully explain the emergence of Boko Haram, since other political and social phenomenon could contribute to the rise of the group. For instance, some scholars have argued that emergence of the group could be linked to bad governance, corruption and economic deprivation in northern Nigeria, which has fostered the rise radical extremist groups.

International Response and Support to the Prevention of Boko Haram Insurgency in Nigeria

In terms of countermeasures, attempts at containing Boko Haram has attract national and international responses, giving the trans-border or transnational nature of its activities. At the national level, the Nigerian government came up with Terrorism (Prevention) Bill, 2011 as part of the efforts in tacking terrorist activities. The Bill, signed into law in 2012 was amended in 2013 to accommodate ways of dealing with other terrorism-related crimes (Terrorism Prevention Amendment, Act, 2013). The Terrorism (Prevention) Act, 2013 authorities death penalty for any individual guilty of terrorist acts. In giving effect to the central object of the Terrorism Prevention Act, 2013, the Goodluck Jonathan's administration gave unreserved powers to the state security in the fight against Boko Haram.

As part of the anti-Boko Haram measures, the Federal Government also declared state of emergency in Borno, Yobe, Plateau and Niger states in December 2011; Adamawa, Borno and Yobe states in May 2013, and a military shut down of mobile telephone network in the three North-Eastern states, which communication within the group (Jocab & Akpan, 2015). Whereas these measures destabilized the group's effectiveness for a short period, it provoked negative reactions from the people of the region, due to the negative socio-economic impact it had on their lives (Jacob & Akpan, 2015).

Similarly, the Nigerian National Assembly also demonstrates its commitment to live up to its responsibility, by preparing to act in was to enhance the protection of the lives of the citizens. The highest body of the Nigerian Legislature vouched to ensure the passage of good laws as well as carry out effective oversight on government expenditures especially on defence and internal security (Goyel, 2018).

Nigeria also collaborated with the United Kingdom on counter-insurgency measures (Premium Times, 2013). France's assistance was also requested in the fight against the group, following the Yobe state school attack on February 25, 2014 (Goyel, 2018). The Nigerian government also acknowledged the dispatch of a US team to aid the recovery of the abducted school girls by Boko Haram in May 2014. The United States, France and China also had their teams on the ground in Nigeria to assist with these efforts.

At the regional level, countries such as the Republic of Benin, Cameroon, Chad and Niger, on March 5, 2014, signed an agreement with Nigeria on a massive joint offensive against Boko Haram (Festus, 2014). The aim of the agreement is to improve the coordination of security, effective border policing and exchange of intelligence among states within the West African sub-region. Following the signing of the multinational agreement was a meeting of the Ministers of the Defense from the six countries of the Lake Chad Basin Commission (LCBC). The meeting which took place in Yaounde ended in the signing of the agreement on the establishment a multinational force to strengthen in the region (Lake Chad Basin Commission LCBC, 2014).

Groupings such as the African Union (AU) and Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) were not left out in the search for countermeasures against Boko Haram. For example, the Africa Union's Peace and Security Council, in January 2015 authorized the MNJTF (Aljazeera, 2015). Under the auspices of the AU, African leaders also agreed to send 7,500 troops to fight the Boko Haram insurgency in Nigeria. The decision to create MNJTF was strongly supported by the United Nations Security Council (UNSC).

In the same way, the ECOWAS also issued a statement condemning the activities of Boko Haram. ECOWAS (2014) identified proliferation of Small Arms and Light Weapons (SLAW) as the root cause of insecurity caused by Boko Haram and also affirmed the need for collaborative efforts in ending terrorism in the region. In March 2014, the ECOWAS' Commissioner for Political Affairs, Peace and Security confirmed the partnership between ECOWAS, the UN and the Nigerian government to embark on a new Weapon Collection Programme for the Northern Nigeria (Iroegbu, 2014). This measure was adopted as part of the more concrete steps towards overcoming Boko Haram.

The Boko Haram insurgency has also attracted responses from the wider international community. These encompass efforts by the International Criminal Court (ICC) and the United Nations Security Council (UNSC). It is believed by the ICC that the Nigerian military and the extremist Boko Haram have committed possible crimes against humanity and war crimes in the past years of insurgencies in the North East region (Nicholas, 2015). According to the ICC's Preliminary Examination Report on Nigeria in Goyel (2018), the Prosecutor's office finds the Nigeria Military and the Boko Haram wanting on eight identified possible cases of crimes against humanity and war crimes Article 7 and 8 of the Rome Statute (Nicholas, 2015). The ICC declared Boko Haram to have committed crime against humanity on the grounds of the random attacks it unlashes on the civilian population. Such attacks include those carried out against civilians through suicide bombs and in the course of its raid on towns and villages. According to the report, from January 2013 to March 2015, 356 reported incidents of killings can be attributed to Boko Haram in Borno, Adamawa, Yobe, Plateau, Kano, the Federal Capital Territory (Abuja), Gombe, Bauchi in Nigeria…occasionally in Cameroon (since February 2013) and Niger (Dumba and Diffa, since January 2015) which led to the killing of over 8,000 civilians, and "following military operations since February 2015 during which territory previously held

by Boko Haram was recaptured, mass graves or other sites with decomposed bodies were discovered allegedly containing the bodies of civilians killed by Boko Haram (Nicholas, 2015).

The ICC recorded 55 incidents of committed by the Islamist sect involving not less than 1,885 abductees from Borno, Yobe and Adamawa states, between January 2014 and March 2015; in 2014 alone 1, 123 people were abducted, 536 of the abductees (Nicholas, 2015). The Islamic sect is also alleged to have detained thousands of civilian in the Sambisa Forest, the Lake Chad area, and near the Gorsi mountains in Cameroon (Goyel, 2018). The group is also alleged to have held hundreds of men and finally executed them. The court explains that any crimes committed by the Nigerian Army would also fall under its security. Once again, Nigeria is remained of its obligation for being a State Party to the Rome Statute, the fact that crimes of grave consequence to the conscience of humanity do not go unpunished (Star Africa, 2014).

Noteworthy, previous governments, most specifically under President Goodluck Jonathan, opted to pursue a highly militarized response in countering the threat of Boko Haram as consolidating additional support from international organizations proved futile. This is because donors struggled to find viable partners to support civilian stabilization efforts. However, under President Buhari, there have been a paradigm shift by adopting diverse efforts to attract donors. For example, the government sought the assistance of the World Bank and the European Union in facilitating a Recovery and Peace Building Assessment (RPBA) in northeastern Nigeria (Nyadera, Kisaka & Agwanda, 2019).

The war against terrorism is coined under a fight against a broader global threat (Chaliand and Blin, 2007; Thurston, 2017), providing governments with an opportunity to legitimize the use of excessive force on whoever is deemed as a 'terrorist' in the international arena. Indeed, governmentshave benefited from regional and international support to fight of groups whose activities boarder on terrorism. It would be facile for one to quickly dismiss government's response and the growing solidarity by heads of states in combating terror across the world. Needless to say, terrorism has caused devastating human and economic losses in different countries and with terrorist groups keen on targeting civilians in places and time that governments cannot expect and in such instances the frustration of policymakers and security agencies tasked with protecting people comes to bear. Similarly, terrorism continues to expose governments as incompetent and unable to protect its citizens during such attacks and the anticipated political consequences explains why governments are quick to respond with brute force against any group deemed to be terrorists.

Lebovich (2017) looks at the international collaborative efforts and concluded that in as much as Nigeria is the most affected by the activities of Boko Haram, the upheaval covers the larger Lake Chad Basin region. Yet little success can be seen it terms of collaboration among the regional countries. The G5 Sahel operation which stands as the possible regional response to Boko Haram has been facing several challenges. For example the lack of an elaborate Boko Haram strategy within the G5 Sahel framework combined with insufficient resources and personel are major obstacles. In addition intelligence gathering a key component of counter

terrorism has not been forth coming due to weak intelligence capacity created by lack of modern intelligence gathering equipment like drones. Dependance on other operations particularly the French-backed Operation Barkhane which the G5S forces have continuously relied on raises serious questions on sustainability and capacity of the countries (Lebovich, 2017).

Challenges of Counter-Insurgency/Counter-Terrorism in the Sahel

Faced with the complex and sophisticated terrorist attacks, stakeholders in the Sahel region have responded by deploying troops aimed at combating terrorism. Given the level of terrorist activities, it comes as no surprise that the region as a whole has undergone a process of securitization in recent years, which has resulted in a multitude of forces on the ground. The current deployment in the Sahel includes G5 Sahel Joint Force, Operation Barkhane, Multi-National Joint Task Force (MNJTF) and United Nations Multidimensional Integrated Stabilization Mission in Mali (MINUSMA) and well as the national armies of the respective countries. The trends in terrorist activities and counter-terrorism efforts observed in the Sahel are rather not encouraging. Counter-Terrorism response has been fraught with a lot of difficulties and challenges leading to the worsening and deterioration of the security situation in most countries of the Sahel. This has the potential of spreading to other neighbouring countries. A number of shortcomings could be cited (Apau and Banunle, 2019).

Undermining the success of the counter-terrorism efforts, is the discontent among troops, as exemplified by instances of military personnel refusing to take part in operations or abandoning their posts. This is further compounded by the mistrust among troop contributing countries with some troops always in a hurry to announce victory without crediting the entire force.

This has often led to disagreements among countries contributing troops to the counter-terrorism efforts thereby derailing the progress of the force. The lack of capacity to confront the challenge by state security apparatus is another issue (Aning and Pokoo, 2014). Inappropriate training, ill-equipped and a lack of ammunition, together with militants' prowess, contribute to low morale. Counter-terrorism operations require specific training, equipment, intelligence, logistics, capabilities and specialized military preparation. It would seem unrealistic to expect any significant improvement on this front in the short and medium terms, partly because of funding constraints and delays in deployment for some of the missions, such as G5 Sahel Joint Force.

Lack of financial capability of troop contributing countries to effectively resource personnel has resulted in logistical constraints of deployed troops (Frowd and Sandor, 2018).

Corruption within government and state security apparatus has also contributed to the logistical constraints of the troops as there have been cases of politicians and senior military personnel misapplying funds meant of equipment and retooling of troops (Apau and Banunle, 2019).

Lack of coordination, cooperation, and collaboration among the various deployed troops in the Sahel is a major setback confronting the fight against terrorism. There have been cases of some deployments refusing to share intelligence with other contingents operating in the same theatre, thereby undermining their military capability to curtail the scourge of terrorism. The delay in the response of some nonnational contingents to distress calls from national authorities of the member states in which they are deployed is also another challenge (Apau and Banunle, 2019).

In addition, it has become apparent that the ever-growing focus on counter-terrorism, underscored by significant international (Western) efforts, seeks to abandon the implementation of peace accords and agreements such as the 2015 Algiers Peace Accord in Mali, which is crucial not only for a security solution but also for a political resolution of the conflict. In some cases also, the security situation has made it difficult for governments to implement reforms needed to address root causes fuelling the spread of terrorism. Similarly, the influx of foreign support and resources to address security challenges such as terrorism and human trafficking appears to fail to address much-needed reforms in state behaviour, governance and justice, which are significant factors in driving violence and radicalization (Apau and Banunle, 2019).

Aina (2019), studied on the "*Political Economy of Insurgency in North East Nigeria*" and found that the grievances which have resulted in the use of violent tactics against the government by insurgents, are better addressed through a multifaceted approach, rather than a one-size-fits-all approach which takes into account the specific needs of the region. Apau (2019) assessed "*Terrorism, Violent Extremism and Insurgency in the Sahel Region*" and found a deterioration of security, safety, and stability in the Sahel region. The diversity in the attacks by Jihadist groups, ethnic self-defence groups, and trans-national criminal networks, could be attributed to their domination of territory. The inability of the security forces to deny the Terrorist/Violent Extremist groups and Tans-national Criminal Networks the terrain/choke points they currently dominate on the routes linking the Sahel and Maghreb regions has contributed to sustaining terrorist and criminal activity within the Sahel region countries. A number of political, socio-cultural and economic factors still make conditions very conducive for the spread of terrorism and violent extremism across the Sahel belt. The security forces have remained responsive to the evolving situation. Counter-Terrorism Operations have gained momentum. He concluded that fragility of states within the Sahel belt, porous nature of borders, drug trafficking, transnational organized crimes and the persistent inter-communal violence have contributed to the vulnerability of states to terrorists organization. This is manifest in the terrorist groups' capacity to carry out devastating attacks against security and civilians alike. However, ensuring future stability will require far more than a purely military approach. Investments in education, infrastructure, poverty alleviation, family planning, youth engagement, good governance initiatives, humanitarian relief and climate change adaptation strategies, among others, are critical to alleviating the pressures on states and addressing the broader causes of insecurity, insurgency, terrorism and violent extremism. By maintaining a more holistic understanding of

the pressures facing states and populations today and in the future, governments in the region and their partners may yet contribute to a more peaceful and stable future for the Sahel in order to ensure community resilience and empowerment. Nyadera, Kisaka & Agwanda (2019), in their study on "*Fragile State, Just War, and the Crisis in Counterterrorism: Reflections on Boko Haram and Nigeria's War on Terrorism*" have argued that while economic, social and political grievances led to the rise of Boko Haram, government's excessive use of force is characteristic of a fragile state and has fuelled radicalization of more young people in the region. They concluded by stating that the over-reliance on hard approaches does not guarantee decisive victory and are partly to be blamed for the escalation of the crisis in Nigeria. Boko Haram benefited immensely from governments' miscalculations to further their ideoplogies which could have been significantly contained if proper strategies were adopted. Their study therefore underscore the necessity of soft approaches that narrow down to communities' involvement in government's counterterrorism measures, addressing the deep-rooted cultural, political and economic grievances, responding effectively to early warnings and improving justice system.

Conclusion

The effect of Boko Haram insurgency in Nigeria is felt not just by the individual victims, but throughout the country and the world as large. Following the Chibok student abductions, the White House started what has become known as the "Bring Our Girls". The language of the slogan is appropriate. The abductees are not merely students, daughters, and Nigerian citizens; they represent our humanity and need the world's assistance to restore their freedom and human rights.

The aid provided to Nigeria in efforts to recover abducted students is insufficient as evidence by the fact that more than three months after the kidnapping, the girls were been not rescued. The study findings revealed that the causes of Boko Haram insurgence is manifest in political, religious/ethnic, economic and social relations. The effects Boko Haram since its emergence in 2009 which over 2 million people becoming displaced, 20,000 deaths, and the wider spread loss of livelihoods and access to essential social services. The efforts of Multi-National Joint Task Force comprising of Military units from Nigeria, Chad, Benin, Cameroon and Niger, to the exclusion of 10 countries which together, makes the 15 countries were international responses and support to the prevention of Boko-Haram insurgency in Nigeria.

Recommendations

To address the Boko Haram insurgency in Nigeria, the following recommendations are suggested.

  i.   Nigeria should take the initiative by drawing the attention of states within the West African sub-region to the need for promoting and consolidating a people-oriented comprehensive regional integration process.

ii. The Multi-National Joint Task Force (MNJTF) should be empowered with the required human and material resources to manage the insurgency.

iii. Countries like Chad, Niger, Cameroon, Benin and Nigeria which constitute the MNJTF should demonstrate the political will to keep to the rules of engagement on the MNJTF agreement, as that would be crucial to the success of the task force. The MNJTF should also be sustained to prevent Boko Haram from regenerating itself.

iv. The government of Nigeria and that of the MNJTF countries should pay more attention to the global and regional tide of terrorism and identify their connections to local extremism. This will enable governments to detect early warning signs and take precautionary measures against any possible uprising.

References

Adesoji, A. (2010). The Boko Haram Uprising and Islamic Revivalism in Nigeria/ Die Boko-Haram-Unruhen und die Wiederbelebung des Islam in Nigeria. *Africa Spectrum*, 95-108.

Aina, F. (2019). Political Economy of Insurgency in North East Nigeria. *African Journal on Terrorism: Journal of the African Centre for the Study and Research on Terrorism*, 8(1), 21-36.

Alan, B. K. and Jitka, M. (2003). "Education, poverty and terrorism: Is there a casual connection*." Journal of Economic Perspectives,* 17(4), 121-133

Aljeera News (2o15). Boko Haram pledges allegiance to ISIL. http//:www.america.aljazeera.com/news/2015/Nigeria-boko-haram-150307201614660.html on 16/5/2019.

Aning, K. and Pokoo, J. (2014). Understanding the nature and threats of drug trafficking to national and regional security in West Africa. Stability. *International Journal of Security and Development*, 3(1).

Apau, R. and Banunle, A. (2019). Terrorism, Violent Extremism and Insurgency in the Sahel Region: An Assessment. *African Journal on Terrorism: Journal of the African Centre for the Study and Research on Terrorism*, 8(1), 1-20.

Apine, M. (2014). Nigeria's quest for nationhood and the challenge of Boko haram insurgency. *International Policy Brief Series - Education & Science Journal*, 4(1).

approach under the Buhari Administration. *Strategic Analysis*, *41*(1), 61-73.

Ayegba, U. S. (2015). "Unemployment and poverty as sources and consequence of insecurity in Nigeria: The Boko Haram insurgency revisited''. *African Journal of Political Science and International Relations,* 9 (3): 96 - 98

Bartolotta, C. (2011). Terrorism in Nigeria: the Rise of Boko Haram. *The whitehead journal of Diplomacy and international Relations,* 5(1), 44-57.

Bartolotta, C. (2011). Terrorism in Nigeria: the Rise of Boko Haram. *The whitehead journal of Diplomacy and international Relations*, 5(1), 44-57.

Bartolotta, C. (2013). "Terrorism in Nigeria". The rise of Boko Haram. The Whitehead Journal of Diplomacy and International Relations.

BBC News (2013). Dozens killed in Nigeria clashes.

Bhatia, K. & Ghanem, H. (2017). "How do education and unemployment affect support for violent extremism: Evidence from eight Arab countries,". *Brooking Institutes Global and Economic Development* .Working paper 102: 9 – 10.

Botha, A., Ewi, A., Salifu, U. & Mahdi, A. (2017)."Understanding Nigeria citizens' perspectives on Boko Haram,". *Institute for Security Studies Monograph*, 196 :29.

Calvert, P. (2010). *Terrorism, Civil War and Revolution: Revolution and International Politics.* 3rd Ed. New York: The Continuum International Publishing Group.

Campbell, J. & Asch, H. (2017). "Boko Haram and Nigeria's pervasive violence," https://www.cfr.org/expert-brief/bokoharam-   and-nigerias-pervasive-violence, accessed July 17, 2019

Chaliand, G. and Blin, A. (2007). From 1968 to Radical Islam. In G. Chaliand and A. Blin (ed) *The History of Terrorism: From Antiquity to Al Qaeda*. Berkely: University of California Press.

Chandler, A. (2015). Islamic State of Boko Haram?. The Atlantic, 9.

Cook, D. (2011). The Rise of Boko Haram in Nigeria, Combating Terrorism Centre. At West Point https://www. ctc. usma. edu/posts/the-rise-of-boko-haram-innigeria.

ECOWAS (2014). ECOWAS condemns the attack by Boko Haram in N'djamena, Republic of Chad. Retrieved from http://www.ecowas.int/ accessed on 16/5/2019.

Ewi, M. (2013). Why Nigeria needs a criminal tribunal and not amnesty for Boko Haram. Institute for Security Studies. www. issafrica. org/.../why-nigeria-needs-acriminal-tribunal-and-not-amn. Retrieved 10/01/2019.

Farouk, C. (2013). "Who are Nigeria's Boko Haram"? http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/world africa-13809501.

Festus, O. (2014). Exclusive: Nigeria, France, Cameroon, three other countries sign deal on massive, the joint offensive against Boko Haram. Premium Time.

Forest, J. J. and Giroux, J. (2011). Terrorism and political violence in Africa: Contemporary trends in a shifting terrain. *Perspective on Terrorism*, 5(3-4).

