



SOW203

INTRODUCTION TO GROUP DYNAMICS

Course Manual

Okafor E.E. Ph.D.

Social Legislation

SOW206



University of Ibadan Distance Learning Centre
Open and Distance Learning Course Series Development
Version 1.0 v1

Distance Learning Centre, University of Ibadan, Ibadan.

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ISBN: _

General Editor: Prof. Bayo Okunade

Page layout, instructional design & development by EDUTECHportal,
www.edutechportal.org

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Vice-Chancellor's Message

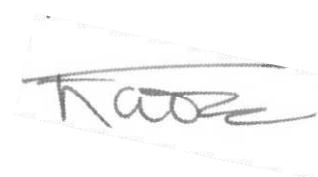
The Distance Learning Centre is building on a solid tradition of over two decades of service in the provision of External Studies Programme and now Distance Learning Education in Nigeria and beyond. The Distance Learning mode to which we are committed is providing access to many deserving Nigerians in having access to higher education especially those who by the nature of their engagement do not have the luxury of full time education. Recently, it is contributing in no small measure to providing places for teeming Nigerian youths who for one reason or the other could not get admission into the conventional universities.

These course materials have been written by writers specially trained in ODL course delivery. The writers have made great efforts to provide up to date information, knowledge and skills in the different disciplines and ensure that the materials are user-friendly.

In addition to provision of course materials in print and e-format, a lot of Information Technology input has also gone into the deployment of course materials. Most of them can be downloaded from the DLC website and are available in audio format which you can also download into your mobile phones, IPod, MP3 among other devices to allow you listen to the audio study sessions. Some of the study session materials have been scripted and are being broadcast on the university's Diamond Radio FM 101.1, while others have been delivered and captured in audio-visual format in a classroom environment for use by our students. Detailed information on availability and access is available on the website. We will continue in our efforts to provide and review course materials for our courses.

However, for you to take advantage of these formats, you will need to improve on your I.T. skills and develop requisite distance learning Culture. It is well known that, for efficient and effective provision of Distance learning education, availability of appropriate and relevant course materials is a *sine qua non*. So also, is the availability of multiple platform for the convenience of our students. It is in fulfilment of this, that series of course materials are being written to enable our students study at their own pace and convenience.

It is our hope that you will put these course materials to the best use.



Prof. Isaac Adewole

Vice-Chancellor

Foreword

As part of its vision of providing education for “Liberty and Development” for Nigerians and the International Community, the University of Ibadan, Distance Learning Centre has recently embarked on a vigorous repositioning agenda which aimed at embracing a holistic and all encompassing approach to the delivery of its Open Distance Learning (ODL) programmes. Thus we are committed to global best practices in distance learning provision. Apart from providing an efficient administrative and academic support for our students, we are committed to providing educational resource materials for the use of our students. We are convinced that, without an up-to-date, learner-friendly and distance learning compliant course materials, there cannot be any basis to lay claim to being a provider of distance learning education. Indeed, availability of appropriate course materials in multiple formats is the hub of any distance learning provision worldwide.

In view of the above, we are vigorously pursuing as a matter of priority, the provision of credible, learner-friendly and interactive course materials for all our courses. We commissioned the authoring of, and review of course materials to teams of experts and their outputs were subjected to rigorous peer review to ensure standard. The approach not only emphasizes cognitive knowledge, but also skills and humane values which are at the core of education, even in an ICT age.

The development of the materials which is on-going also had input from experienced editors and illustrators who have ensured that they are accurate, current and learner-friendly. They are specially written with distance learners in mind. This is very important because, distance learning involves non-residential students who can often feel isolated from the community of learners.

It is important to note that, for a distance learner to excel there is the need to source and read relevant materials apart from this course material. Therefore, adequate supplementary reading materials as well as other information sources are suggested in the course materials.

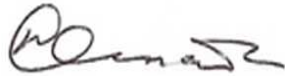
Apart from the responsibility for you to read this course material with others, you are also advised to seek assistance from your course facilitators especially academic advisors during your study even before the interactive session which is by design for revision. Your academic advisors will assist you using convenient technology including Google Hang Out, You Tube, Talk Fusion, etc. but you have to take advantage of these. It is also going to be of immense advantage if you complete assignments as at when due so as to have necessary feedbacks as a guide.

The implication of the above is that, a distance learner has a responsibility to develop requisite distance learning culture which includes diligent and disciplined self-study, seeking available administrative and academic support and acquisition of basic information technology skills. This is why you are encouraged to develop your computer skills by availing yourself the opportunity of training that the Centre’s provide and put these into use.