Frowd, P. M. and Sandor, A. J. (2018). Militarism and its limits: Sociological insights on security assemblages in the Sahel. *Security Dialogue*, 49(1-2), 70-82.

Gassebner, M. & Luechinger, S. (2011). "Lock, stock, and barrel: A comprehensive assessment of the determinants of terror." *Public Choice* 149, .3 (4): 236, 255.

Goyel, F.G. (2013). Nigeria's Boko Haram and its dynamics in the West African Sub-region. *Journal of Language, Technology and Entrepreneurship in Africa,* 9(1), pp.102-130.

International Organization for Migration (2015). *Displacement tracking matrix, round VI*

Iroegbu, S. (2014). 'West Africa: ECOWAS, UN Partner FG on Weapon Collection Programme for North'. *Thisday Newspaper.* Retrieved from http://allafrica.com/stories/201403040227.html on 13/11/2015.

Jacob, J. & Akpan, J. (2015). 'Silencing Boko Haram: Mobile Phone Blackout and Counterinsurgency in Nigeria's North-East regional stability' *Security And Development* 4(1): 8.

Lake Chad Basin Commission (2014). The Lake had Basin Commission. Retrieved from www.cblt.org/en/lake-chad-basin-commission on 16/5/2019.

Lebovich, A. (2017). Serious questions remain over G5 Sahel military force. *European Council on foreign relations*. Available at: https://www.europeansources.info/ record/serious-questions-remain-over-g5-sahel-military-force/.

Liolio, S.E. (2013). Rethinking counterinsurgency: A case of Boko Haram in Nigeria, Unpublished M.A Thesis, Stadtschlaining, Austria.

Mackinlay, J. (2013). *Globalisation and insurgency*. Routledge.

Mohammad, A. Y. S. (2005).*"Roots of terrorism in the Middle East: internal pressures and international constraints, in root causes of terrorism,"*. New York: Routledge.

Nicholas, I. (2015). 'ICC lists 8 possible war crimes against Nigerian military, Boko Haram'. *Premium Time*. Retrieved from http://www.premiumtimesng.com/news/headlines/193142-icc-lists-8-possible-war-crimes-against-nigerian-military on 17/5/2019.

Nicholas, I. (2015). ICC lists 8 possible war crimes against Nigerian military, http//www.premiumtime

Nyadera, N. I., Kisaka, O. M. & Agwanda, B. (2019). Fragile State, Just War, and the Crisis in Counterterrorism: Reflections on Boko Haram and Nigeria's War on Terrorism. *African Journal on Terrorism: Journal of the African Centre for the Study and Research on Terrorism*, 8(1), 55-71.

Onapajo, H. (2017). Has Nigeria Defeated Boko Haram? An Appraisal of the counterterrorism

Organisation of African Unity (1999). 1999 OAU Convention on the Prevention and Combating of Terrorism. Available http://www.caert.org.dz/official-documents/ conventions/convention-terrorism.pdf (Accessed: 07/12/2020).

Piazza, J. A. (2011). Poverty, minority economic discrimination, and domestic terrorism," *Journal of Peace Research,* 48(3), 348.

Premium Times (2013). 'U.S, UK begins joint military drill on counter-terrorism. Retrieved from http://www.premiumtimesng.com/news/146134-nigeria-u-s-uk-begin-   joint-military-drill-counter-terrorism.htm on 17/5/2017.

Quick, I. D., & Demetriou, S. (2017). Learning from experiences with implementation and Financing of Recovery and Peacebuilding Assessments, 1999–2017.

Report, October 2015, IOM, nigeria.iom.int/dtm, accessed 16 December 2015.

Thurston, A. (2017). *Boko Haram: the history of an African jihadist movement*. Princeton University Press.

Toni, J. (2011). "Backgrounder: Boko Haram". Council on Foreign Relation. http://www.cfr.org/africa/bokoharam/125739.

Electronic Document Management and Administrative Efficiency in Oil and Gas Companies in Rivers State

Dr. (Mrs.) A. E. Bestman & Igbinomwanhia, Christopher

Department of Office and Information Management, Faculty of Management Sciences, Rivers, State University, Nkpolu-Oroworukwo, PMB 5080, Port Harcourt, Nigeria

Abstract: *This paper examined how electronic document management impacts on administrative efficiency of oil and gas companies in Rivers State. The study was operationalized with the dimensions of electronic document management like, document classification and information security. Administrative efficiency was measured by task time and cost effectiveness. The target population comprised of all the oil and gas companies in Rivers state, Nigeria. The study used cross-sectional survey approach and descriptive research design, The Taro-Yamene sample size determination formula was used to determine the sample size. A sample size of 125 staff was used for the study. The study was guided by five research questions and nine research hypotheses. Questionnaires were the major instruments used in gathering primary data which were analysed using correlational analyses. The questionnaire used was subjected to face/content validity, this was done to ascertain the validity of the questionnaires to be administered and my supervisor also vetted on the questions administered. The scale used for this study had been previously adjudged reliable. However, we also checked by verifying reliability outcomes through confirmatory test of internal consistency on the instrument with our sample using Cronbach alpha at the threshold level 0.7 which is generally accepted by the rule of thumb. Data was analysed and results presented in tables, mean and standard deviation. And finally, hypotheses were tested using the Spearman Rank Order Correlation Coefficient. The study found that electronic document management can achieve improvement along the terms of administrative efficiency if the oil and gas companies are able to better their site reporting strategies, improve on their search functionality, adhere to a better information storage capabilities for the better operations of the oil and gas companies across rivers state. The study recommends that for oil and gas companies to maintain their hedge in this high rivalry economy, they should be electronic document management concern.*

Keywords: *Electronic Document Management, Administrative Efficiency, Document Classification, Information Security, Task Time and Cost Effectiveness*

INTRODUCTION

The use of updated information to support decision-making is one of the main challenges of several business processes. Information sharing in industry is made using many kinds of technology bases, but the most reliable form to evidence a business transaction, internal or external in offices, are documents. A document is everything that has been stored into an accessible source (Eleoranta et al. 2001). Information Technology and networks are changing the way professionals face many business processes, and, the use of electronic documents and office automation systems make us think how to evaluate the enterprise content management problems.

Electronic Document Management Systems (EDM) are being used in several industry sectors, such as banks, manufacturing, pharmaceutical, insurance, engineering and others (Joia2000). The EDM systems can be used from strategic levels to the operational ones. Construction document management is an essential component of the overall project management function (Hajjar and AbouRizk 2000). Furthermore, the increased volume of document production, publication, and corporate-wide distribution through e-mail systems and workstation-based file managers has aggravated problems in document security, control, tracking, and retrieval (Sutton 1999). Design management is getting lot of attention in the Architectural, Engineering and Construction (AEC) sector due to its strong implications for the entire project (Chua and Tyagi 2001). Among the factors discussed, communication and information fragmented flow are often present. Poor communication, lack of adequate documentation, deficient or missing input information, unbalanced resource allocation, lack of co-ordination between disciplines, and erratic decision making have been pointed out as the main problems in design management (Tzortzopoulos and Formoso 1999).

The problems associated with poorly coordinated document management are present not only in early stages of the design development, but also in the entire building project. The growing complexity and magnitude of constructions projects have resulted in an increase in the problems associated with manual document management and retrieval (Hajjar and AbouRizk 2000). This project analyzes how the implementation of the Electronic Document Management can contribute for a lean management in AEC sector, particularly in the design process. The main concepts of EDM are presented and illustrated with examples of its application in the design process.

"Unlike other forms of capital -and, equipment, labor and money, here is always a new idea waiting to be discovered – new ways of doing things, new products, new strategies, new markets" (McElroy, 2000). Because knowledge is theoretically infinite, the aim is to get to the next important discovery first. According to Karamuftuoglu (1999), the knowledge-based economy, alternatively called cost efficiency economy or information society, heralds the start of a period where humans will be liberated from mundane and often dangerous work. The knowledge-based economy will enable humans to channel their potential to more creative and challenging tasks.

Knowledge is the 'capital' of the global information society. The knowledge economy is an emergent reality, because no nation can any longer depend on its ability to acquire and convert raw materials (Laszlo & Laszlo, 2002; Mehra, 2001). Megill (1997) states that in the electronic age, information is an asset that must be managed like all other assets. Information is created, stored, kept and used; it can be sold and traded; and it can be used and reused. When other assets are used for a specific purpose it can usually not be used for another. "Information, however, is different. Shared information is not lost. In fact, when information is shared and put into context, it often gains value for the creator as well as for the person with whom it is

shared. Information is not only a delectable resource; it is one that grows and thrives with use". Information grows and prospers in an environment in which it is shared, used and reused.

The better an organization can share its information, the more valuable that information becomes. Knowledge has emerged as a critical factor in controlling the global economy (Laszlo & Laszlo, 2002; Mehra, 2001). The significance of knowledge creation, learning, and cost efficiency to the knowledge economy therefore cannot be underestimated. With the drastic increase in electronic documentation, an electronic document management system with reliable storage and backup procedures is essential. The potential weak link is the human element and therefore a burning people management issue.

According to McElroy (2000) "corporate knowledge is now being viewed as the last and only sustainable untapped source of competitive advantage in business". Alternative terms to corporate knowledge include intellectual capital, intellectual property, knowledge assets, or business intelligence. In this regard Dove (1999) postulates that "new knowledge has no value until it is applied", and when it is, it introduces change into the environment, which generates value. Within the context of corporate knowledge as competitive advantage Dove (1999), Meredith and Francis (2000) and Vernadat (1999) propose the term 'agility', for example an 'agile enterprise' or 'agile manufacturing'. Dove associates the word agile with cats – both physically adept at movement and also mentally adept at choosing the appropriate movement in a given situation. Vernadat (1999) defines agility as "the ability to closely align enterprise systems to changing business needs in order to achieve competitive performance". Meredith and Francis (2000) support this definition by stating that in order to retain a competitive advantage, an enterprise needs to be aware of, and creatively respond to many elements within the competitive environment.

Like Vernadat's definition, Dove regards organizational agility as the ability of an organization to thrive in a continuously and unpredictably changing environment. As a result of the escalating pace of knowledge development and the concomitant knowledge-value decay, organizations need to develop competence in knowledge agility. An over emphasis on knowledge management results in an organizational state of 'muscular rigidity'. An overemphasis on the ability to respond results in involuntary sudden and violent organizational 'muscular contractions' or sudden convulsive movements. Kraak (2000) also highlights the paradoxical state of networking or co-operation on the one hand and competition on the other.

Knowledge has been found to be a substantial influential factor with regard to the accelerated pace and magnitude of economic growth (Mehra, 2001). Consequently, the concept of knowledge sharing, and the use of knowledge have changed. Knowledge is preserved as capital and transformed by entrepreneurs into income and wealth. Knowledge remains capital as long as it remains the property of either an individual or an organization. Karamuftuoglu (1999) highlights a number of key characteristics of knowledge: once produced it can easily be reproduced and transmitted at low cost; it can never be consumed or depleted; to maintain a

monopoly of knowledge is extremely difficult and knowledge tends to flow into the public domain; and therefore knowledge only retains an exchange value (price) as long as it is protected by, for example, copyright or patents. To remain competitive, an organization needs to continuously develop new knowledge. The smallest unit of knowledge generation (according to Mehra, 2001) is the individual. He therefore concludes that knowledge resides as human capital. Against the preceding background of the electronic age, the knowledge-based economy, the importance of knowledge agility and the need for continuous knowledge development, the key aspects of electronic document management systems (EDMS) are next presented.

The purpose of EDMS is to manage and control all electronic documentation – whether word processing documents, spreadsheets, presentations, and graphics or e-mail messages through their life cycle. It enables an organization to ensure the availability of information wherever it is needed. It also ensures the security of electronic documents through version control, audit trails for each document, and by controlling access to documents via various security levels. EDMS manage and control all unstructured information – that is, information in for example word processing documents, presentation packages, spreadsheets, e-mail, graphics – in one single database accessible through a single interface. It gives companies the ability to ensure the availability of information whenever it is needed and ensures document integrity. It further avoids or limits duplication of effort already undertaken. Just as there are standard procedures to manage and control paper documents and records, suitable procedures should be implemented to manage electronic documents throughout their life cycle. The control offered by an EDMS also ensures document integrity.

Document integrity includes the ability to identify and access records over time, as well as ensuring that the document is the authentic master copy/authoritative version. A document has integrity when it can be shown that the document has not changed, without going through the proper channels. This is very difficult to do where electronic files are concerned. It is easy to open a file and change it without anyone knowing. With an EDMS, document integrity will be ensured, since audit trails can be used as proof that a document is still the authorized copy; security will ensure that no unauthorized access can take place; and version control will ensure that the latest, most current or approved version will be easy to identify. Without document management, it will be difficult to prove the integrity of an electronic document, should a legal need arise. If the actual electronic document is controlled and can be shown to be controlled, document integrity can be ensured more easily.

Administrative efficiency refers to the capacity of an organization, institution, or business to produce desired results with a minimum expenditure of energy, time, money, personnel, materiel. There is no doubt that the information revolution, and communications that the new world is witnessing had an impact on the work of public organizations, In terms of management and the nature of the holdings and the services they provide, especially after intermingling that took place between computer technology and various administrative patterns. where the work

of many business organizations has switched from manual to computerized method based on the use of computers and communication networks (as per the need), databases and many other technological means to, process and analyze the data to get the output and the results.

So, we figured the importance of computerized information systems to improve decisions and benefit from the administrative function which contributes to improving management performance and which would improve the quality of services provided by the Organization and contribute in achieving the organization's objectives. The constant increase in the size of the organizations and what they contain of Documents, many showed a need and desire of these organizations to organize their data mechanism in a way to save time, effort and cost, which led to the escalation of the need for electronic documents that contribute to the management systems and organization of all special operations to deal with the data automatically, such as indexing, archiving, summary and search and retrieval. And shows interest in electronic documentation systems, a growing number of organizations adopted the use of these systems. Hence, this study was to spotlight on the importance of the usage of electronic document management systems and their relationship to administrative efficiency of oil and gas companies, rivers state.

Furthermore**,** this study will also be guided by the following research questions:

   i.   To what extent does document classification influence administrative task time in oil and gas companies in River State?
  ii.   To what extent does document classification influence cost effectiveness in oil and gas companies in River State?
 iii.   To what extent does information security influence task time in oil and gas companies in River State?
  iv.   To what extent does information security influence cost effectiveness in oil and gas companies in River State?
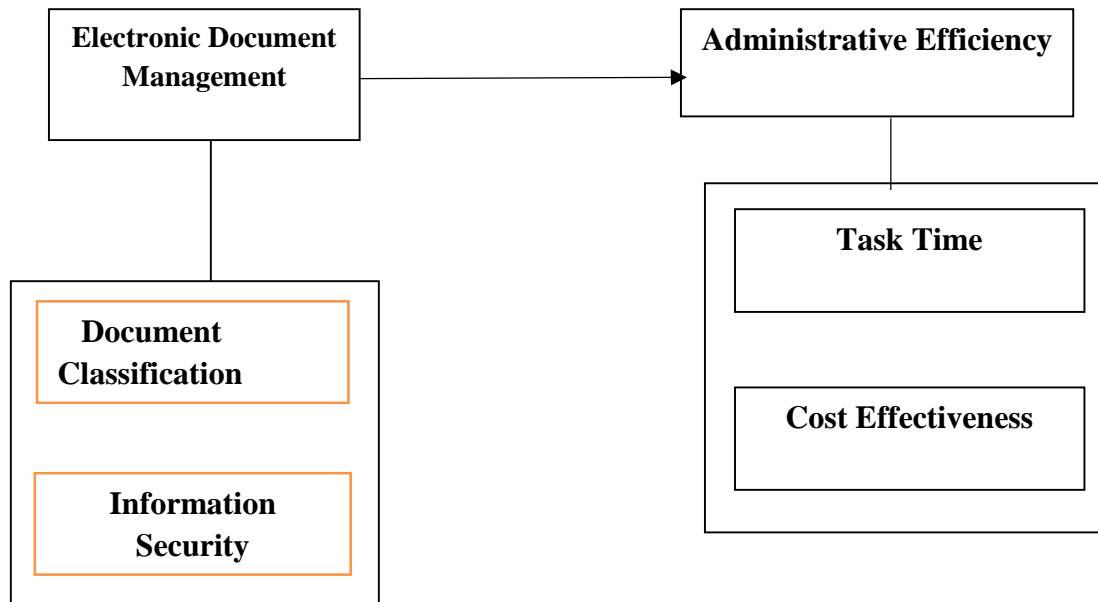
Fig.1 Conceptual Framework for the relationship between e-document management and administrative efficiency.

Source: Desk Research (2021)

LITERATURE REVIEW

Theoretical Foundation
The Social Exchange Theory

This study is based on the social exchange theory developed by Homans (1958) and; Thibaut and Kelly(1959) which holds that relationships are based upon the exchange of value between two or more parties, the social exchange theory views interpersonal interactions from a cost-benefit perspective, much akin to an economic exchange except that a social exchange deals with the exchange of intangible social costs and benefits (respect, honor, friendship, and caring) and is not governed by explicit rules or agreements. Homans (1961) defined social exchange as the exchange of activity, tangible or intangible, and rewarding or costly, between at least two persons. At the intangible level, carrying on a conversation with someone costs you time and energy but can be offset by the rewards gained such as confirmation of your value and development of a relationship.

Voluntary actions of individuals are motivated by the returns they are expected to bring and typically do in fact bring from others (Blau 1964). Emerson (1981) notes that social exchange involves two persons, each of whom provides some benefits to the other, and contingent upon rewards from the other. Exchange relationship can be reciprocal or negotiated (Molm, 2003).

Reciprocal exchanges occur when people experience a cost while providing a reward for their partners without specifying the exact nature of repayment but usually with an expectation that some form of repayment will happen. Such exchanges are voluntary and typically occur as a result of relationships established by prior successful exchanges (Mitchell, et al., 2012). Social exchange assumes that individuals take part in an exchange only when they expect rewards from it to justify the costs of taking part in it (Bailey, 2008).

Administrative Efficiency

Administrative efficiency refers to the capacity of an organization, institution, or business to produce desired results with a minimum expenditure of energy, time, money, personnel, materiel. Van Bruaenene, Joss, Thas and Van Oosveldt, (2004) says Efficiency refers to how an organization uses its resources such as available funding and staff to achieve organization objectives. Efficiency measures include, per unit costs which refers to a measure of per unit cost and reveals how many resources are consumed in producing a unit of service, Cycle time: Measures the amount of time it takes for a process to be completed. Response time: Measures the amount of time it takes to respond to a request for service. Backlog: Measures the amount of work in queue, waiting to be processed. One way is to measure total work in queue waiting to be processed.

Another way is to measure backlog as the amount of work not processed within a required or targeted time frame. Staffing ratios: Another way of looking at staffing is computing a ratio of staffing to a particular function or in comparison to the total organization and per unit equipment utilization: Measures the efficient use of equipment. Efficiency is all about resource allocation across alternative uses Kumar and Gulati, (2010). Efficiency measures relationship between inputs and outputs or how successfully the inputs have been transformed into outputs (Low, 2000). To maximize the output Porter's Total Productive Maintenance system suggests the elimination of six losses, which are: reduced yield –from start up to stable production; process defects; reduced speed; idling and minor stoppages; set-up and adjustment; and equipment failure.

Measures of Administrative Efficiency

Task time

The time set in an incentive wage system as proper for the performance of an industrial operation by a worker. Successful management of design is critical to timeliness of the entire project (Chua and Tyagi 2001). It is not an exaggeration to say that the management of design and engineering is one of the most neglected areas in construction. projects (Koskela et al. 1997). Many researches were done on the design process, but it is faced as complex and unstructured in terms of the information flow. The design process involves a large number of project participants with different objectives, who have to derive a consistent design solution, satisfying the constraints imposed by the design requirements (Chua and Tyagi 2001). The

construction design process usually is not well planned, and the participants do not have enough time to discuss the solution adopted and the design fails are only discovered during the construction phase.

Poor communication and lack of procedures to transmit the design changes often becomes critical problem during the entire project. Most of the design errors generate change orders, contractual disputes, cost overruns, time delays, compromise to quality, frustration, and client dissatisfaction (Mokhtar et al. 1998). If the production of the technical documents during the design stage is poorly coordinated, incompatibility errors are embedded; common errors are (Mokhtar et al. 1998): · Inconsistency in design information. For example, the location of a specific column is not identical when the architectural and the structural drawings are compared; · Mismatch between connected parts. For example, heating, ventilation, and air conditioning (HVAC) duct dimension, which are given in the mechanical drawings, do not match the dimensions of the related pass-hole in the structural beams, which are given in the structural drawings; · Component malfunction. For example, the electric supply is a room is designed to serve a classroom activity, whereas architectural drawings indicate that the same room has been redesigned as a computer lab. Some techniques to manage the design problems include, coordination meetings, information changes send by e-mails, checklists verifications, but the professionals are looking for a tool to solve the documentation errors problems. The industry is at an exploratory stage on how to organize design information in a structured database (Mokhtar et al. 1998).

Cost Effectiveness

Cost-effectiveness analysis is a form of economic analysis that compares the relative costs and outcomes of different courses of action. It is possible to directly attack the most visible waste just by flowcharting the process, then pinpointing and measuring non-value adding activities (Koskela 2000). Thus, before implementing the workflow, people have to think on process, mapping the information flow, making it possible to reduce non-value-adding activities. Using the workflow system, the system will make available the information necessary in the desktop of the worker. The system "gives added value with a profile of metadata to Implementing Electronic Document Management System for a Lean Design Process Proceedings IGLC-10, Aug. 2002, Gramado, Brazil 5 ensure that the document can be found again. The retrieval and search capabilities of EDM let an employee win back time that would otherwise be lost in trying to find paper-based files" (Sutton 1996). EDM also eliminate duplicated information and reduce re-creation time (Song et al. 2002). In a manual management process, some non-adding-value activities can be, for example: call someone to find a document, to go to the file room, prepare or wait for a fax transmitting, and others. If it is not possible to eliminate the non-value-adding activities, an alternative is to make it more efficient. In this respect EDM is a solution for increase collaboration and better integration for decision-making.

Electronic document management

Document management systems are used to control the document life cycle. The systems often are modular, found as a set of hardware and software that manage creation, approval, distribution and other phases of the document life cycle. Managing documents electronically does not mean to use only electronic documents.

Document classification

Document classification can be defined as putting together information of similar characteristics. Classification is a key foundational element of records management. It is used to systematize information and facilitate its retrieval. It has been noted in this regard that the concept of classification is both understudied and not well understood. Research has shown that good records management strengthens government services by supporting business continuity; security and risk management; legal compliance and accountability; evidence-based decision making and transparency; good governance and public trust; good performance and government capability building

(Ann, Shuyang, & Wei, 2011). Without proper understanding of such classification, it may be difficult or impossible to implement an efficient and effective records management initiative that addresses the complete lifecycle of records from creation to preservation. ISO 15489 has listed the processes of records management and determined how long it would take to retain, create, register, classify, store, control access, track, dispose-off, and document the records management processes.

Information security

Information security, sometimes shortened to infosec, is the practice of protecting information by mitigating information risks. It is part of information risk management. Information security is of great importance and interest to everybody in the world of technology today, whether you are a mobile phone or a personal computer user, this is why information security is of the most importance in our everyday life, and in the IT technology fields. The Study of information security has so many concepts and also topics that every IT professionals should master or have some basics of, the knowledge and skills of information security are just some few that is essential for all those that are involved in the IT technology sector. E.g. Cyber-security analyst, forensics analyst, network administrators, systems administrators, application developers. Lack of knowledge in this important field of information security will be more likely to develop applications that are not secure or build networks that are insecure and easier for attackers to penetrate, this is why information security knowledge is very important in our everyday lives. Regardless of the choosing career, you find yourself in the IT technology sector.

Relationship between Electronic Document Management and Administrative Efficiency

On more and more competitive markets, improving the company's performance is becoming one of the main stakes of every manager. The management of documents is an integral part of the management of the company's information resources and deserves to be seen as one of the strategic management functions in companies. Nowadays, many specialists connect directly the implementation of an effective document management system with the profit of the society. EDM solutions were seen for a long time as solutions allowing scanning documents. However, today, whether in SME or large groups, the EDM is seen as one of the key elements to improve productivity, save money, and thus stay competitive. Thanks to the electronic management of administrative documents, the competitiveness can be improved. With an EDM solution adapted to your company, no more waste of time looking for a good version of a (good) document. The electronic management of administrative documents offers you the visibility and the control of all your documents during their entire life cycle and increases the efficiency of your teams.

Man, now living in an age associated with advanced information technology through the joint use of the electronic systems of computers and modern communications systems, the information revolution. And that the information sources available to the beneficiaries are many and varied, but it is useless unless it is utilized. With what the modern world has witnessed tremendous growth in the volume of information produced or published, became only benefit from it by conventional means useless due to widening the distance between the source of this information and its beneficiaries "(proof 0.2003). One of the most important challenges facing the business community talking is the management, conservation and retrieval of information from the vast amount of documents and paper files, which are increasing on a daily basis continuously, so modern governmental organization of the importance of Archive was alerted the attention it deserves, especially in developed countries; have developed theories and methods of keeping Archive result the process through which the experience over the past decades; and this was accompanied by qualitative and quantitative development of the evolution of legislation governing keeping the archive and its uses.

The empirical study carried out by Bestman and Kenebara (2021) on executive information system and organizational productivity of manufacturing companies in Rivers State, Nigeria with a population of 180 managers of 36 manufacturing companies in Rivers. The findings revealed that there is a significant relationship between accounting information system effectiveness and productivity of manufacturing companies in Rivers State, Nigeria. The study, thus, concluded that executive information system significantly influences productivity of manufacturing companies in Rivers State, Nigeria.

The study postulates the following hypotheses to be tested:

Ho$_1$: There is no significant relationship between Document Classification and task time in oil and gas companies in River State.

Ho₂: There is no significant relationship between Document Classification and cost effectiveness in oil and gas companies in River State.

Ho₃: There is no significant relationship between information security and task time in oil and gas companies in River State.

Ho₄: There is no significant relationship between information security and cost effectiveness in oil and gas companies in River State.

METHODOLOGY

The study adopted the cross-sectional survey in its investigation of the variables. Primary data was sourced through structured questionnaire. The target population comprised of all the oil and gas companies in Rivers state, Nigeria. The study used cross-sectional survey approach and descriptive research design, The Taro-Yamene sample size determination formula was used to determine the sample size. A sample size of 125 staff was used for the study. The research instrument was validated through by experts as provided by supervisors vetting and approval while the reliability of the instrument was achieved by the use of the Cronbach Alpha coefficient with all the items scoring coefficients above 0.70. The hypotheses were tested using the Spearman's Rank Order Correlation Statistics. The tests were carried out at a 95% confidence interval and a 0.05 level of significance.

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Bivariate Analysis

The Spearman Rank Order Correlation coefficient is calculated using the SPSS 21.0 version to establish the relationship among the empirical referents of the predictor variable and the measures of the criterion variable.

Table 1: Correlation for the relationship between

		Document Classification	Task time	Cost efficiency
Document Classification	Pearson Correlation	1	.559[**]	.831[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	86	86	86
Task time	Pearson Correlation	.559[**]	1	.341[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.001
	N	86	86	86

Cost efficiency	Pearson Correlation	.831**	.341**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.001	
	N	86	86	86

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
Source: Research Data 2021 and SPSS output version 23.0

Table 1 illustrates the test for the first three previously postulated bivariate hypothetical statements. The results show that for

Ho₁: There is no significant relationship between document classification and cost efficiency of Selected Indigenous oil and Gas companies in Rivers State.

The correlation coefficient (r) shows that there is a significant and positive relationship between document classification and cost efficiency. The *rho* value 0.551 indicates this relationship and it is significant at p 0.000<0.05. The correlation coefficient represents a high correlation indicating a strong relationship. Therefore, based on empirical findings the null hypothesis earlier stated is hereby rejected and the alternate upheld. Thus, there is a significant relationship between document classification and cost efficiency of Selected Indigenous oil and Gas companies in Rivers State.

Ho₂: There is no significant relationship document classification and task time of Selected Indigenous oil and Gas companies in Rivers State.

The correlation coefficient (r) shows that there is a significant and positive relationship between document classification and task time. The *rho* value 0.831 indicates this relationship and it is significant at p 0.000<0.05. The correlation coefficient represents a high correlation indicating a strong relationship. Therefore, based on empirical findings the null hypothesis earlier stated is hereby rejected and the alternate upheld. Thus, there is a significant relationship between document Classification and task time of Selected Indigenous oil and Gas companies in Rivers State.

Table 2: Correlation for Search functionality and Administrative efficiency

		Information Security	Task time	Cost efficiency
Information Security	Pearson Correlation	1	.834**	.504**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	86	86	86
Task time	Pearson Correlation	.834**	1	.341**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.001
	N	86	86	86

Cost efficiency	Pearson Correlation	.504**	.341**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.001	
	N	86	86	86

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
Source: Research Data 2020 and SPSS output version 23.0

Table 2 illustrates the test for the next three previously postulated bivariate hypothetical statements. The results show that for:

Ho5: *There is no significant relationship between information security and cost efficiency of Selected Indigenous oil and Gas companies in Rivers State.*

The correlation coefficient (r) shows that there is a significant and positive relationship between information security and cost efficiency. The *rho* value 0.834 indicates this relationship and it is significant at p 0.000<0.05. The correlation coefficient represents a high correlation indicating a strong relationship. Therefore, based on empirical findings the null hypothesis earlier stated is hereby rejected and the alternate upheld. Thus, there is a significant relationship between information security and cost efficiency of Selected Indigenous oil and Gas companies in Rivers State.

Ho6: *There is no significant relationship information security and task time of Selected Indigenous oil and Gas companies in Rivers State.*

The correlation coefficient (r) shows that there is a significant and positive relationship between information security and task time. The *rho* value 0.504 indicates this relationship and it is significant at p 0.000<0.05. The correlation coefficient represents a high correlation indicating a strong relationship. Therefore, based on empirical findings the null hypothesis earlier stated is hereby rejected and the alternate upheld. Thus, there is a significant relationship between information security and task time of Selected Indigenous oil and Gas companies in Rivers State.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

This study examined the relationship between electronic document management and administrative efficiency of Selected Indigenous oil and Gas companies in Rivers State. The findings revealed a positive significant relationship between electronic document management and administrative efficiency of Selected Indigenous oil and Gas companies in Rivers State using the Pearson Product Moment Order Correlation coefficient tool and at a 95% confidence interval. The findings of this study confirmed that there is a positive and significant relationship between electronic document management and administrative efficiency of Selected Indigenous oil and Gas companies in Rivers State. This reinforces previous studies by Ling and Nasurdin, 2010) it is important for an organization to adopt supportive electronic document management that can motivate and encourage employees to be creative and innovative.

Based on this, one can argue that organizations that have the employee cognitive knowledge gathered through academic act as a drive for cost efficiency (Som, 2007). These ideas support the resource-based theory (Wernerfelt, 1984) of a firm. According to the resource-based theory, cost efficiency permits the development of valuable and scarce resources in the organization. Maintenance HR practices can be clarified in terms of the Job Demands–Resources model (JD-R model) as developed by Bakker & Demerouti (2007) and Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner& Schaufeli, 2001). According to this model, two simultaneous processes have an impact on the work outcomes of employees: a health deficiency process caused by job demands and a motivational process aroused by job and personal resources. Job demands refer to those physical, emotional, collective, or organizational aspects of a job that entail unrelenting physical and/or psychological effort or skills and are therefore related with certain physiological and/or psychological costs. Job resources refer to those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of a job that are: functional in achieving work goals; reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs; and stimulate personal growth, learning, and development. These job resources supplement the personal resources, which are aspects of the self, generally linked to resilience, and which refer to individuals' ability to successfully control and impact on their environment (Hobfoll, Johnson, Ennis, & Jackson, 2003; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, &Schaufeli, 2007).

In order to determine the usefulness of maintenance HR practices, criteria from two different stances are used. The aforementioned demands–resources distinction relates to the different approaches that underlie the HR practices: maintenance practices focus on the reduction of job demands. Maintenance practices adapt the work situation to existing employee capabilities, while development practices enable employees to perform well and to cope with existing job demands (Evers, Kreijns, Van der Heijden, & Gerrichhauzen, 2011).

Schuler and Jackson (1987) who argue that firms that pursue a cost efficiency strategy are likely reward employees in a bid encourage them to develop skills that can be used in different positions within the organization. Chen and Huang (2009) argue that a benefit of rewarding employees is that it may foster employees to strive and gain new knowledge, get new insights and develop innovative minds and skills, in a bid to offer more and attract management appreciation.

 Employee development provide performance feedback as a basis for the joint analysis of strengths, weaknesses and areas for improvement and an agreement on a personal development plan and learning contract. Employee evaluation assesses the performance of employees as a basis for making decisions on job reassignment, promotion or performance-related reward (Aguinis, 2005). Perhaps one of the most important features of document classification is that it is a continuous process that reflects normal good management practices of setting direction, monitoring and measuring performance and taking action accordingly. An evaluation is required in order to know how to support employees' development and career progress. Such evaluation entails some type of document classification system or Document classification that not only monitor task fulfilment but are also oriented towards development

and cost efficiency issues (de Leede & Looise, 2005; Walsh & Fisher, 2005). Previous studies indicate that a link exists between document classification and organizational cost efficiency, although this point has scarcely been addressed in prior research (Shipton, Fay & West, 2006). Findings suggest that this link is important, together with a systematic evaluation of employee performance that reflects long-term progress and includes group-based achieve to know how to support employees' development and career progress, (Jiménez-Jiménez &Sanz-Valle, 2008; Schuler & Jackson, 1987). Additionally, this relationship has also been studied by Jiang, Wang and Zhao (2012) by studying creativity as a mediator, who however did not find a relationship between Document Classification and administrative and technological cost efficiency.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The competition of organizations does not limit to more profit, but it depends on competent and qualified manpower. Many organizations usually confirm this issue and try to maintain their qualified employees. Based on results and the findings of the present study, the study concludes that electronic document classification significantly influences administrative efficiency of Selected Indigenous oil and Gas companies in Rivers State.

Based on the foregoing conclusions, the following recommendations are suggested.

The Selected Indigenous oil and Gas companies in Rivers State should therefore integrate effective electronic document classification within the wider management activities to ensure it is part of the organizational long-term objectives and goals to enhance high performance. Given that such practices will help in engendering employee engagement and inclusiveness that are lacking in the organizational culture of the selected companies studied.

The Selected Indigenous oil and Gas companies should adjust their policy on performance and search functionality to ensure that the priority given to employees in the firm, reflect the local content practices that will spur Nigerian employees to become more creative and participate in the development of the sub-sector in the shortest possible time.

REFERENCES

Adewale, O.O., Abolaji,A.J. & Kolade, O.J. (2011). Succession planning and organizational survival: Empirical study on Nigerian private tertiary institutions. *Serbian Journal of Management,* 6(2), 231 – 246.

Bestman, A.E. & Kenebara, F.A. (2021). Executive Information System and Organizational Productivity of Manufacturing Companies in Rivers State, Nigeria. *American Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences Research* (AJHSSR), 5(4), 173-180

Boisnier, A., & Chatman, J. (2002). The role of subcultures in agile organizations: Leading and managing people in dynamic organizations. *J Bus Psychol Journal of Business and Psychology*, 1-21.

Chua, D.K.H., Tyagi, A. (2001) "*Process-paramater-interface model for lean design management*". Proc. 9th Annual Conference International Group for Lean Construction, Singapore, pp.1-12.

Costanza, D. P., Nikki, B., Meredith, R.. Coats, J. B., &Arwen H. Decostanza. (2015). The effect of adaptive organizational culture on long-term survival. *J Bus Psychol Journal of Business and Psychology*, 1-21.

Cummings, T. G., & Worley, C.G. (2004). *Organization development and change*, 8th Ed., South-Western College Publisher.

Deal T. E. and Kennedy, A. A. (1982, 2000). *Corporate cultures: The rites and rituals of corporate life*, Harmondsworth, Penguin Books, 1982; reissue Perseus Books, 2000

Devinney, T. M., Yip, G. S., & Johnson, G. (2009). Using frontier analysis to evaluate company performance. British Journal of Management, forthcoming

Dove, R. (1999). Agility = knowledge management + response ability. Paradigm shift international. Retrieved December 09, 2002 http://www.parshift. com/Essay/essay051.htm.

Eleoranta, E., Hameri, A., Lati, M. (2001). Improved project management through improved document management". *Computers in Industry, Elsevier*, 45(1), 231-243.

Gramado, B. & Sutton, M.J.D. (1996). *Document Management for the Enterprise: principles, techniques and applications.* John Wiley & Sons: New York, NY, 369p.

Hajjar, D., & AbouRizk, S. M. (2000). Integrating document management with project and company data". *Journal of Computing in Civil Engineering, ASCE*, 14 (1), 70-77.

Joia, L.A. (1998). Large-scale reengineering in project documentation and workflow at engineering consultancy companies". *International Journal of Information Management, Pergamon*, 18, (3) 215-224.

Karamuftuoglu, M. (1999). Information retrieval and the perpetual cost efficiency economy. Aslib Proceedings*: New Information Perspectives*, 51 (4), 99-108.

Koskela, L. (1992). Application of the New Production Philosophy to Construction". Technical Report 72, CIFE, Stanford Univ., CA, 75 pp.

Koskela, L. (2000). *An exploration towards a production theory and its application to Construction"*. Espoo 2000. Technical Research Centre of Finland, VTT Publications 408. 296

Koskela, L., Ballard, G., Tanhuanpää, V. (1997). Towards lean design management. Proc. 5 th Annual Conference International Group for Lean Construction, Gold Coast, pp.1-12

Kraak, A. (2000). Changing modes, new knowledge production and its implications for higher education in South Africa. Pretoria: Human Sciences Research Council.

Laszlo, K.C., & Laszlo, A. (2002). Evolving knowledge for development: The role of knowledge management in a changing world. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 6 (4), 400-412

Martin, J., & Siehl (1983). Organizational culture and counterculture: An uneasy symbiosis. *Organizational Dynamics,* 122, 52-65.

McElroy, M.W. (2000). Integrating complexity theory, knowledge management and organisational learning. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 4 (3), 195-203.

Megill, K.A. (1997). *The corporate memory: Information management in the electronic age*. West Sussex: Bowker-Saur.

Mehra, K. (2001). *Two aspects of knowledge dynamics: knowledge as capital or as infrastructure*. National Institute of Science and Development Studies, India. Retrieved December 09, 2002 from www.delft2001.tudelft.nl/ abstract%20files/ abstract1008.doc.

Mentzas, G., Halaris, C. Kavadias, S. (2001). Modelling Business Process with Workflow Systems: an evaluating of alternative approaches. *International Journal of Information Management, Pergamon*, 21, (2) pp. 123-135.

Meredith, S., & Francis, D. (2000). Journey towards agility: The agile wheel explored. *The TQM Magazini,* 12 (2), 137-143.

Mokhtar, A., Bédard, C., Fazio, P. (1998). Information Model for Managing Design Changes in a Collaborative Environment. *Journal of Computing in Civil Engineering, ASCE,* 12 (2), 82-92.

Needle, D. (2004). *Business in context: An introduction to business and its environment*.

Ravasi, D., & Schultz, M. (2006). Responding to organizational identity threats: Exploring the role of organizational culture. *Academy of Management Journal,* 49 (3), 433–458.