In conclusion, it is envisaged that the course materials would also be useful for the regular students of tertiary institutions in Nigeria who are faced with a dearth of high quality textbooks. We are therefore, delighted to present these titles to both our distance learning students and the university's regular students. We are confident that the materials will be an invaluable resource to all.

We would like to thank all our authors, reviewers and production staff for the high quality of work.

Best wishes.

A handwritten signature in dark ink, appearing to read 'Okunade', with a stylized flourish at the end.

Professor Bayo Okunade

Director

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About this course manual

Social LegislationSOW206 has been produced by University of Ibadan Distance Learning Centre. All course manuals produced by University of Ibadan Distance Learning Centre are structured in the same way, as outlined below.

How this course manual is structured

The course overview

The course overview gives you a general introduction to the course. Information contained in the course overview will help you determine:

- If the course is suitable for you.
- What you will already need to know.
- What you can expect from the course.
- How much time you will need to invest to complete the course.

The overview also provides guidance on:

- Study skills.
- Where to get help.
- Course assignments and assessments.
- Margin icons.

We strongly recommend that you read the overview *carefully* before starting your study.

The course content

The course is broken down into Study Sessions. Each Study Session comprises:

- An introduction to the Study Session content.
- Study Session outcomes.
- Core content of the Study Session with a variety of learning activities.
- A Study Session summary.
- Assignments and/or assessments, as applicable.
- Bibliography

Your comments

After completing Social Legislation we would appreciate it if you would take a few moments to give us your feedback on any aspect of this course. Your feedback might include comments on:

- Course content and structure.
- Course reading materials and resources.
- Course assignments.
- Course assessments.
- Course duration.
- Course support (assigned tutors, technical help, etc.)

Your constructive feedback will help us to improve and enhance this course.

Course Overview

Welcome to Social LegislationENG204

This Course is all about Social Legislation. The need for Social legislation becomes important in order to protect the weak and vulnerable in the society. This is because as society evolves and develops there is bound to be social and economic dislocations in the society. Nigeria is no exception in this regard. Although, social legislation is developing in Nigeria but the scope has in recent times covered all areas that are of public concerns. Against this background, this course is divided into fifteen lectures.

Lecture one introduces what is Social Legislation and how it emerged in other countries using a well developed country, the United States of America, as an example.

Lecture two deals with the concept of law and the role it has played in formulating Social Legislation. This lecture also covers the classification of law, functions of law as well as the features of law. Lecture three discusses the Social Policy and Legislation in Nigeria. In doing this the lecture considers the roles of social development sector in national development in Nigeria. It also examines how social work practices started in Nigeria. Lecture four is on the structure and different levels of management of social development sector in Nigeria. It also identifies some reasons why social development sector has not impacted positively on Nigerians over the years and also considered measures government has adopted as a structure and levels of management of this sector.

Lecture five centres on poverty. The lecture also discusses types of poverty, how it can be measured, what are its various causes as well as its effects of on the people. Lecture six is an extension of lecture five which further discusses poverty in Nigeria. It examines the condition of Nigeria as it relates to poverty and how poverty in Nigeria is measured. Furthermore, it discusses some of anti-poverty measures put in place by government to reduce the scourge of poverty in Nigeria. Lecture seven was devoted to discussing the health services in Nigeria. It examines the traditional health care system and from this moved to discuss the evolution of modern health services in Nigeria. It also examines critically the state of health services in Nigeria as well as the philosophy guiding the national health policy. Lecture eight further discusses the level of health care services in Nigeria as well as some recent developments in the health care financing with special reference to National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS). Lecture nine discusses education in Nigeria. In doing this it defined the concept of education as well identifying the various forms of education we have in Nigeria. It also discusses the history and

philosophy of Nigeria education. Lecture ten further discusses some critical issues involved in Education in Nigeria. It examined the education policy and politics in Nigeria as well as various policies put in place by various governments to get Nigerians educated with special reference to Quota System, Federal Character, and Educationally Disadvantaged States.