Sai, Y. (2011). Relationship between organizational culture, leadership behavior and job satisfaction." *BMC Health Services Research BMC Health Serv Res* (11)1, 98.

Schein, E. H. (2010). *Organizational culture and leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Schrodt, P. (2002). The relationship between organizational identification and organizational culture: Employee perceptions of culture and identification in a retail sales organization. *Communication Studies* 53: 189–202.

Song, Y., Clayton, M.J., Johnson, R.E. (2002). Anticipating reuse: documenting building for operations using web technology. Automation in Construction, Elsevier, 11, (2), pp. 185-197) Implementing Electronic Document Management System for a Lean Design Process Proceedings IGLC-10, Aug. 2002,

The Tipster. (2013). 4 Types of Organizational Culture. ArtsFWD. 14 May 2013. Retrieved from http://artsfwd.org/4-types-org-culture/

Thorpe, Tony; Mead,Stephen 2001. Project-Specific Web Sites: Friend or Foe? *Journal of Construction Engineering and Management,* 127(5), 406-413

Tzortzopoulos, P., Formoso, C.T. (1999). "Considerations on Application of Lean Construction Principles to Design Management". Proc. 7 th Annual Conference International Group for Lean Construction, Berkeley, California,USA, 335-344.

Vernadat, F.B. (1999). Research agenda for agile manufacturing. *International Journal of Agile Management Systems,* 1 (1), 37-40.

Vidogah, W., Ndekugri, I. (1998). A review of the role of information technology in construction claims management. *Computers in Industry, Elsevier,* 35, (1), 77-85.

Zantout, H., & Marir, F. (1999). Document Management Systems from Current Capabilities towards Intelligent Information Retrieval: an overview. *International Journal of Information Management. Pergamon*, 19, (6), 471-484.

Ethical Leadership and Organisational Commitment of Oil Servicing Company in Rivers State

UGU, Grace Etu & Dr. E. Tantua (Jnr.)

Department of Office and Information Management, Faculty of Management Sciences, Rivers, State University, Nkpolu-Oroworukwo, PMB 5080, Port Harcourt, Nigeria

Abstract: *This paper examined how cloud ethical leadership impacts on organisational commitment oil and gas servicing companies in Rivers state, Nigeria. The study was operationalized with the dimension of ethical leadership like Fairness. Organizational commitment was measured by affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment the purpose for this study is to determine the impact of ethical leadership on organizational commitment. The accessible population was employees of six (6) registered and functional oil servicing firms in Rivers state whose staff strength is 80 and above and also those that have been in existence for than 10- 20 years. The study used cross-sectional survey approach and descriptive research design, The Taro-Yamene sample size determination formula was used to determine the sample size. A sample size of 300 staff was used for the study. The study was guided by four research questions and nine research hypotheses. Questionnaires were the major instruments used in gathering primary data which were analyzed using correlational analyses. The questionnaire used was subjected to face/content validity, this was done to ascertain the validity of the questionnaires to be administered and my supervisor also vetted on the questions administered. The scale used for this study had been previously adjudged reliable. However, we also checked by verifying reliability outcomes through confirmatory test of internal consistency on the instrument with our sample using Cronbach alpha at the threshold level 0.7 which is generally accepted by the rule of thumb. Data was analyzed and results presented in tables, mean and standard deviation. And finally hypotheses were tested using the Spearman Rank Order Correlation Coefficient. The study found that ethical leadership impacts on organisational commitment oil and gas companies in Rivers state. The study recommends that in order for oil and gas companies should maintain their hedge in this high rivalry economy by being committed to the welfare of the employees of the organisations.*

Keywords: Ethical Leadership, Organisational Commitment, Fairness, Affective Commitment, Continuance Commitment and Normative Commitment

INTRODUCTION

The thought of organizational commitment has gained much interest in the field of management and behavioral sciences because of the predictable outcomes of commitment (Mathieu & Zajac and Meyer & Allen 1990). The nature and belief of the organizational commitment concept is that a person has a sense of commitment to the organization he or she works for. This may involve recognition with, tendency to stay in and willingness to exert, efforts for organization. According to (Porter, Crampton & Smit, 1976) organizational commitment could be defined as the beliefs and feelings formed internally or as a set of intentions that enriches an employee's desire to remain with an organization and to accept its major goals and values. The organizational commitment has also been regarded as an important construct in understanding the work behavior of employees. In a broader sense,

commitment may be defined as an attitude or an orientation towards the organizations which links or attaches the identity of the person to the Organization (Sheldon 1972). Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) define commitment as a structural phenomenon which occurs as a result of individual organizational transactions and alterations.

The approaches to organizational commitment have undergone some changes in the last three decades, the most significant of which has been its being uni-dimensional or multi-dimensional. However, due to downsizing and amalgamation of organizations, some scholars have understated the effect of organizational commitment on the variables including turnover, absence from work, and job performance; they consider the study of organizational commitment pointless. But no one can overlook the importance of organizational commitment both to individuals and to organizations. Organizational commitment is an important organizational and professional belief, which has interested many scholars from different disciplines. Mowday, Porter, & Steers (1979) argue that organizational commitment has noteworthy implications for the society, organizations, employees and even management. It is believed that leadership is a type of process whereby a manager tries to ease the duty of reaching to aims through creating effective motivation and humility; in addition, he encourages the staff to be more interested in doing their jobs (Alhoseini, 2001). As the educational organizations are among the most important organizations in the societies, and human beings are the most important output of educational organizations, investigating organizational commitment and its role in making such organizations more effective is among the priorities.

In today's competitive world, organizational commitment is highly critical and valuable. Numerous studies have highlighted that commitment plays a great deal for the successful performance of an organization. This is because highly committed employee will identify with the goals and values of the organization, has a strong desire to belong to the organization and is ready to display greater affinity in terms of organizational citizenship behaviour i.e., a willingness to go over and beyond their required job duties. Hence organizations cannot perform well unless the employees in competitive organizations are committed and work effectively in teams. According to Porter, Crampton & Smit (1976) organizational commitment could be defined as the beliefs and feelings formed internally or as a set of intentions that enriches an employee's desire to remain with an organization and to accept its major goals and values.

Meyer and Allen (1994) also explain that it is a psychological state that features the relationship of employee with the organization and have implications for the decision to continue membership in the organization. It is easy for organizations to say that people are our most important asset but it is much more difficult to prove it (Nehmeh 2009). Research undertaken by (Finnigan 2000) indicates that perception of the organization's values is the strongest predictor of employee commitment. (Mowday et al 1982) has differentiated organizational commitment between the commitment as an attitude and commitment as behaviour. Individual's identification with the goals of an organization and his willingness to work towards them is reflected through attitudinal commitment whereas behavioural commitment results

from the binding of individuals to behavioural acts there is cyclical relationship between these two. It has also been argued by (Reichers 1985) that current approach to organizational commitment ignores the multifaceted concept of organization that has been prominent among organizational theorists.

Organizational commitment is considered to be a critical concept. The presence of organizational commitment can be used to gain employees support for the organization and in turn maximize the benefits to receive it from their employee with greater productivity. If there is a lack of organizational commitment it may give rise to negative effects on employee productivity that can contribute to failure of organization. A study was conducted (Osa & Amos 2014) to examine the impact of organizational commitment on employee productivity with a sample of 200 members of staff of Nigeria Brevery PLC at head office. The findings deduced that organizational commitment had a significant impact on employee productivity and as such improves performance and effectiveness. Another study (DeCotiis & Summers 1987) was conducted using a sample of 367 managerial employees. Job satisfaction and commitment were found to be predictive of productivity and individual motivation. It was concluded that commitment is central to organizational life, where organization commits to meeting the needs and expectations of its members and its members commit to the service of the organization in terms of its goals and values.

In today's competitive world, organizations cannot perform well unless the employees are committed and work effectively in teams. A study (Madi et al 2012) was conducted in the banks of Gaza and Palestine to investigate the relationship between the perception of employees and the impact of such a perception on their commitment to these banks. The findings revealed that employees of the banks in Gaza were quite satisfied in terms of their satisfaction towards the job. It is shown that there is a positive relationship between three dimensions of employee's perception including job satisfaction, perceived job characteristics, perceived organizational characteristics & affective commitment. Moreover among the four dimensions, only perceived job satisfaction has a significant relationship with continuous commitment. An investigation (Ahmad et al 2014) on the impact of organizational commitment and employee performance on employee satisfaction was carried out in banking sector covering 110 employees of 10 banks of Pakistan. The findings revealed the fact that organizational commitment and employee performance play a major role for employee satisfaction. It was found that there existed a positive relationship between organizational commitment and employee satisfaction and similarly employee performance has positive relationship with employee satisfaction.

In the past decades, the interest in studying ethical leadership has been growing steadily. Ethical leadership has been described in a variety of ways. Kanungo (2001) noted that ethical leaders engage in acts and behaviours that benefits others, and at the same time, they refrain from behaviours that can cause any harm to others. Brown, (2005) suggested that the combination of gratitude, ethical standards, and fair treatment of employees are the cornerstone of ethical leadership. Trevi o. & Brown (2004) proposed that ethical leadership, in

its true sense, promotes ethical conducts by practicing as well as managing ethics holding everyone accountable for it. Khuntia & Suar (2004) suggested that ethical leaders incorporate moral principles in their beliefs, values, and behaviours. According to Culia (1998) ethical leadership intelligence is a leadership directed by respect towards ethical values and beliefs and for the rights and dignity of others.

The construct domain of ethical leadership is broad, and several different types of values may be relevant including altruism, compassion, honesty, gratitude, fairness, humility and justice. Ethical leadership is also indicated by behaviours reflecting these values. Examples include being very supportive and helpful when someone has a problem, being fair when distributing rewards and benefits, being open and honest when communicating people, making sacrifices to benefit others, talking about the importance of values, setting clear ethical standards for the works, keeping actions consistent with espoused values and holding peoples accountable for ethical and unethical actions. It is obvious that ethical leadership intelligence overlaps to some extent with relations-oriented behavior constructs in the leadership literature, such as providing supportive or considerate leadership, empowering leadership, developing subordinate skills and self-confidence, and representing subordinate interests (Yukl, 2010).

There are a number of reasons organizations behave unethically: shareholder pressure for growth, senior leadership striving to achieve its stated goals, impending financial losses, greed, and quite often ignorance. Repeatedly then, the offending organization has a well-structured and thought-out code of ethics or statement of ethics. So, what happens between this commitment to ethics and the unethical act? We propose that there is a malfunction in the ethical filter where the values espoused by the organization at the highest levels fail to filter down to those responsible for organizational functions. We further propose that quite often there is also a disconnect between senior executives and an organization's code of ethics. If the senior leadership does not subscribe to its own code of ethics, then there is little reason to expect rank and file to consistently apply uniform ethical behavior (Moccia, 2012).

Furthermore**,** this study will also be guided by the following research questions:
  i.   To what degree does fairness influences affective commitment of oil and gas companies in Port Harcourt, Rivers State?
  ii. To what degree does fairness influences continuous commitment of oil and gas companies in Port Harcourt, Rivers State?
  iii. To what degree does fairness influences normative commitment of oil and gas companies in Port Harcourt, Rivers State?
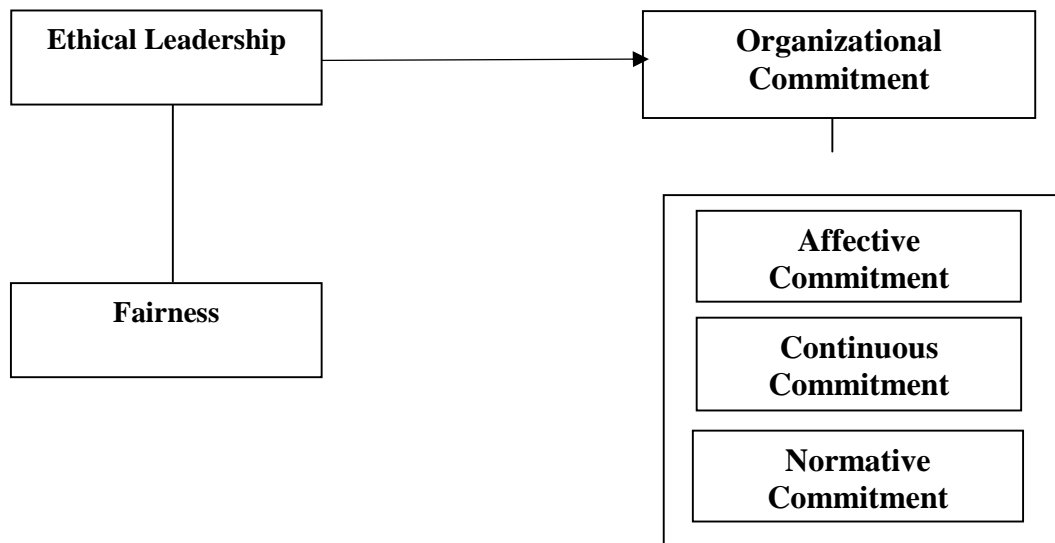
Fig.1 Conceptual Framework for the relationship ethical leadership and organizational commitment

Source: Desk Research (2021)

LITERATURE REVIEW

Theoretical Foundation
Transformational Leadership Theory

Bass (1985) coined the term transformational leadership, describing such leaders as change agents that elicit and transform followers' beliefs, attitudes and motivations. These leaders provide a vision and develop an emotional relationship with their followers, increasing the latter's consciousness and belief in higher goals, above their own interests. The specific behaviours of these leaders are classified into four dimensions: (a) idealized influence, (b) inspirational motivation, (c) intellectual stimulus, and (d) individualized consideration.

According to Bass (1985) idealized influence, or charisma, refers to the attributes ascribed by followers to their leader, according to their perceptions of the leader's power, confidence and transcendent ideals. These perceptions are driven by specific behaviours of the leader that reflect his/her values and beliefs. It is this emotional component of leadership that drives followers to forgo their own comfort in favour of the collective interest, that is, in the search for a greater good. Inspirational motivation refers to leader's behaviours aimed at inspiring and motivating followers to attain ambitious and challenging goals, or even apparently unattainable ones. Intellectual stimulation refers to the way a leader questions the status quo and appeals to the intelligence of followers to prompt them to question their own ideas, thus motivating innovative and creative decision-making. Individual consideration refers to the

socio-emotional support given by a leader to his/her followers, in response to their specific needs, which promotes their development and empowerment. Literature reviews and studies accumulated in recent years on transformational leadership show its positive association with performance outcomes (Judge & Piccolo, 2004), particularly in private companies (Dumdum, Lowe, & Avolio, 2002).

Concept of Organisational Commitment

Over the years, commitment has been defined and measured in many different ways. Indeed, this lack of consensus in the definition of the term has contributed greatly to its treatment as a multidimensional construct (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Even if multiple dimensions or forms of commitment exist, there has to be a core essence that characterizes it. To establish what that core essence is, one has to look for commonality among the existing conceptualizations and provides a set of definitions taken from the literature.

As indicated by Meyer & Herscovitch (2001), all of these definitions refer to a force that directs a person's behaviour. There appears to be consensus that the force is experienced as a mind-set (a frame of mind or psychological state), "a stabilizing force that acts to maintain behavioural direction when expectancy/equity conditions are not met and do not function" (Scholl, 1981). "A force that stabilizes individual behavior under circumstances where the individual would otherwise be tempted to change that behavior" (Brickman, 1987). "An obliging force which requires that the person honor the commitment, even in the face of fluctuating attitudes and whims" (Brown, 1996).

Measures of Organisational Commitment

Affective Commitment

Affective commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment with the organisation because they want to. According to Mowday (1982), the antecedents of affective commitment generally fall into four categories: personal characteristics, structural characteristics, job-related characteristics, and work experiences. Although various research studies have been conducted to link demographic characteristics such as age, tenure, gender and education to commitment, the relations were neither strong nor consistent, the reason being too many variables such as job status, work rewards and work values moderating the relationship.

Continuance Commitment
 Continuance commitment refers to an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organisation. The potential costs of leaving an organisation include the threat of wasting the time and effort spent acquiring nontransferable skills, losing attractive benefits, giving up seniority-based privileges, or having to uproot family and disrupt personal relationships. Apart from the costs involved in leaving the organisation, continuance commitment will also develop

as a function of a lack of alternative employment opportunities. Employees whose primary link to the organisation is based on continuance commitment remain because they need to.

Normative Commitment

Normative commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they ought to remain with the organisation. Wiener (1982) suggests that the feeling of obligation to remain with an organisation may result from the internalisation of normative pressures exerted on an individual prior to entry into the organisation (family or cultural orientation), or following entry (organisational orientation). However, normative commitment may also develop when an organisation provides the employee with "rewards in advance" (eg paying college tuition), or incurs significant costs in providing employment (eg head-hunting fees or the costs associated with job training). Recognition of these investments causes employees to feel an obligation to reciprocate by committing themselves to the organisation until the debt has been repaid (Scholl, 1981).

Concept of Ethical Leadership

In the past decades, the interest in studying ethical leadership has been growing steadily. Ethical leadership has been described in a variety of ways. Kanungo (2001) noted that ethical leaders engage in acts and behaviours that benefits others, and at the same time, they refrain from behaviours that can cause any harm to others. Brown, et al., (2005) suggested that the combination of integrity, ethical standards, and fair treatment of employees are the cornerstone of ethical leadership. Trevino and Brown (2004) proposed that ethical leadership, in its true sense, promotes ethical conducts by practicing as well as managing ethics holding everyone accountable for it. Khuntia & Suar (2004) suggested that ethical leaders incorporate moral principles in their beliefs, values, and behaviour. According to Culia (1998) ethical leadership intelligence is a leadership directed by respect towards ethical values and beliefs and for the rights and dignity of others.

The construct domain of ethical leadership is broad, and several different types of values may be relevant including altruism, compassion, honesty, gratitude, fairness, humility and justice. Ethical leadership is also indicated by behaviour reflecting these values. Examples include being very supportive and helpful when someone has a problem, being fair when distributing rewards and benefits, being open and honest when communicating people, making sacrifices to benefit others, talking about the importance of values, setting clear ethical standards for the works, keeping actions consistent with espoused values and holding peoples accountable for ethical and unethical actions. It is obvious that ethical leadership intelligence overlaps to some extent with relations-oriented behavior constructs in the leadership literature, such as providing supportive or considerate leadership, empowering leadership, developing subordinate skills and self-confidence, and representing subordinate interests (Yukl, 2010).

Fairness as a Component of Ethical Leadership

Fairness is a relevant component of ethical leadership. Fairness implies the elimination of one's feelings, prejudices and desires to achieve a proper balance between conflicting interests. The problem with fairness is that it is subjective. Again, perception is reality. To create a perception of fairness, employers should pay competitive wages, create and administer policies that are unbiased, offer competitive benefits, provide timely, accurate and useful performance appraisals, promote the most qualified employees and develop employees by providing opportunities for growth. Affording employees the opportunity to voice their concerns, play a vital role in ensuring interactional justice. Various research studies (Bies & Shapiro, 1988; Shapiro, 1991; Shapiro, Buttner & Barry, 1994) demonstrated that an unfavourable outcome, such as not receiving a promotion because of AA measures, is better received by a receiver when he or she is treated in an interpersonally fair manner such as being given an explanation for a decision. In such instances, although the employee might feel that the decision is not distributive fair, he or she will remain committed to the organisation because he or she was treated with respect and fairly.

Relationship between Ethical Leadership (Fairness) and Organizational Commitment

To create a perception of fairness, employers should pay competitive wages, create and administer policies that are unbiased, offer competitive benefits, provide timely, accurate and useful performance appraisals, promote the most qualified employees and develop employees by providing opportunities for growth. Affording employees the opportunity to voice their concerns, play a vital role in ensuring interactional justice. Various research studies (Bies& Shapiro, 1988; Shapiro, 1991; Shapiro, Buttner & Barry, 1994) demonstrated that an unfavourable outcome, such as not receiving a promotion because of AA measures, is better received by a receiver when he or she is treated in an interpersonally fair manner such as being given an explanation for a decision. In such instances, although the employee might feel that the decision is not distributive fair, he or she will remain committed to the organisation because he or she was treated with respect and fairly.

Research has shown that one of the main reasons for failed change initiatives is the lack of commitment by employees (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). Another perspective in the change literature emphasizes resistance among employees to be a major cause of change failure (Pardo & Fuentes, 2003). Research has so far not linked resistance and change commitment. Furthermore, fairness during a change process plays an important role for the success of the change; employees are more likely to commit to a change if they perceive the process to be fair (Fedor et al., 2006). Greenberg (1987) labeled this phenomenon as Organizational Justice. Previous research has had different approaches to measure organizational fairness. Greenberg (1990) used a two-factor model where only procedural and distributive fairness was used. Procedural fairness refers to how the procedure of the change was carried out, while distributive fairness refers to the outcome of the change.

Fairness and employees commitment has been widely researched. Several studies support the notion that fairness of leaders as saliently related to employees' commitment, satisfaction and motivation to their organization (Abdul Shukor et.al, 2008 and Colquitt et al., 2001). According to Meyer et al. (1997), perception of fairness illustrates that the organization is committed to its employees. If people feel that the decisions are fair, they would respond with commitment, higher satisfaction and would be more willing to involve in 'extra-role behavior' (Colquitt et al., 2001). In fact, researchers such as Cook et al., (2004) argue that the evaluation performance will not be effective if it is perceived as unfair by those involved in the evaluation process. Since employees' perception of justice is important to the performance outcomes, management of the organizations was advised to have the ability to change the employees' perception of the performance evaluation (Tang et al., 1996).

The study postulates the following hypotheses to be tested:

Ho$_1$: There is no significant relationship between Fairness and affective commitment of oil and gas companies in Port Harcourt, Rivers State

Ho$_2$: There is no significant relationship between Fairness and continuous commitment of oil and gas companies in Port Harcourt, Rivers State

Ho$_3$: There is no significant relationship between Fairness and normative commitment of oil and gas companies in Port Harcourt, Rivers State

METHODOLOGY

The study adopted the cross-sectional survey in its investigation of the variables. Primary data was sourced through structured questionnaire. The population for the study was eight hundred and eight (808) employees. The sample size of 300 was determined using the Taro Yamane's formula for sample size determination. The research instrument was validated through by experts as provided by supervisors vetting and approval while the reliability of the instrument was achieved by the use of the Cronbach Alpha coefficient with all the items scoring coefficients above 0.70. The hypotheses were tested using the Spearman's Rank Order Correlation Statistics. The tests were carried out at a 95% confidence interval and a 0.05 level of significance.

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Bivariate Analysis
The Spearman Rank Order Correlation coefficient is calculated using the SPSS 21.0 version to establish the relationship among the empirical referents of the predictor variable and the measures of the criterion variable.

Table 1: Correlations for fairness and organizational commitment measures

		Fairness	Affective	Continuous	Normative
Fairness	Pearson Correlation	1	.930**	.905**	.920**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000
	N	180	180	180	180
Affective	Pearson Correlation	.930**	1	.904**	.904**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000
	N	180	180	180	180
Continuous Normative	Pearson Correlation	.905**	.904**	1	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)				
		.000	.000		
	N	180	180	180	180

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

The table 1 is a correlation of hypothesis one and two. The correlation for hypothesis one shows a significant correlation at r = .930** where P-value = .000 (P<0.001). This implies a strong and significant relationship between both variables at 95% level of confidence. We therefore reject the non-hypothesis (Ho$_1$:), and upheld the alternate hypothesis, thus, there is a significant relationship between normative commitment and fairness.

The correlation for hypothesis two shows a significant correlation at r = .905** where P-value = .000 (P<0.001). This implies a strong and significant relationship between both variables at 95% level of confidence. We therefore reject the non-hypothesis (Ho$_2$:), and upheld the alternate hypothesis, thus, there is a significant relationship between normative commitment and humility.

The correlation for hypothesis two shows a significant correlation at r = .920** where P-value = .000 (P<0.001). This implies a strong and significant relationship between both variables at 95% level of confidence. We therefore reject the non-hypothesis (Ho$_3$:), and upheld the alternate hypothesis, thus, there is a significant relationship between normative commitment and gratitude.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

This study using descriptive and inferential statistics methods in investigated the relationship between ethical leadership and organisational commitment of selected oil and gas servicing

firms companies in Rivers State, Nigeria. The findings revealed a positive and significant relationship between the predictor variable and the criterion variable using Pearson Moment Correlation Coefficient tool at 95% confidence interval. The relationship of the dimensions of the ethical leadership: fairness, gratitude and humility correlated with the measures of organizational commitment such as affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment at different statistical strength. These findings also support Armstrong, (2006) who stated that, ethical leadership is born as a means to help businesses to satisfy their most important needs which are to attract, retain, motivate and engage staff, not just by means of salary increases, golden handcuffs and the like, but in a more effective way capable of producing long-lasting results. The aim therefore, is to maximize the positive impact that a wide range of rewards can have on motivation, job engagement, organizational commitments and job satisfaction, Manus and Graham (2003).

The test of hypothesis one in table 4.18 shows a significant relationship between fairness and continuance commitment in oil and gas servicing companies in Rivers State. This implies that, organizations that are fair tend to attract the loyalty of their employees thereby creating more committed workforce. This implies that, organizations that designed a team base gratitude strategy for completion of tasks attract the loyalty of their employees, thus, reducing the workload on individual employee in the organization and increase employee loyalty. This support the research work of Kramar and Syed (2012) when they identified that group rewards or incentives are more likely to yield a collaborative approach to performance and thus be more effective in reaching your shared goals. They also argue that collective incentive schemes may encourage more organisational buy in from employees compared to those schemes of an individual nature. However, this does not mean that team based rewards are not compatible with individual performance related pay schemes as both can be combined with careful attention. As Kerrin's and Oliver (2002) comment in their research on collective and individual improvement activities, the effectiveness of collective or team based rewards can be directly related to the culture of the organisation. As base pay from an individualistic point of view has always been seen as the backbone of compensation, when organisational design moves into supporting teams for productivity, then the applicable collective rewards should be adapted to support this. They found that companies faced challenges in moving from a traditional system of reward based around the individual to a more team based reward structure, but that they could operate simultaneously with success.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study concludes that ethical leadership bears a positive and a significant influence on organizational commitment and all the dimensions and measures show positive relationships. As observed that, oil and gas companies operate across various regions where the operating environments and the socio- economic characteristic of the customers are different. Therefore, the leaders of oil and gas companies should apply various ethical leadership styles to gain a competitive advantage in the industry. Referring back to our finding where gratitude, humility

and fairness affect the level of organizational commitment is an indication of why company's leaders should be conscious of their ethical parts if they want to achieve their ultimate goal.

Based on the foregoing conclusions, the following recommendations are suggested.

That for the success of the organization and total committed workforce from employee, management of organization should ensure the goal of the organization are design such that, its achievement connect with visible ethical leadership standard.
Management of organizations should ensure that works are assign on collaborative base as it enhances early completion of job, thereby decreasing delay in performance of activities in the organization. Management of organization should reward and encourage employee who go extra miles for the success of the organization.

REFERENCES

Ahmad, N. (2014). Impact of organizational commitment and employee performance on the employee satisfaction, *International Review of Business Research Papers*, *4*(2), 316-337 1(1), 84–92.

Alhoseini, H. (2001).*Evaluating the development of organizations with a practical analytical approach*, Tehran: Bahariye.

Allen, C. T., Machleit, K. A. & Kleine, S. S. (1992). A comparison of attitudes and emotions as predictors of behavior at diverse levels of behavioral experience. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 18(4), 493-504

Allen, J. S. & Smith, R. L., (1987). Seasonal cycles of currents, temperatures, winds, and sea level over the northeast Pacific continental shelf: 35 N to 48 N. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*, *92*(C2), 1507-1526.

Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review*, *1*(1), 61-89.

Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P., (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organization. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 63(1),1-18.*

Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1993). Organizational commitment: Evidence of career stage effects?.*Journal of Business Research*, *26*(1), 49-61.

Buchanan, B. (2014) Building organizational Commitment: The socialization of managers in work organizations, *Journal of Marketing,* 19(4), 533–546.

Filstad, C., & Filstad, C. (2011),Organizational commitment through organizational socialization tactics. [Online] Available: http://doi.org/10.1108/13665621111154395

Finegan, J. E. (2000).The impact of person and organizational values on organizational commitment, *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 73(2), 149-169.

Ghosh, S., & Swamy, D. R. (2014).Open access: A literature review on organizational commitment. *A Comprehensive Summary*, 4(12), 4–14.

Hrebiniak, L.G., & Alutto, J.A. (1972) Personal and role related factors in the development of Organisational Commitment, *Administrative Science-Quarterly*, 17(2), 555-572.

Katsaros, K. K. (2014). Exploring employees' perceptions, job -related attitudes and characteristics during a planned organizational change, *Tourism Management, 28(5), 1212-1223.*

Mathieu, J., & Zajac, D. (1990).A review of meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates and consequences of organizational commitment", *Psychological Bulletin*, 108 (2), 171-94.

Mowday, R. T. (1982). Voluntarily leaving an organization: An empirical Investigation of Mowday's model of turnover. *Academy of Management Journal,30(4), 721-743.*

Mowday, R. T., Porter, L. W., & Steers, R. M. (2013). Employee organization linkages: *The psychology of commitment, absenteeism and turnover.* Academic Press.

Mowday, R. T., Steers, R. M., & Porter, L. W. (1979). The measurement of organizational commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 14(2), 224-247.

Nehmeh, R., (2009),What is organizational commitment , why should managers want it in their workforce and is there any cost effective way to secure it",? *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 15(1), 6-24.*

Osa, I. G., Amos, I. O. (2014).The impact of organizational commitment on employees productivity: A case study of Nigeria brewery, Plc, *Journal of Applied Psychology* 2(9), 107–122.

Peterson, D. K. (2004). Business & Society. [Online] Available: http://doi.org/10.1177/0007650304268065

Porter, L.W., Crampton, W.J., & Smith, F.J. (1976).Organizational commitment and managerial turnover: A longitudinal study, *Oreaniztional Behavior and Human Performance*, 15(2), 87-98.

Reichers, A. E. (1985). A review and re-conceptualization of organizational commitment, *Administrative Science Quarterly* 10(3), 465–476.

Sheldon., M.E. (1972).Investments and involvement as mechanism produced commitment to the Organisation, *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 17, 555-572.

Sintok, U. U. M., Aman, K. D., & Alqahtani, A. H. M.(2012),Employees' perception and organizational commitment: A study on the Banking sector in Gaza*, Palestine Graduate School of Business*, 3(16), 299–312.Adewale, O.O., Abolaji,A.J. & Kolade, O.J. (2011). Succession planning and organizational survival: Empirical study on Nigerian private tertiary institutions. Serbian Journal of Management, 6(2), 231 – 246. Adewale, O.O., Abolaji,A.J. & Kolade, O.J. (2011). Succession planning and organizational survival: Empirical study on Nigerian private tertiary institutions. Serbian Journal of Management, 6(2), 231 – 246. Adewale, O.O., Abolaji,A.J. & Kolade, O.J. (2011). Succession planning and organizational survival: Empirical study on Nigerian private tertiary institutions. Serbian Journal of Management, 6(2), 231 – 246.

Devinney, T. M., Yip, G. S., & Johnson, G. 2009. Using frontier analysis to evaluate company performance. British

The Informal Sector of Nigeria's Economy: A Potential Hub for Sustainable Economic Development

Mustapha Ali

Department of General Studies, Federal Polytechnic Damaturu, Yobe State, Nigeria

Abstract: *This paper examines the sector of the economy that is not regulated in any way by the government, otherwise known as the informal economy or informal sector. The methodology adopted in this study is Analytical Descriptive Survey (ADS). This technique enables one to make comparisons between and across variables over time. Just like (de soto, 1989), this paper concludes that the informal sector is very important for employment generation (especially among youth in the Global South) and consequently, sustenance of peace and security.*

Keywords: *Informality, Employment, Economic Development*

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The *informal sector* or *informal economy* as defined by governments, scholars, banks, etc. is the part of an economy that is not taxed, monitored by any form of government, or included in any gross national product (GNP), unlike the formal economy (de soto, 1989). In developing countries, some 70% of the potential working population earns their living in the informal sector. They would define this economy or sector in other words: not in what it is *not*, but what it is: the only way to earn a living for people who are *self-employed* outside the formal economy and not on anyone's payroll. Most of them live and work in this sector not because it is their wish or choice, but because they have no chance to be hired by an employer from the formal sector except for a few hours or days, with no legal right to be hired again.

In describing this sector, one should bear in mind that the informal economy is not a deviation of the formal economy, if only because all economic activities started informal and formed the basis from which the formal economy sprang, with firms and annual accounts, taxes, chambers of commerce, etc. Although the informal economy is often associated with developing countries, where up to 60% of the labour force (with as much 40% of GDP) work, all economic systems contain an informal economy in some proportion. The term *informal sector* was used in many earlier studies, and has been mostly replaced in more recent studies which use the newer term. The English idioms *under the table* and *off the books* typically refer to this type of economy. The term *black market* refers to a specific subset of the informal economy in which *Contraband* is traded, where contraband may be strictly or informally defined.

Informal economic activity is a dynamic process which includes many aspects of economic and social theory. By its nature, it is necessarily difficult to observe, study, define and measure. No

single source readily or authoritatively defines informal economy as a unit of study, although the work of economic anthropologist *Keith Hart* (Hart & Redfield, 1973) was integral in defining the term. To further confound attempts to define this process, informal economic activity is subject to permanent adaptation to changing circumstances. External regulations (and degrees of enforcement) change frequently, sometimes daily. The wish to preserve this source of income requires adapting with even minor changes in policy. Given the complexity of the phenomenon, the simplest definition of informal economic activity might be: any exchange of goods or services involving economic value between people outside the scope of 'normal and formal 'business (Chen, 2001).

Governments have tried to regulate (formalize) aspects of their economies for as long as surplus wealth has existed which is at least as early as *Sumer*. Yet no such regulation has ever been wholly enforceable. Archaeological and anthropological evidence strongly suggests that people of all societies regularly adjust their activity within economic systems in attempt to evade regulations. Therefore, if informal economic activity is that which goes unregulated in an otherwise regulated system then informal economies are as old as their formal counterparts, if not older. The term itself, however, is much more recent. The optimism of the school of *modernization theory* school of development had led most people in the 1950s and 1960s to believe that traditional forms of work and production would disappear as a result of economic progress in developing countries (Marilyn & Chen, 2001). As this optimism proved to be unfounded, scholars turned to study more closely what was then called the traditional sector. They found that the sector had not only persisted, but in fact expanded to encompass new developments. In accepting that these forms of productions were there to stay, scholars started using the term informal sector, which is credited to the British anthropologist *Keith Hart* (Hart & Redfield, 1973) in a study on Ghana in 1973 but also alluded to by the International Labour Organization in a widely read study on Kenya by the International Labour Organization in 1972 by Mana Rohan (ILO, 2002).

Since then the informal sector has become an increasingly popular subject of investigation, not just in economics, but also in sociology and anthropology. With the turn towards so called post-fordist modes of production in the advanced developing countries, many workers were forced out of their formal sector work and into informal employment. In a seminal collection of articles, *The Informal Economy. Studies in Advanced and Less Developed Countries*, Alejandro Portes (Portes & Haller, 2005) and collaborators emphasized the existence of an informal economy in all countries by including case studies ranging from New York City and Madrid to Uruguay and Colombia.

2.0 Literature Review

Arguably the most influential book on informal economy is Hernando de Soto's *El otro sendero* (1986), which was published in English in 1989 as *The Other Path* (de soto, 1989) with a preface by Peruvian writer Mario Vargas Llosa. De Soto and his team argue that excessive regulation in the Peruvian (and other Latin American) economies force a large part of the economy into

informality and thus prevent economic development. While accusing the ruling class of 20th century mercantilism, de Soto admires the entrepreneurial spirit of the informal economy. In a widely cited experiment, his team tried to legally register a small garment factory in Lima. This took more than 100 administrative steps and almost a year of full-time work. Whereas de Soto's work is popular with policymakers and champions of free market policies like *The Economist*, many scholars of the informal economy have criticized it both for methodological flaws and normative bias (Feige & Edgar, 1990).

In the second half of the 1990s many scholars have started to consciously use the term "informal economy" instead of "informal sector" to refer to a broader concept that includes enterprises as well as employment in developing, transition, and advanced industrialized economies (Feige & Edgar, 1990).

The informal economy under any governing system is diverse and includes small-scaled, occasional members (often street vendors and garbage recyclers) as well as larger, regular enterprises (including transit systems such as that of Lima, Peru). Informal economies include garment workers working from their homes, as well as informally employed personnel of formal enterprises. Employees working in the informal sector can be classified as wage workers, non-wage workers, or a combination of both (Shneider, 2002).

The above definition does not include criminal activities that are irregular by nature. Crime cannot be included because such acts have no regulated counterpart against which they may be compared. (Of course, by their nature, informal economic activities escape regulation but that does not necessarily imply that they are unlawful or criminal.) Domestic labor, such as childcare and cooking, is in general not included when performed in the natural course of daily living 'These activities are either formal or informal" (Beneira et al, 2006).

Statistics on the informal economy are unreliable by virtue of the subject, yet they can provide a tentative picture of its relevance: For example, informal employment makes up 48% of non-agricultural employment in North Africa, 51% in Latin America, 65% in Asia, and 72% in sub-Saharan Africa (World Bank, 2010). If agricultural employment is included, the percentage rises, in some countries like India and many sub-Saharan African countries beyond 90%. Estimates for developed countries are around 15%. In developing countries, the largest part of informal work, around 70%, is self-employed, in developed countries, wage employment predominates. The majority of informal economy workers are women. Policies and developments affecting the informal economy have thus a distinctly gendered effect (ILO, 2006).

2.1 A report from World Bank estimates the informal economies of 162 countries for the years of 1999 to 2007 (World Bank, 2010).

Estimated size of countries' informal economy

The table below shows the estimated values of the size of the informal economy in 110 developing, transition and OECD countries.

The average size of the informal economy, as a percent of official GNI in the year 2000, in developing countries is 41%, in transition countries 38% and in OECD countries 18%.