Lecture eleven discussed issues relating to population in the world at large and Nigeria in particular. It discusses the state of world population; the challenges posed by rapid increase in the world population, population policies in both developed and developing countries and Nigeria in particular. Lecture twelve deals with Labour Legislature in Nigeria. It examines the sources of the Nigeria labour law, who is a worker as well as the various ways of terminating employment contract and avenues available to a worker who is wrongful dismissed to seek redress. Lecture thirteen is devoted to discussing the issues relating to housing policy and administration in Nigeria. It also examines the concept of housing as well as the history of housing in the world and Nigeria in particular. It further discusses the housing policies in other countries and programme of housing development and administration in Nigeria. Lecture fourteen discussed the town planning policy in Nigeria. It reviews briefly the history of town planning in the world and the Ordinances of town planning in Nigeria. The last lecture which is Lecture fifteen discusses issues relating to urban transportation policy with special reference to Nigeria. It examines the concept of urban transportation, history of transportation, types of public transportation as well as development of public transportation policy in Nigeria.

Course outcomes



Outcomes

Upon completion of Social LegislationSOW206, you will be able to:








- fully describe and
-

Getting around this course manual

Margin icons

While working through this course manual you will notice the frequent use of margin icons. These icons serve to “signpost” a particular piece of text, a new task or change in activity; they have been included to help you to find your way around this course manual.

A complete icon set is shown below. We suggest that you familiarize yourself with the icons and their meaning before starting your study.

			
Activity	Assessment	Assignment	Case study
			
Discussion	Group Activity	Help	Outcomes
			
Note	Reflection	Reading	Study skills
			
Summary	Terminology	Time	Tip

Study Session 1

Meaning and History of Social Legislation

Introduction

In this lecture, we shall be discussing what is Social Legislation and how it emerged in other countries using a well developed country, the United States of America, as an example. It is only when this is done that we can appreciate the subject matter of this topic and as well as its scope. This shall be the major focus of this lecture.

Learning Outcomes



Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 1.1 discuss what is Social Legislation;
- explain how social Legislation developed in the United States; and
- explain the major focus and Scope of Social Legislation

1.1 Meaning of Social Legislation

The term **social legislation** encompasses policies, programmes and laws put in place by government relating to social security and the overall welfare of the populace. Attempts to define "social legislation" have been fruitless. The general conviction is that the word "social" is at the very least equivocal, since all law is essentially social, being a phenomenon of society. In this context, however, the word customarily carries the meaning of "protective". Initially, therefore, social legislation was defined as the body of laws enacted in order to protect those who are economically weak. Although this definition of the purpose of social legislation is acceptable from the historical viewpoint, it has to be acknowledged today that it is no longer adequate as a definition of social legislation. Both social security and labour law nowadays also cover, for example, those who might be termed economically strong. Furthermore, social security also applies to the self-employed and to the employed in the public sector.

Nonetheless, the term refers to laws that seek to promote the common good, generally, by protecting and assisting the weaker members of a society. Such legislation includes laws assisting the unemployed, the infirm, the disabled, and the elderly. In the developed countries like the United States of America, the social welfare system consists of hundreds

of state and federal programmes of two general types. Some programmes, including Social Security, Medicare, Unemployment Insurance, and Workers' Compensation, are called social insurance programmes because they are designed to protect citizens against hardship due to old age, unemployment, or injury. Because people receiving benefits from these programmes have generally contributed towards their benefits by paying payroll taxes during the years that they worked, these social insurance programmes are usually thought of as earned rewards for work. Programmes of a second type, often cumulatively called the Welfare System, provide government assistance to those already poor. These social programmes have maximum income requirements and include Aid to Families with Dependent Children, the Food Stamp Program, Medicare, and Supplemental Security Insurance.

Presently, as said earlier, social legislation is not the laws meant to cover only those who are economically weak; it also covers those who are economically strong. The scope of social legislation therefore goes beyond the above mentioned traditional areas; it includes laws that regulate human conducts and activities as they relate to poverty, housing, transportation, population, education, town planning and conservation of the environment. In a nutshell, social legislation refers to those laws made for the smooth and orderly conduct of human affairs in the society.

ITQ

Question

True/false? Social legislation are to laws that seek to promote the common good, generally, by protecting and assisting the weaker members of a society.

Feedback

While it is true that social legislation used to keep focus on economically weak members of the society, the scope of social legislation now encompasses also the economically viable members of the society.

Hint

At this stage, it will be helpful to review the conditions that gave rise to social legislation by using a more organized society, such as the United States of America, as an example.