Country	Informal economy (billions of current USD) 2000	Informal economy in % of GNP 1999/2000
Georgia	2.1	67.3
Bolivia	5.4	67.1
Panama	6.0	64.1
Azerbaijan	3.0	60.6
Peru	31.1	59.9
Zimbabwe	4.2	59.4
Tanzania	5.2	58.3
Nigeria	21.3	57.9
Thailand	63.4	52.6
Ukraine	16.1	52.2
Guatemala	9.7	51.5
Uruguay	9.9	51.1
Honduras	2.9	49.6
Zambia	1.4	48.9
Belarus	14.4	48.1
Armenia	0.9	46.3
Russia	114.5	46.1
Benin	1.0	45.2
Nicaragua	1.0	45.2
Moldova	0.6	45.1
Sri Lanka	7.1	44.6
Philippines	34.4	43.4
Senegal	1.9	43.2
Kazakhstan	7.4	43.2
Uganda	2.7	43.1
Niger	0.8	41.9
Mali	0.9	41.0
Ethiopia	2.6	40.3
Malawi	0.7	40.3
Mozambique	1.4	40.3
Côte d'Ivoire	3.4	39.9
Latvia	2.9	39.9

Brazil	226.8	39.8
Kyrgyzstan	0.5	39.8
Madagascar	1.5	39.6
Colombia	30.8	39.1
Burkina Faso	0.8	38.4
Ghana	1.9	38.4
Tunisia	7.1	38.4
Nepal	2.2	38.4
Bulgaria	4.3	36.9
Pakistan	21.9	36.8
Morocco	11.8	36.4
Jamaica	2.6	36.4
Bangladesh	16.7	35.6
Egypt	35.0	35.1
Ecuador	4.3	34.4
Romania	12.5	34.4
Kenya	3.5	34.3
Algeria	17.3	34.1
Lebanon	5.9	34.1
Bosnia and Herzegovina	1.6	34.1
Uzbekistan	2.5	34.1
Venezuela	40.1	33.6
Botswana	1.8	33.4
Albania	1.3	33.4
Croatia	6.3	33.4
Cameroon	2.7	32.8
Turkey	64.5	32.1
Dominican Republic	6.0	32.1
Malaysia	25.6	31.1
Lithuania	3.4	30.3
Mexico	168.5	30.1
Yugoslavia	2.5	29.1
Greece	32.9	28.6
South Africa	34.8	28.4
Poland	43.3	27.6
Korea, South	125.1	27.5
Yemen	2.0	27.4
Slovenia	4.9	27.1
Italy	288.0	27.0
United Arab Emirates	0.0	26.4
Costa Rica	3.8	26.2
Argentina	70.5	25.4

Hungary	11.1	25.1
Belgium	53.1	23.2
India	104.7	23.1
Portugal	23.3	22.6
Spain	124.8	22.6
Israel	23.2	21.9
Chile	13.5	19.8
Taiwan	61.6	19.6
Indonesia	27.7	19.4
Jordan	1.6	19.4
Syria	3.1	19.3
Czech Republic	9.6	19.1
Norway	30.6	19.1
Sweden	42.9	19.1
Iran	17.7	18.9
Slovakia	3.6	18.9
Mongolia	0.2	18.4
Saudi Arabia	32.0	18.4
Finland	21.9	18.3
Denmark	29.1	18.2
Hong Kong, China	27.5	16.6
Canada	110.1	16.4
Germany	303.1	16.3
Ireland	12.7	15.8
Vietnam	4.9	15.6
France	199.6	15.3
Australia	58.0	15.3
China	139.6	13.1
Singapore	12.9	13.1
Netherlands	47.8	13.0
New Zealand	5.9	12.7
United Kingdom	178.6	12.6
Japan	553.8	11.3
Austria	19.0	10.2
Switzerland	22.3	8.8
United States	864.6	8.8

(Source; World Bank,2010).

3.0 Gender

Women tend to make up the greatest portion of the informal sector, often ending up in the most erratic and corrupt segments of the sector (ILO, 2002). Sixty percent of female workers in developing countries are employed by the informal sector. The reasoning behind why women

make up majority of the informal sector is two-fold. Firstly, it could be attributed to the fact that employment in the informal sector is the source of employment that is most readily available to women. Secondly, a vast majority of women are employed from their homes (most likely due to the large number of women who are involved in care work) or are street vendors, which both are classified in the informal sector Furthermore, men tend to be overrepresented in the top segment of the sector and women overpopulate the bottom segment (World Bank 2010). For example, very few women are employers who hire others and more women are likely to be involved in smaller scale operations. Labour markets, household decisions, and states all propagate this gender inequality. The gender gap in terms of wage is even higher in the informal sector than the formal sector.

4.0 Nigeria's Informal Economy
Previously hindered by years of mismanagement, economic reforms of the past decade have put Nigeria back on track towards achieving its full economic potential. Nigerian GDP at purchasing power parity more than doubled from $170.7 billion in 2005 to $374.3 billion in 2010, although estimates of the size of the informal sector (which is not included in official figures) put the actual numbers closer to $520 billion [8]. Correspondingly, the GDP per capita doubled from $1200 per person in 2005 to an estimated $2,500 per person in 2009 (again, with the inclusion of the informal sector, it is estimated that GDP per capita hovers around $3,500 per person). It is the largest economy in the West Africa Region, 3rd largest economy in Africa (behind South Africa and Egypt), and on track to becoming one of the top 30 economies in the world in the early part of 2011 (World Bank, 2010).

4.1 Issues from within
Workers in the informal sector earn less income, have unstable income, and don't have access to basic protections and services (Merilyn & Chen, 2001). Informal businesses also lack the potential for growth, trapping employees in menial jobs indefinitely. On the other hand the informal sector can allow a large proportion of the population to escape extreme poverty and earn an income that is satisfactory for survival [10].

From the viewpoint of governments, the informal sector can create a vicious cycle. Being unable to collect taxes from the informal sector, the government may be hindered in financing public services, which in turn makes the sector more attractive. Conversely, some governments view informality as a benefit, enabling excess labor to be absorbed, mitigating unemployment issues (Merilyn & Chen, 2001).

4.2 Expansion
The informal sector has been expanding as more economies have started to liberalize. This pattern of expansion began in the 1960s when a lot of developing countries didn't create enough formal jobs in their economic development plans, which lead to the formation of an informal sector that didn't solely include marginal work and actually contained profitable opportunities (World Bank, 2010). In the 1980s, the sector grew alongside formal industrial

sectors. In the 1990s, an increase in global communication and competition lead to a restructuring of production and distribution often relies more heavily on the informal sector. Over the past decade, the informal economy is said to account for more than half of the newly created jobs in Latin America. In Africa it accounts for around eighty percent. Many explanations exist as to why the informal sector has been expanding in the developing world throughout the past few decades. It is possible that the kind of development that has been occurring has failed to support the increased labour force in a formal manner. Expansion can also be explained by the increased subcontracting due to globalization and economic liberalization. Finally, employers could be turning toward the informal sector to lower costs and cope with increased competition.

4.3 Poverty
The relationship between the informal sector and poverty certainly isn't simple nor does a clear, causal relationship exist. An inverse relationship between an increased informal sector and slower economic growth has been observed though [11]. Average incomes are substantially lower in the informal economy and there is a higher preponderance of impoverished employees working in the informal sector (ILO, 2002).

4.4 Possible improvements
Ways to improve the informal sector include formalizing informal jobs through regulation by the state. The issue with this policy is that so many different types of informality exist. It would be extremely difficult to create solutions to meet so many diverse circumstances (UNRISD, 2010). Another possible improvement would be to provide better protections and benefits in the informal sector, but creating protection programs could lead to a disconnect between the labor market and protections, which may not actually improve informal employment. It might also be possible to create other methods of generating income through microloans or land rights when access to the formal sector is limited. This is not a satisfactory solution to effectively combat the issues underlying the informal sector though (Chen, 2001).

5.0 CONCLUSION
According to the World Bank [9], the informal sector of Nigeria's economy ranks 8th out of the informal economies of 162 countries surveyed for the years of 1999 to 2007. The countries cut across developing, transition and OECD countries. The size of the informal economy of Nigeria is 57.9% of GDP. This is a huge potential. If such potential would be harnessed in the primary products subsector, i.e. (Agriculture and Mining), it could provide adequate raw materials and other factor inputs (like Labour) for the Small-Scale and Medium-Scale industries. If the industries could operate at full capacity and produce more processed output, it would promote export which has the tendency of generating more foreign exchange earnings for the domestic economy. Such trend would stimulate the effective demand for tertiary products (engineers, architects, doctors, lawyers, professors, accountants, etc) within the domestic economy. Such linkages have the propensity of transforming the Nigerian economy from a developing one to a developed one.   The case of the Asian Tigers (China) and the Asian dragons (India) is a good

example (Bebeira et al, 2006). For the informal economy of Nigeria to truly transform into a hub for sustainable economic development, Nigeria should restructure her revenue collection system because it has very low capacity to collect taxes from her citizens. States cannot function if they are unable to collect taxes and account for them. However, as *Moore* (1998) has noted if citizens are not taxed they have little or no incentive to hold the government accountable (Merilyn & Chen, 2001). Regulation of business activities for corrupt practices is also important. Some businesses get into corrupt practices in the society for survival because of the unfavorable economic environment. There is need to resolve the fundamental impediments facing the economy. Thus, Nigeria should institute reforms that could improve social institutions and governance, reduce corruption, increase productivity, and spur economic growth and development.

In addendum, Nigeria should invest in social infrastructures. For instance, how can the private sector function without electricity, without access to financial capital, and without good road network, and without good operating environment? For the economy to function well the environment must also support small and medium scale firms that create employment. This will help reduce the rising youth unemployment and crime rates in the society. The nation should also improve access to clean water and improve sanitation and invest bountifully in information technology. Economic growth should be tied to activities in non-oil sector and agricultural productivity because resources from the oil sector alone wouldn't grow the economy. The provision of functional institutions and necessary tools for production will improve the capacity utilization of industries and the economy. The nation's capacity utilization is currently poor. Sadly, as *Charles Soludo* noted, "The economy operates at only 25 per cent capacity" (Daily Independent, November 6, 2006).

Also, education is an important factor in economic growth and development. But the nation's educational system has been facing myriad of challenges, which prevent the system from performing its basic objectives. The problems include inadequate funding and lack of planning and management, poor governance and infrastructure, lack of teaching materials and enough good quality teachers at all levels, among others. When such propositions eventually materialize and economic growth and development ensued, the informal sector is actually the hub or the springboard for such a feat.

5.1 RECOMMENDATION

The government should come up with the following measures in order to support and boost the informal economy in Nigeria:

    i.   Credit Facilities
    ii.   Training in craft and entrepreneurial skills
    iii.   Basic education on laws of the land
    iv.   Basic education on their rights as citizens

v.   Establishing Bureau of the informal sector which aims at addressing the challenges of the operators in the sector

When the aforementioned steps are taken, the informal economy is a springboard for sustainable economic development.

References

Hernando de Soto (1989). *The Other Path: The Economic Answer to Terrorism*. Harper Collins. ISBN 0060160209. http://www.amazon.com/Other-Path-Economic-Answer-Terrorism/dp/0465016103.

Carr, Marilyn and Martha A. Chen. 2001. "Globalization and the Informal Economy: How Global Trade and Investment Impact on the Working Poor". Background paper commissioned by the ILO Task Force on the Informal Economy. Geneva, Switzerland: International Labour Office.

(PDF) *Men and Women in the Informal Economy*. International Labour Organisation. 2002. ISBN 92-2-113103-3. http://www.ilo.org/public/english/employment/gems/download/women.pdf. Retrieved 2011-12-02.

World Bank (2010). "Shadow Economies All over the World". World Bank. http://www-wds.worldbank.org/external/default/WDSContentServer/IW3P/IB/2010/10/14/000158349_20101014160704/Rendered/PDF/WPS5356.pdf. Retrieved 15 July 2011.

Friedrich Schneider (July 2002). "SIZE AND MEASUREMENT OF THE INFORMAL ECONOMY IN 110 COUNTRIES AROUND THE WORLD". http://www.amnet.co.il/attachments/informal_economy110.pdf.

UNRISD. 2010. "Gender Inequalities at Home and in the Market." Assignment: Chapter 4, pp. 5-33.

Beneria, Lourdes and Maria S. Floro. 2006. "Labor Market Informalization, Gender and Social Protection: Reflections on Poor Urban Households in Bolivia, Ecuador and Thailand," in Shahra Razavi and Shireen Hassim, eds. Gender and Social Policy in a Global Context: Uncovering the Gendered Structure of "the Social," pp. 193-216. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Chen, M (2001) "Women in the informal sector: a global picture, the global movementí." SAIS Review 21(1).

Carr, Marilyn and Martha A. Chen. 2001. "Globalization and the Informal Economy: How Global Trade and Investment Impact on the Working Poor". Background paper commissioned by the ILO Task Force on the Informal Economy. Geneva, Switzerland: International Labour Office.

Hart, K. and Redfield, A. (1973). Anthropology Beyond the University. Man, 8(4), p.648.

http/www.wikipedia.com/informal economy. Accessed 2011.12.04.

Alejandro Portes and William Haller (2005). "The Informal Economy". In N. Smelser and R. Swedberg (eds.). *Handbook of Economic Sociology, 2nd edition*. Russell Sage Foundation.

Hernando de Soto (1986). *El Otro Sendero*. Sudamericana. ISBN 9500704412. http://www.amazon.com/dp/9500704412/. Retrieved 2011-12-02.

Alejandro Portes and William Haller (2005). "The Informal Economy". In N. Smelser *and* R. Swedberg *(eds.). Handbook of Economic Sociology, 2nd edition. Russell Sage Foundation.*

Feige, Edgar L. (1990). "Defining and Estimating Underground and Informal Economies: The New Institutional Economics Approach". World Development (18/7).

Soludo, C. (2006). The Way Forward. Daily Independent, p.4.

Human Capital and Economic Development

Mustapha Ali[1] and Yunusa Mohammed Kaigama[2] (PhD)

[1]General Studies Department, Federal Polytechnic Damaturu, Nigeria

[2]Banking and Finance Department, Federal Polytechnic Damaturu, Nigeria

Abstract: *This paper examines the influence of education and skill acquisition on human capital development, which in turn, impacts on economic development. The methodology used in this study is Descriptive Comparative Analysis (DCA), which enables one to scrutinize variables over time. This paper observes that improving human capital and human health are key to any meaningful progress in any human society.*

Keywords: *Competencies, Human Capital, Economic Development*

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Human capital is the stock of competencies, knowledge, social and personality attributes, including creativity, embodied in the ability to perform labour so as to produce economic value. It is an aggregate economic view of the human being acting within economies, which is an attempt to capture the social, biological, cultural and psychological complexity as they interact in explicit and/or economic transactions. Many theories explicitly connect investment in human capital development to education, and the role of human capital in economic development, productivity growth, and innovation has frequently been cited as a justification for government subsidies for education and job skills training (wikipedia.org).

A. W. Lewis is said to have begun the field of Economic Development and consequently the idea of human capital when he wrote in 1954 the "Economic Development with Unlimited Supplies of Labour." The term "human capital" was not used due to its negative undertones until it was first discussed by Arthur Cecil Pigou: "There is such a thing as investment in human capital as well as investment in material capital. So soon as this is recognized, the distinction between economy in consumption and economy in investment becomes blurred. For, up to a point, consumption is investment in personal productive capacity. This is especially important in connection with children: to reduce unduly expenditure on their consumption may greatly lower their efficiency in after-life. Even for adults, after we have descended a certain distance along the scale of wealth, so that we are beyond the region of luxuries and "unnecessary" comforts, a check to personal consumption is also a check to investment (en.wiki.org).

The use of the term in the modern neoclassical economic literature dates back to Jacob Mincer's article "Investment in Human Capital and Personal Income Distribution" in *The Journal of Political Economy* in 1958. Then, T.W. Schultz, who also contributed to the development of the subject matter. The best-known application of the idea of "human capital" in economics is that of Mincer and Gary Becker of the "Chicago School" of economics. Becker's book entitled *Human Capital*, published in 1964, became a standard reference for many years. In this view, human capital is similar to "physical means of production", e.g., factories and machines: one can invest in human capital (via education, training, medical treatment) and one's outputs depend partly on the rate of return on the human capital one owns. Thus, human capital is a means of production, into which additional investment yields additional output. Human capital is substitutable, but not transferable like land, labor, or fixed capita. Modern growth theory sees human capital as an important growth factor.

The educational level of its citizens says a lot about a country's economic development. It is a good indicator not only of the stage of economic development already reached but also of the potential for future growth. A nation's precious human capital is nurtured through education and promoted through the labour market. This is the national resource that more than any other will determine success in terms of GDP, investment environment and so on as nations compete in the global market economy.

Education and health are basic objectives of development. They are important ends in themselves. Health is central to well-being, and education is essential for a satisfying and rewarding life: both are fundamental to the broader notion of expanded human capabilities that lie at the heart of the meaning of development . The last half-century witnessed unprecedented advances in human capital. Health and education levels improved in both developed and developing countries. As a result, there has been some international convergence in these measures (Todaro & Smith, 2011).

2.1 LITERATURE REVIEW

Ojo (1996) as cited in Awe and Ajayi (2010), explained that improved human beings will not complain about their education, health, food, housing and security, among other things. Thus, the improved human beings are better producers who contribute positively to economic growth and its sustainability.

The concept of human capital refers to the abilities and skill of human resources of a country (Adamu, 2000), while human capital formation refers to the process of acquiring and increasing the number of persons who have skills, education and experience that are crucial for the economic growth and political development of a country. Thus, human capital is associated with investing in people as a creative and productive process.

According to Yesufu (2000), a good health policy is a means by which government can ensure that manpower is generated in the right mixes, distributed in accordance with national priorities and ensure the highest level of labour productivity.

The work of Psacharopolous (1994), according to Okuwa (2004) as cited in Sani (2010), provides comprehensive review of recent literature on returns to education investment. Several dimensions of returns to education were highlighted. The review covered 20 studies that used the full and the Micerian rate of returns for 78 and 62 countries, respectively. Central to most of the studies was the investigation of the undisputable and universal positive correlation between education and earnings. However, the interpretation is often varied and conflicting. The major findings of Psacharolopous (1994) are summarized below:

First, he observed that among the three main levels of education, primary education continues to exhibit the highest social profitability in all regions of the world. Also, private returns are considerably higher than social returns, a situation he attributed to the public subsidization of education. Second, he observed a declining pattern of returns to education over time, where all social returns declined between two and eight percentage points on average in 15-year period. However, he noted that the returns to higher education increased by about two percentage points during this period.

When gender consideration was examined, his findings confirmed that overall; the returns to female education are higher than those of males, although individual levels of education showed a more mixed pattern. Even when estimates were adjusted for selectivity bias, that is, by taking into account the prior decision of a woman on whether to participate in the labour force (Heckman, 1979, as opined in Sani, 2010), the rate of return estimate for females remained virtually unaffected, and the returns by females whether corrected or not, exceeded those of males by more than one percentage point. Moreover, the review showed a large variation between the returns to higher education faculties, the lowest social returns being for Physics, Sciences and Agronomy, and the highest private returns for Engineering, Law and Economics. Similarly, the employment sector accounted for some differences in returns. A major fact from the findings of Psacharopolous (1994) is that variation in earnings or returns to education is a function of many factors and not only the years of schooling.

Another debated issue in the literature has been the role of socio-economic background. Card and Krueger (1992a) found that, holding school quality constant, there is no evidence that parental income or education affects state level returns to education. But Newman (1991), using Israel data found that the returns to schooling are higher for those coming from favourable socio-economic background.

3.1 **Global Trend on Private and Social Returns on Education**

In the context of this paper, private return to investment refers to the benefits that a consumer of education derives either in the short run, long run or over his entire life span. A social return, on the other hand, refers to what a society as a whole benefits from educated citizens. Estimates of the returns to education are now available for over sixty countries in the table below.

Table 1. **The Return to Investment in Education by Country Group and Level of Schooling**

SOCIAL RETURN   PRIVATE RETURN

Country Group	Primary	Secondary	Higher	Primary	Secondary	Higher
Africa	26	17	13	45	26	32
Asia	27	15	13	31	15	18
Latin America	26	18	16	32	23	23
Intermediate	13	10	8	17	13	13
Industrial	-	11	9	-	12	12

Source: Psacharopolous p.101.

- The social returns to education in developing countries are at least as high as any reasonable measure of the opportunity cost of capital or social discount rate, that is, investment in machines.
- Rates of return are highest in primary education, followed by secondary and then university levels. For primary education, unit costs are small relative to extra lifetime income or productivity associated with literacy. For university education, the opposite is true.
- The same diminishing returns apply across countries: the more developed the country, the lower the returns to education at all levels. The high return to education in low income countries must be attributed to their relative scarcity of human capital.
- Private returns are higher than social returns at all levels – as a result of the public subsidization of education in most countries. The discrepancy between social and private returns is greatest at university levels which raise issues of equity as well as how educational expansion should be financed.

The following tables explain some of the aforementioned points:

Table 2. **The Social Returns to Education by Level and Field of Study**

Educational Level	Field of Study	Rate of Return
Secondary School	General Academic	16
Curriculum	Technical, Vocational	12
University Faculty	Law, Economics, Social Science	12
	Engineering	12
	Agronomy	8

Source: Based on Psacharopolous p. 102.

Table 3. **The Contribution of Education to Economic Growth**

Region	Percentage of Growth Rate Explained by Education
Africa	17.2
Asia	11.1
Latin America	5.1
North America	-
Europe	8.6

Source: Based on Psacharopolous p.102.

4.1 GENDER AND EDUCATION

Worldwide, men are more likely to be literate, with 100 men considered literate for every 88 women. In some countries the difference is even greater; for example, in Bangladesh only 62 women are literate for every 100 men (wikipedia.org).

In an OECD study of 43 developed countries, 15-year-old girls were ahead of boys in literacy skills and were more confident than boys about getting high-income jobs (wiki.org). In the United States, girls are significantly ahead of boys in writing ability at all levels of primary and secondary education (wikipedia.org). However, boys are slightly ahead of girls in mathematics ability (op cit).

There has been a significant increase in women accessing tertiary education compared to men. In the United States, the 2005 averages saw male to female university participants at a 43 to 57 ratio (Marklein, 2005). Also, in 2005-2006, women earned more Associate's, Bachelor's, and Master's degrees than men, but men earned more Doctorates (wiki.org). This is repeated in other countries; for example, women make up 58% of admissions in the UK (wiki.org) and 60% in

Iran (op cit). In Canada the 15% gender gap in university participation favored women (Christofides, Hoy, and Yang, 2006).

4.2 Health Challenges Faced by Developing Countries

a. Absolute Poverty: poverty plays such a central role in most health problems faced by developing countries that it has its own designation in the International Classification of Diseases; code Z59.5 – extreme poverty.

b. AIDS: Now the leading cause of death of working-age adults in the developing world. If unchecked, it may condemn sub-Saharan Africa, the hardest hit region, to grinding poverty for at least another generation.

c. Malaria: once in retreat, its most deadly strand is now making a big comeback, particularly in Africa; it still kills about 2 million people each year.

d. Tuberculosis: TB currently claims about 3 million lives each year. The WHO estimates that one-third of the world's population is infected with the TB bacillus, and that each year about 8 million new cases result from this 'reservoir of infection'. New, multi-drug resistant strands of TB, difficult and expensive to treat, are spreading in about '40 TB hot-zones' in the developing world.

e. Hepatitis B: this now kills about a million people each year.

f. Ascariasis: ascaris roundworm parasites cause clinical symptoms in as many as 21.4 million people at any given time, most commonly infecting children aged 3 to 8 years, who often become infected by putting their hands to their mouths after playing in contaminated soil, or by eating uncooked food grown in contaminated soil or irrigated with unsanitary water. The worst infections cause about 60,000 deaths per year, the overwhelming majority of them children.

g. Cholera: once largely in retreat, cholera has been in the upsurge in recent years in many countries of Africa, Asia, and Latin America, as it has spread rapidly in this, its seventh pandemic. Untreated dehydration from severe diarrhea causes death.

h. Denge: while many serious diseases have been in retreat, Denge and Denge haemorrhagic fever are now spreading rapidly, with millions of cases each year, and thousands of deaths.

i. Leprosy: there are still about 600,000 new cases of leprosy each year. Between 2 and 3 million people have been disabled by leprosy, including those who have been cured but crippled prior to treatment, in India and many developing countries.

j. Dracunculiasis (Guinea-worm disease): A debilitating illness infecting about 3 million people, largely among the poorest of the poor, who lack access to even minimally safe water.

Source: Todaro & Smith, 2011 p.429.

4.3 Percentage of Adult Population Infected with HIV or Suffering from AIDS, Selected Developing Countries, 2000

Botswana: 35.80   Kenya: 13.95   Haiti: 5.70   Mexico: 0.29
Zimbabwe: 26.06   Central Africa Rep.: 13.84   Congo: 5.07   Vietnam: 0.24
Zambia: 19.95   Mozambique: 13.22   Thailand: 2.20   China: 0.07
South Africa: 19.95   Rwanda: 11.21   India: 0.70   Indonesia
Namibia: 19.54   Cote d'ivore: 10.76   Argentina: 0.69
Malawi: 15.96   Uganda: 8.30   Brazil: 0.57

Source: Avalailble at: http://www.unaids.org/hivaidsinfo/statistics/june00/fact_sheets/index.html.

4.4 Health and Productivity

The devastating effects of poor health on child mortality are clear enough. But do poor health conditions in developing countries also harm the productivity of adults? The answer appears to be yes. Studies show that healthier people earn higher wages. For example, daily wage rate in cote d'ivore have been estimated to be about 19% lower among men whose health status makes them likely to lose a day of work per month because of illness than daily wage rates of healthier men. Careful statistical methods have shown that a large part of the effect of health on raising earnings is due to productivity differences: it is not just the reverse causality that higher wages are used in part to purchase better health. A study in Bangladesh found that the higher productivity of healthier workers allows them to get better paying-jobs. In another study the elimination of deformity from leprosy was estimated to more than triple earnings of workers in India (Strauss & Thomas, 1998).

Nobel laureate Robert Fogel has found that citizens of developed countries are substantially taller today than they were two centuries ago, and has argued that stature is a useful index of the health and the general well-being of a population. Increases in height also have been found in developing countries in recent decades as health conditions have improved (Strauss & Thomas: 1998).

5.1 HUMAN CAPITAL AND THE BRAIN DRAIN

The British Royal Society coined the term "brain drain" to describe the outflow of scientists and technicians to the United States and Canada in the 1950s and early 1960s. By the 1970s the brain drain came to be associated with the flow of skilled individuals from the developing world to Western Europe and North America. Of all the world's regions, Sub-Saharan Africa has experienced the most serious negative repercussions (Shinn, David: 2008).

The impact of the brain drain on Sub-Saharan Africa is complex. There is the well-known migration of highly educated Africans from the continent to other parts of the developed world. There is also substantial movement of skilled Africans within Sub-Saharan Africa. As a general rule the migration is from poor, politically unstable, and/or conflict prone countries to those that have stronger economies, are politically stable, and offer good security. The brain drain does have a silver lining for the losing country. In some cases, the Diasporas have become significant sources of financial remittances back to the home country. Other Africans in the diaspora are finding ways to make their technical expertise available through electronic networks and some actually return to help out for short periods of time. Nevertheless, the brain drain is generally harmful to Sub-Saharan Africa (Shinn, 2008).

Statistics on Sub-Saharan Africa's brain drain and migration are often confusing and contradictory. Nevertheless, there is general agreement on the trend lines. The brain drain has two categories. There are those who complete their education in Africa and then migrate for a variety of reasons. This group consists especially of scientists, engineers, health professionals, and entrepreneurs. The second category involves students who study abroad, finds jobs, establish families, and become permanent residents or citizens of another country (worldbank.org).

An estimated 300,000 African professionals live and work outside the continent. Since 1990, Africa has lost some 20,000 professionals each year. About 30,000 Sub-Saharan Africans holding PhDs now live outside Africa. Over the last three decades, for example, Kenya has lost more than one-third of its skilled professionals; 3,000 highly trained Kenyans leave every year. About 10 per cent of South Africa's IT and finance executives have departed in recent years. In 2007, 150 professionals left Ethiopian Airways, mainly for higher paying jobs with airlines in the Gulf States. Between 70 and 90 per cent of Zimbabwe's university graduates are now working outside the country. To fill the gap caused by this brain drain, Africa employs up to 150,000 expatriate professionals at a cost of $4 billion annually (worldbank.org).

There have also been significant movements of skilled Sub-Saharan Africans within the region. Oil rich Gabon and economically strong Namibia have had some success in recruiting highly educated Africans. Majority rule in South Africa in the mid-1990s resulted in an influx of educated migrants from countries like Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Zaire, Kenya, and Uganda. Prosperous and politically stable Botswana attracted professionals, particularly to the private sector and university, from South Africa, Ghana, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Nigeria, and Kenya. The most recent data suggest that both South Africa and Botswana are now exporting more skilled personnel than they are importing. The HIV/AIDS crisis in southern Africa has contributed to the problem (Shinn, 2008).

African governments and societies must fix those problems that are driving skilled individuals out of the country. If a country has endemic conflict, the conflict must be brought to an end. If it has a long history of dictatorial rule, it must become more free and open. If corruption is out of control, it must be controlled. If the wealth of a country is being squandered, it must be channelled equitably into productive activities. If government and university appointments are made largely on the basis of ethnicity, they must in the future be made on the basis of merit. If wages in critical skill categories like medicine are unrealistically low, they have to be increased. If the government gives a low priority to support for science and technology, it must raise the priority. It is not realistic for any country to resolve all of the problems that cause professionals to depart. Countries with strong economies such as South Africa, Mauritius, and Botswana and those with significant natural resources such as Nigeria, Gabon, and Angola are in a better position to staunch the outflow. The poorest countries like Ethiopia, Malawi, and Somalia have a much more difficult task.

Each country should create a comprehensive database on the impact of the brain drain. South Africa is well advanced in this undertaking. The database will help decision-makers formulate more effective policy for retaining persons with skills in those areas where the brain drain is negatively affecting development priorities. Without detailed and up-to-date information on the nature of the problem, it will be impossible to ameliorate it in any significant way.

Science, technology, and medicine are the skill categories most adversely affected by the brain drain in Sub-Saharan Africa. Individual governments and regional institutions must make a special effort to counter loses in these fields. They can develop centres of excellence for scientific research and increase budgetary allocations for research. They can also help to establish links between research and the private sector, share information on best practices and improve ways to disseminate research findings throughout the continent. They should improve the working environment in an attempt to ensure that these persons remain in the country.

Most African countries can do much at little or no cost to improve the climate for their highest skilled individuals. They can permit unrestricted academic freedom and value indigenous experts as much they value foreign experts. For that matter, they can put pressure on the donor community to make greater use of African experts in assistance programs rather than importing specialists from outside. They can revaluate the nation's education system to determine if it is producing the skills required for critical needs. Governments can promote development of a stronger private sector and then encourage it to work with and draw on the skills of indigenous personnel. Governmental institutions and universities can encourage human resource policies that accommodate the career aspirations of their personnel and create a positive policy environment. Health professionals in the low paid public sector can be permitted to do some private practice.

Other incentives are more costly and probably out of reach of most African countries. They include higher wages or salary supplements for professions highly impacted by the brain drain. Tax incentives and improved benefits packages might help stem the flow. Providing loans or assistance for decent housing, expanding professional training opportunities, offering grants and fellowships for research, and providing educational benefits for children are other incentives for retaining skilled personnel. Improving the physical plant and equipment where individuals work is another option.

Some countries have tried restrictive proposals to stem the brain drain. Sudan once limited departures by requiring exit permits. Others have tried contractual bonding of persons leaving for studies abroad. Another technique is to require that students who study overseas return after completion of the education to fulfil a specified commitment in a national service program. This is done by ensuring that the departing student receives a foreign visa that requires the student to return home. Ethiopia, Ghana, and Nigeria have tried this idea. Alternatively, a country can delay departure for overseas positions by requiring compulsory service. A few countries have imposed remittances on skilled personnel in order to render immigration less attractive. Eritrea asked students going to South Africa to post a $15,000 bond to ensure their return. The students protested that they could not pay such a huge sum and the university backed down, instead withholding their academic certificates until they returned. The evidence suggests that these restrictive policies are rarely effective in stemming the brain drain (Shinn, David: 2008).

The ability of governments and the private sector to strengthen and expand African universities is a key to mitigating migration and the drain brain. In too many countries, national universities are weaker and less adequately funded today than they were just after independence. Of all the world's regions, Sub-Saharan Africa has the lowest level of tertiary education at 4 per cent. This compares with 18 per cent for Latin America and 7 per cent for South Asia. National universities and research institutions should remain the principal platforms for imparting the skills needed to develop the nations of Sub-Saharan Africa. Although there is an important role for private universities and distance education, the major public colleges still hold the key. This means more budgetary support, independence, and academic freedom (Shinn, David: 2008).

6.1 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

This paper has exposed the exerting influence of education and health on the human capital potentials and developments of countries around the world. The paper equally highlighted the positive correlation between human capital and economic prosperity. However, the gains can be maximized if the right mix of education and training is given to the human resources of a nation, and if they are fully utilized. Some of the salient aspects of this paper include:

- The positive relationship between educational attainment (human capital) and economic development.
- The social returns to education are much higher for low level of education compared to higher level of education.
- Financing of higher education will continue to be under threat due to the high level of brain drain.

For instance, in Nigeria alone, the per capita expenditure on students as at the year 2010 according to Sani (2010), was;

Public Universities   N237.2billion

Public Secondary Schools   N66.417billion
Pubic Primary Schools   N24.258billion

And country experiences on brain drain goes as follows:

The Philippines: as at 2006, approximately 8 million Filipinos were working abroad and they remitted home about $10.7b which is equal to about 12% of the country's GDP. Medical professional were the highest especially in the Middle East countries.

China: it was estimated that only 30% of Chinese students who studied abroad return home after completion of their studies.

Iran: in 2006, IMF ranked Iran as the highest in brain drain among 90 countries surveyed.

Africa: the problem of brain drain has reached quite a disturbing proportion in Africa, with Ethiopia ranked first in the continent in terms of rate of loss of human capital, closely followed by Nigeria and Ghana.

Nigeria: in 2005, 21,000 Nigerian doctors were practising in the USA. The figures exclude those in Saudi Arabia and the entire Gulf States, Europe, Australia and others. According to the Presidential Committee on Brain Drain set up in 1988 by the Babangida Administration, between 1986 and 1990, Nigeria has lost 10,000 academics from tertiary institutions and the universities. Total estimates, including those who left public, industrial and private organizations, are over 30,000 (Sani, 2010) as cited in Mansur (2011).

It is recommended that the government should increase spending on social and economic infrastructures in order to enhance the efficiency of labour and increase productivity.

Also, the educational system should be geared towards meeting the needs of the changing society.

REFERENCE

1. Adamu, P. A (2000); 'The Impact of Human Capital on Economic Growth in Nigeria: An Error Correction Approach', NES selected papers on human resources development in Africa for the 2002 annual conference, published in Ibadan.
2. Awe, A. A. and Ajayi, S. O. (2010); 'The Nexus Between Human Capital Investment and Economic Growth in Nigeria', Pakistan Journal of social sciences, Vol. 7, Issue 1.
3. Christofides, Hoy & Yang (2006): 'Participation in Canadian Universities; the gender imbalance (1977 – 2005). Elsevier, Economics of Education Review, 29 – 2010, 40 – 410.
4. Yesefu,T. M. (2000): 'The Human Factor in National Development of Nigeria', Ibadan; Spectrum Books Ltd.
5. Lewis, A. W. (1954): 'Economic Development With Unlimited Supplies of Labour', Cambridge University Press.
6. Mansur, I. (2011); 'Human Capital Development and the Nigerian Economy', being a paper presented at the 19th mandatory seminar and 21st induction programme of the Institute of Chartered Economists of Nigeria, 16/07/2011, Ikeja, Lagos.
7. Marklein, M. (2005, October) College Gender Gap Widens: 57% are Women. USA Today. Retrieved from: http://www.usatoday.com/news/education/2005-10-19-male-college-cover_x.htm
8. Psacharopoulos,G. (1994): 'The Profitability of Investing in Education: Concepts and Methods', being a paper presented for HCO working Paper.
9. Sani, B. M. (2010): 'Micr & Macro Economic Analysis of Private and Social Returns to Education: A Review and AN assessement', being a paper presented at the 1st National Conference on the state of the Nigerian Economy, 4/11/2010, At Bayero University Kano, Nigeria.
10. Shinn, David H. (2008): 'African Migration and the Brain Drain', being a paper presented at the Institute for African Studies & Slovenia Global Action, Slovenia.
11. Selma, Mushkin (1962): 'Health is an Investment', Journal of Political Economy, p. 129 – 157.
12. Strauss, John & Thomas, Duncan (1998): 'Health, Nutrition & Economic Development', Journal of Economic Literature.
13. Strauss, John & Thomas, Duncan (1997): 'Health Wages; evidence on men and women in urban Brazil', Journal of Econometrics, Vol. 77 (1997)./
14. Todaro, M. P. & Smith, S. C. (2011): 'Economic Development', Pearson Education.
15. http://www.unaids.org/hivaidsinfo/statistics/june00/fact_sheets/index.html.

Human Resource Planning and Team Collaboration of Deposit Money Banks in Nigeria

POI, Godwin (Ph.D, FCA)

Director, Centre for Entrepreneurship and Head of Department of Business Administration,

Faculty of Social and Management Sciences,

University of Africa,

Toru-Orua, Bayelsa State

Abstract: *This study investigated the relationship between human resource planning (HRP) and team collaboration in deposit money banks in Nigeria. The study focused on demand forecasting and supply forecasting as two dimensions of human resource planning (predictor variables) and team collaboration as the dependent variable. Two hypotheses guided the study. The study adopted a cross-sectional survey research design and the target population was all the 20 consolidated deposit money banks in Nigeria. Primary data was collected through structured questionnaire and the data was analysed using multiple regression analysis with the aid of SPSS version 22.0to assess the nature and proposed associations. The results of the study showed that there was a positive relationship between the demand forecasting dimension of human resource planning and team collaboration but the relationship was not statistically significant at 0.05 level of significance. There was also a positive association between supply forecasting dimension of human resource planning and team collaboration and the relationship this time was statistically significant at 0.05 level of significance. The study therefore recommends that the supply forecasting dimension of human resource planning in deposit money banks in Nigeria should be prioritized over demand forecasting because it contributes more towards team collaboration. Furthermore, deposit money banks should emphasise and strengthen the supply forecasting side of human resource planning in recruiting, training and retention of its labour force.*

Keywords: *Human Resource Planning, Demand Forecasting, Supply forecasting, Team Collaboration, Deposit Money Banks*

INTRODUCTION

All financial institutions engage in various activities which involve humans as a fundamental factor to their success (Aguenza & Som, 2012). While it is true that machines have been developed to replace humans in performing some of the tasks previously undertaken by people in the financial services sector (Rotman, 2013), it is also true that the machines themselves require humans to programme them in order to perform the functions. They have to be operated by human in order to achieve the desired results. In leveraging the man-machine dichotomy in the digital workplace, it is important for teams to collaborate to achieve the desired results (Thomson & Perry, 2006). It is generally recognised that more can be achieved strategically by working as a team with other organization rather than working alone in isolation as suggested in the blue-ocean strategic perspectives. Team collaboration can be defined as a complementary relationship where people collectively create a result that is more than the sum of the individual inputs, personal interest and conflict (Sanker, 2012). However, in

the banking industry, human resources account for a significant part of team collaboration. Human resource planning includes personnel administration, employee training, welfare and compensation for health and safety. An effective human resources planning (HRP) can therefore result in highly motivated workforce leading to high workplace collaboration, quality improvement and minimising cost and time overruns (Aguenza & Som, 2012).

The human resource planning (HRP) process in the banking sector has been changing rapidly all over the world for some time now. The results of the practices from these changes have compelled managers to have sufficient reasons to be aware of the employee behaviour and methods which can enlarge their team-based workforce. The significant tools of HRP like selection, training, benefits/incentives, and employee promotion make HR practices in the financial institutions stronger than many other sectors in developing economies (Wright & Gardner, 2003). As in many other sectors in Nigeria, the deposit money banks face major challenges in attracting and retaining skilled and valuable employees to meet changing service delivery needs of their customers and to promote team-based culture. Together with rapid advances in communication technology, these factors are already having a profound effect on what and how services are provided, to whom, and at what cost. This calls for a greater need for the effective planning of human resource (HR) which arguably is the organization's most valuable asset (Byars & Rue, 2004).

Empirical evidence of the association between human resource planning and measures of individual and team collaboration can be found in numerous management and human resource management literatures such as Barksdale & Werner (2001) and Seok & Chiew (2013). Many studies have examined the relationships between personal characteristics and employee attitudes as well as human resource planning in manufacturing sector and the oil and gas industry (Michael, 2006; Bayo & Red-well, 2020). Merchant & Vander Stede (2007) have however highlighted the paucity of studies and literature in the antecedents of human resource planning in financial institutions and retail sectors.

This research is therefore to identify those determinants that can improve team-based culture in the selection process, hiring, training, retaining plans and giving compensation. It aims to study the extent to which human resource planning dimensions have a significant influence (if any) on team collaboration in the context of deposit money banks in Nigeria.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The underpinning social baseline theory on the study of human resource planning and team collaboration is Contextual Based Human Resource Theory (CBHRT). The baseline theory was developed by Paauwe (2004). The theory explains why organizations adopt and implement certain human resource practices. According to Paauwe (2004) the factors that determine the HR policies adopted by an organization are contingent to both outside and inside influences; hence the theory assumes an inside–out approach to policy implementation. The proposition of this theory is based on the fact that the specific policy adopted by any organization is spurred by; (1) the demands of its market (i.e. product, price, service quality, and technology pressures/

developments), (2) institutional demands (i.e. political, social, cultural, and legal pressures), (3) the internal organizational characteristics (cultural, structure, and systems), and (4) the prevailing alliance (i.e. stakeholder: employees, host community, suppliers, etc.). According to Etukudo (2019), the theory agrees to the fact that, the human and other resources create value for the organization. Most especially, the study is pivoting its argument on this theory as a result of the fact that studies have identified human resource planning to be context specific (Madsen and Slåtten, 2017). It therefore, follows that, HR managers and business leaders need to have an understanding of the economic, technological, cultural, political, stakeholders' drivers that make up their business operational environments before deciding on the specific strategies to adopt to enhance team collaboration in the workplace.

Concept of Human Resource Planning

Organizations typically plan their future needs for supplies, equipment, building capacity, and financing. They must also plan to ensure that their human resource needs are satisfied. Human resource planning involves identifying staffing needs, forecasting available personnel, and determining what additions or replacements that are required to maintain a staff of the desired quantity and quality to achieve the organization's goals. Human resource planning is the entry point of human resource management that is concerned with the determination of human resource requirements, job analysis, recruitment, selection and socialization (Mondy & Noe, 2006). Human resource planning is therefore the process of determining an organization's human resource needs. It is an important concept in the human resource management literature because it ensures the right person at the right place and at the right time. It helps the organization to achieve its overall strategic objective.

Izueke (2009) posited that human resource planning requires detailed analysis of the present and the future to ensure that the organization has the right number of people available who possess the right kinds of skills to perform the jobs required by the organization when the work is needed. Butter, (2002) postulated that it is important to note that the quality of human resource planning depends on personal records. Ghazala & Habib, 2012) contended that the process of human resource planning should ensure that, an organization's employees have the requisite skills and competencies which an enterprise needs for it to succeed. According to Khadka (2009) human resource planning must be linked to the overall strategy of the organization. Forecasting human resource requirements, effective management of change, realizing organizational goals, promoting employees and effective utilization of human resource are the main objectives of human resource planning.

Demand Forecasting

The concept of demand forecasting(also known as manpower forecasting) is the process of estimating the future numbers of personnel required and the likely skills and competences they will need to meet the desired state in the organization (Vernez, 2007).Furthermore, forecasting human resource demand is the process of estimating the future human resource requirement of the right quality and the right number in the organization. It involves analysing the

employment trends, replacement needs of employees due to death, resignations, retirement termination etc, productivity of employees, growth and expansion of organization, absenteeism and labour turnover. These are the relevant factors for human resource forecasting. Forecasting manpower demand involves a practical level determination of size of personnel and type of workers that company will require in the future. It is proper that managers take their time to forecast future manpower needs because this will save money and time in future. Noe (2012) explained that when it comes to the human resource planning, a mathematical formula can be used to project future demands of human resources based on an established relationship between an organization's employment level and some measurable factors of output such as revenue, sales or production level.

Supply Forecasting

Supply forecasting measures the number of people likely to be available from within and outside the organization, having allowed for absenteeism, internal movements and promotions, wastage and changes in hours and other conditions of work (Pradeesh, 2011). Randal (2000) further stated that supply analysis covers areas such as existing number of people employed by occupation, skill and potential, source of supply from within the condition and effect of changing condition of work and absenteeism. The purpose of supply forecasting is to determine the size and quality of present and potential human resources available from within and outside the organization to meet the future demand of human resources. Supply forecast is the estimate of the number and type of potential personnel that could be available to the organization. According to Ghazala & Habib (2012) there are two sources of HR supply forecasting. These are the internal and external sources; essentially people already employed by the firm and those outside the organization, respectively. The internal supply of human resource includes transfers, promotions, retired employees and recall of laid-off employees. It is therefore important to monitor vacancies that could be filled from within. This can be facilitated by the use of the human resource audit, or the systematic inventory of the qualifications of existing personnel. A human resource audit is simply an organizational chart of a unit or entire organization with all positions (usually administrative) indicated and identified as to the promotability of each role incumbent.

Team Collaboration

Gray & Wood (1991) postulated that team collaboration can be studied through its antecedents, processes and outcomes. Antecedents are pre-conditions for collaboration to transpire, including the personal characteristics of individuals that make them more suitable collaborators. Processes encompass the key activities involved in collaborating (Thomson, Perry & Miller, 2007). Outcomes tend to vary according to the type of business (Patel, 2012) and the theoretical perspective adopted. A clear pointer to this level of harmony involves the mental, emotional, and spiritual connections among employees in teams or groups in organizations (Neal & Bennett, 2000). The essence of community is a deeper sense of connection among people, including support, freedom of expression, and genuine caring (Milliman, 2003). In today's organization individuals in workplaces experience sense of community in the presence

of shared vision, common values, boundaries, empowerment, shared responsibility, growth and development, tension reduction, education, feedback, and friendship (Naylor, 1996). People value workplaces where they feel part of a community (Pfeffer & Veiga, 1999), and employees find strong connectedness in workplaces where they experience shared values and a shared sense of purpose.

Empirical Studies

Anya, Umoh & Worlu (2017) studied human resource planning and industrial harmony in oil and gas firms in Port Harcourt, Nigeria. They found that human resource planning has a strong influence on industrial harmony in forecasting future demand of workforce. Also Amaratunga (2012) studied how human resource planning can assure adequate staff levels and found that a primary function of human resources planning is making certain that various company departments have sufficient staff to complete all the work required to meet the organization's goals.

Garrett, Spreitzer, & Bacevice (2014) undertook a study of manpower supply and forecasting of workforce in paint manufacturing SMEs in South-Western Nigeria. In particular, they examined the choice of supply forecasting and labour force strategies and their impact on the sales growth, revenue growth, frequency of customer grievances and growth in customer base. They observed that the supply forecasting of manpower and workforce forecasting that were positively correlated with each other and with performance.

Pimtong, Hanqin and Hailin (2012) also investigated the influence of forecasting manpower demand and organizational success on hotel performance. They considered whether organizational structure had a moderating effect on the relationship between forecasting manpower demand and the hotel performance. The results revealed that forecasting manpower demand had a direct effect on hotel performance and demand forecasting had a direct effect on organization's financial performance.

Aim and Objectives of the study

The purpose of this paper was to investigate the relationship between human resource planning and team collaboration of Deposit Money Banks in Nigeria. The specific objectives were:
1. To examine the relationship between demand forecasting and team collaboration in the Deposit Money Banks in Nigeria.
2. To examine the relationship between supply forecasting and team collaboration in the Deposit Money Banks in Nigeria

Research Hypotheses

Two research hypotheses were developed to guide the study at 0.05 level of significance. These were:

Ho$_1$: There is no significant relationship between demand forecasting and team collaboration in the Deposit Money Banks in Nigeria.

Ho$_2$: There is no significant relationship between supply forecasting and team collaboration in the Deposit Money Banks in Nigeria**.**

METHODOLOGY

The study adopted cross-sectional survey research design because it needed to collect data from a wide range of subjects to elicit acceptable generalization. According to the CBN (https://infoguidenigeria.com/banks-nigeria/), there were 28banks operating in Nigeria in 2019. Out this number, five(5)were merchant banks; three (3)were international banks while twenty (20)were Deposit Money Banks. The target population of this study was therefore the 20 consolidated deposit money banks. All the 20 consolidated deposit money banks had their regional offices in Port Harcourt, Rivers State. The regional manager and regional human resource manager for each of the 20 banks were selected to be served the researcher designed questionnaire instrument for primary data collection. This was because they were at the most vantage position to respond to questions on human resource planning and workplace harmony. The reliability of the instrument was achieved by the use of the Cronbach Alpha coefficient with all the items scoring above 0.70. The hypotheses were tested using inferential statistic with the help of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22.0. Regression analysis was used to analyse the extent of the correlation coefficient as well as the t-statistic to determine the coefficients of determination.

DATA ANALYSES AND RESULTS

The analyses were carried out using multiple regression analyses techniques at a (95%) level of confidence interval. The 0.05 significance level were adopted as criterion for the probability of either accepting the null hypothesis at (P>0.05) or rejecting the null hypothesis at (P<0.05).

Table 1   **Regression Model 1 Showing the extent to which Human Resource Planning affects Team Collaboration**

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.752[a]	.606	.598	1.50602

a. Predictors: (Constant), Supply Forecasting, Demand Forecasting

Source: Field Survey, 2021

Table 1, above shows the empirical result of regression analysis (R-value =0.752) on the effect of the predictor variables of demand forecasting and supply forecasting (proxies for HRP) on the criterion variable (team collaboration). The empirical result of coefficient of determination (R^2-value 0.606) indicates that human resource planning explains 60.6% of the increase in team collaboration in the Deposit Money Banks in Nigeria while the remaining 39.4% could be due to other factors not included in the study.

Table 2   **Multiple Regression Result on Human Resource Planning (Demand Forecasting, Supply Forecasting) and Team Collaboration**

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.848	.938		3.035	.005
	Demand Forecasting	.212	.120	.299	1.764	.087
	Supply Forecasting	.529	.091	.559	5.796	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Team Collaboration

Source: Field Survey, 2021

Ho$_1$: There is no significant relationship between demand forecasting and team collaboration in the Deposit Money Banks in Nigeria.

Table 2 above shows the empirical result of multiple regression coefficients. The relationship between demand forecasting and team collaboration was not significant with a (t-$_{cal.}$ = 1.764) and (t-$_{crit.}$ =1.96) as the decision to reject or accept the hypothesis. Both (t-$_{cal.}$ =1.764) and significance level of (P>0.087), indicate that there is no significant relationship between the study variables. Therefore, the null hypothesis is hereby accepted and stated that there was no significant relationship between demand forecasting and team collaboration. Similarly, demand forecasting as a predictor variable contributes (β=0.212) to the variation of the criterion variable (team collaboration). This implies that demand forecasting makes very little contribution to explain the variation in the criterion variable (team collaboration) in the Deposit Money Banks in Nigeria.

Ho$_2$: There is no significant relationship between supply forecasting and team collaboration in the Deposit Money Banks in Nigeria.

Table 2 above also shows the empirical result of multiple regression coefficients of the relationship between supply forecasting and team collaboration. The association was found to be significant with a (t-$_{cal.}$ = 5.796) and (t-$_{crit.}$ =1.96) as the decision to reject or accept the hypothesis. Both the (t-$_{cal.}$ =5.796) and a significance level of (P>.0.000), indicate that there is a strong positive as well as significant relationship between the study variables. Therefore, the null hypothesis is hereby rejected and stated that there was a strong positive and significant relationship between supply forecasting and team collaboration. Similarly, supply forecasting as a predictor variable contributes (β=0.529) to the variation of the criterion variable (team collaboration). This implies that supply forecasting makes a major contribution to explain the variation in the criterion variable (team collaboration) in the Deposit Money Banks in Nigeria.

Discussion of Findings

This study found that the relationship between demand forecasting and team collaboration was positive but not statistically significant. This finding is contrary to results in Pimtong, Hanqin & Hailin (2012). They had investigated the influence of forecasting manpower demand and organizational success on hotel performance and the results revealed that demand forecasting

manpower demand had a direct effect on hotel performance whereas this study does not find such a significant relationship.

Also, in comparison with the Anna (2012) study on the relationship between group demands forecasting and team communication and it was revealed that the alignment between group forecasting and communication was limited. Only one of the two subsamples presented a positive dependence among the variables. Furthermore, the findings of this study also differ from the conclusion of Nadkarni & Herrmann (2010) who examined the relationships between manpower forecasting and business performance. Their result was that there was a significant and positive directional relationship unlike this study that showed a positive but not significant relationship.

It is not immediately clear what accounts for the differences in the findings and would be worthy of a more detailed examination.

The test of the second hypothesis found that there was a significant and positive relationship between supply forecasting and team collaboration. This implies that supply forecasting makes a unique contribution to explaining the variation in the criterion variable (team collaboration) in Deposit Money Banks in Nigeria. The findings corroborate with the study by Thomson & Perry (2006) which revealed a significant level of association between supply workforce forecasting and local content development. Their results further suggested that through effective internal and external labour supply firms can be developed such that they are more effective and functional within the industry (Wiklund & Shepherd, 2009).

The findings here on supply forecasting were also in line with the conclusion of Garrett, Spreitzer, & Bacevice (2014)who studied manpower supply and forecasting of workforce in small and medium business owners and their performance impacts. They found that the choice of supply forecasting and labour force strategies by paint manufacturing SMEs in south western Nigeria impacted sales growth, revenue growth, frequency of customer grievances and growth in customer base and observed that supply forecasting of manpower and workforce forecasting are highly adopted by the manufacturing firms and that all of them affect one another in very positive ways.

CONCLUSION

The study examined the relationship between human resource planning and team collaboration in deposit money banks in Nigeria with the dimensions of demand forecasting and supply forecasting as proxies for HRP. From the findings, it was concluded that while there was a positive but statistically not significant relationship between demand forecasting and team collaboration, the relationship between supply forecasting and team collaboration was positive and statistically significant in the deposit money banks in Nigeria. The relationship between HRP and team collaboration is therefore important on the supply forecasting side and should be emphasised.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Further research should be considered into the differences in the findings of the statistical significance in the relationship between demand forecasting and team collaboration.
2. That deposit money banks and their human resource managers need to continually carry out manpower recruit processes and planning to advance the demand of future workforce situation in the labour market prior to recruitment of employees.
3. The deposit money banks in Nigeria should emphasise and strengthen supply forecasting over demand forecasting in HRP as it has a statistically significant relationship with team collaboration.

REFERENCES

Aguenza, A. G., & Som, W. (2012). Development of employee engagement programme on the Basis of Employee Satisfaction Survey. *Journal of economic development, management, information technology, finance and marketing*, 4, (2), 27-37.

Amaratunga, A. S. (2012). Organizational conflict and its effect on organizational performance: University of Botswana. *Academic Journal Inc*. 3, (4), 344-356

Anna, D. (2012). Factors influencing human resource development in Nigerian construction industry. In the proceedings of World Sustainable Building Conference, Barcelona, Spain

Anya, S. Umoh, W. & Worlu S. (2017). Reforming employment relations: the case for neo pluralism. *Industrial Relations Journal,* Sage: New York.

Barksdale, S & Werner, D. F. (2001). Labour Reform and Industrial conflict Mismanagement in Nigeria. *Journal of Political Economy*, 1 (2),11-23.

Butter, D. (2002). Overview: Strategic human resource Management in five leading firms. *Human Resource Management*, 38(4), 287-301.

Byars, M. & Rue, G. (2004).*Strategic human resource planning Glenn Ridge*, New Jersey: Thomas Horton and daughters, 78(2), 22-31.

Garrett, H., Spreitzer, A., & Bacevice, N. (2014).Conducted a study on the Influence of Communication on industrial harmony in the Civil Service of Delta State Nigeria. *New Media and Mass Communication, 37*(1), 2224-3267

Ghazala, N. F., & Habib, D. (2012). Impact of employee training and empowerment on employee creativity through employee engagement: empirical evidence from manufacturing sector of Pakistan. *Middle-East Journal of Scientific Research*, *19*(2), 593-601.

Gray, D. S. & Wood, I. K. (1991). Measuring collaboration among grant partners. *American Journal of Evaluation*, 27(3), 383–392.

Izueke, E. M. (2009). Strategic human resources management in the Nigerian Public service and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs): The Nexus in Nigerian. *Journal of Public Administration and Local Government*, 14, (1 & 2), 234-456.

Khadka, S. R. (2009). Securing a harmonious working environment through effective industrial relations at workplace. *The Nigerian perspective Business Management Dynamics, 3*(2), 46-59.

Merchant, J., & Vander, S. (2007). Job Stickiness & employee retention rate. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 92, (1), 180-190.

Michael, S. (2006). Developing and implementing an effective framework for collaboration: The experience of the CS2day collaborative. *Journal of Continuing Education in the Health Professions*, *31*(1), 13–20

Milliman, A. (2003). Employee turnover and retention strategies: An empirical study of public sector organizations in Pakistan. *Global Journal of Management and Business Research,* 12 (1), 83-88

Mondy, S. & Noe, R.A. (2006).Improving Industrial Harmony and Staff Performance in a school Organization through Effective Communication. *International Journal of Scientific Research in Education,* 6, (3), 263-270.

Nadkarni, S. & Herrmann, S. K. (2010). Revisiting talent management, work-life balance and retention strategies. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 27 (3), 453-472.

Naylor, A. O. (1996). The effects of human resource management policies on organizational performance in Greek Manufacturing firms. *Thunder bid International Business Review*, 49, (1), 1-35.

Neal, H. S. & Bennett, A. (2000). Assessment of factors influencing employee retention in Tanzania's work organizations. *International Journal of Innovation and Applied Studies*, 9 (2), 687-697.

Noe, R.A. (2012). *Human Resource Management: Gaining a competitive advantage*. NewYork: NY:

Pfeffer, A.S., & Veiga, E. T. (1999). The relationship between training and retention in a volunteer organization. PhD Dissertation, Auburn, Alabama: Auburn University.

Pradeesh, N. M. (2011). Determinants of academic staff relation in Public Universities in Kenya: Empirical Review. *International Journal of Humanities and Social   Science,* 2(21), 205-212.

Pimtong, A., Hanqin, N., & Hailin, I. (2012). A strategy for industrial relations research in Great Britain. *British Journal of Industrial Relations*, *12*(1), 95-110.

Randal, L. N. (2000). The influence of types of training on service system performance in Mass service and service shop operations. *International Journal of Production   Economics*, 138, (1), 183-194.

Rotman, B. (2013). Instilling collaboration for inclusive schooling as a way of doing business in public schools. *Remedial and Special Education, 17*(3), 169–181.

Sanker, L.M. (2012).*General and Industrial Management*: New York: Pitman Publishing Corporation.

Seok, A., & Chiew, S. W. (2013). How to compete: The impact of workplace practices and information technology on productivity. *Review of Economics & Statistics*, 83(3), 434 -445.

Thomson, K., & Perry, D. I. (2006). Manpower planning for high Talent personnel. *Bureau of Industrial Relations,* University of Michigan, Ann Arbor

Thomson, D., Perry D. I. & Miller, S. (2007). Human resource management: Manufacturing strategy and firm performance. *Academy of Management Journal,* 39 (4), 836-866.

Vernez, D. (2007). Organization and environment: *Managing differentiation and Integration* Boston. Division of Research, Graduate School of Business Administration, Harvard University.

Wiklund, S., & Shepherd, D. (2009). *Human resource planning*. McGraw –Hill Book Company Inc.

Wright, N., & Gardner, D. (2003). *Personnel management theory and practice*. Washington DC: Atlantic Publishers.