1.2 Development of Social Legislation

Although the United States has had social welfare legislation since colonial times, its nature and extent has changed over the years. For much of U.S. history, Americans had preferred to rely on the marketplace to distribute goods and services equitably among the population. In cases where the market clearly failed to provide for categories of people such as widows, orphans, or the elderly, families were expected to take responsibility for the care of their members. When family members lacked the ability to do so, private, religious, or charitable organisations often played that role. Help from the town, county, or local government

was rarely provided, and even then only in those cases where the need arose due to conditions beyond the individual's control, such as sickness, old age, mental incapacity, or widowhood.

Nineteenth Century

For most of the 19th century, social problems too large for family members or private charities to handle fell under the jurisdiction of local government, consisting of the town, city, or country, rather than the more distant national government. Local government's power to pass social legislation was premised upon the power of the state to restrict individual liberty and property for the common welfare. Later, while local governments remained involved, states began to assume a share of the obligation of caring for some of their citizens. Beginning in the late 1820s, a number of states founded asylums for the insane. A series of investigations by the reformer, Dorothea Dix, played an important role in bringing the plight of the mentally ill to the attention of state legislatures. Later in the 19th century, state and local governments created other specialized institutions for dependent persons, such as homes for the blind or the mentally retarded.

While states and local communities had an interest in alleviating suffering in their jurisdictions, the U.S. legal system at this time limited the types of aid that could be offered. Natural-law concepts, such as social Darwinism and laissez-faire economics stressed that redistributing wealth from certain citizens in the form of taxes to other citizens in the form of government payments was inherently unfair. For this reason, the Supreme Court held it constitutionally valid for a state or local government to create a poorhouse but held it unconstitutional for a state to provide stipends to the blind or other needy citizens to allow them to live independently outside an institution. Such judicial reasoning discouraged state legislatures from considering many social welfare laws.

One important exception to the 19th century legal system's aversion to income redistribution took the form of government pensions granted to Union Civil War veterans. Between 1880 and 1910, the federal government devoted more than one-fourth of its expenditures to pensions for veterans and their dependents. The most important piece of benefits legislation was the Dependent Pension Act of 1890, which made pensions available to all who had served honourably in the war for ninety days or more.

20 Century: A Progressive Era

As the United States became more urbanised and industrialised during the 19th and early 20th centuries, it experienced new problems caused by rapid social, economic, and cultural changes. The rise of large cities and large-scale corporate capitalism strained the ability of local communities to deal with ever-increasing numbers of impoverished citizens or those with special needs. Despite changing social circumstances, many Americans continued to espouse the traditional idea that providing public assistance would make recipient groups dependent on the government. As the size of both the immigrant population and the industrial workforce exploded in urban areas, however, a group of reformers known as Progressives began to advocate that government, rather than private

charitable organizations, should offer the best hope for solving society's problems. Progressives lobbied for statutes to make industrial capitalism more humane. For example, the Sheppard-Towner Maternity and Infancy Protection Act of 1921 was revolutionary because it provided federal funds to match state funds for establishing maternal and child health services in each state. Under the act, full and part-time doctors and public health nurses were hired by state and local public-health agencies to train mothers and midwives in pre-natal and infant care and post-natal care for new mothers. Congress failed to renew the statute, however, and it expired in 1929.

New Deal Era

The period of greatest activity in the realm of social legislation occurred during President Franklin D. Roosevelt's New Deal. The Great Depression, which began when the stock market collapsed in 1929 and continued until the late 1930s, caused widespread poverty and economic hardship. Millions of Americans lost their jobs and businesses failed. There were no effective state or federal programmes to assist many Americans who needed help them. An elderly California physician, Dr. Francis E. Townsend, gained great fame by proposing a system of old-age pensions to be administered by the federal government. The Roosevelt administration responded to the popular pressure for such a programme, and in 1935, the U. S. Congress passed the Social Security Act, the centerpiece of the U.S. scheme of social welfare.

Before the Act's passage and its validation by the Supreme Court, such legislation ensuring the welfare of U.S. citizens would have been considered unconstitutional as an invasion of powers reserved to the states under the Tenth Amendment. However, in *Helvering v. Davis* (1937) and *Steward Machine Co. v. Davis* (1937), the Supreme Court held that the U. S. Congress had the authority to pass the act under its power to tax and spend for the general welfare of the United States. The Court countered the argument that the federal government was intruding into an area of state authority by stating that the Social Security Act was a necessary response to a nationwide problem that could not be solved without national measures.

The Social Security Act's various provisions ultimately included old-age insurance as well as disability and survivors' benefits and medicare coverage. Under the old age insurance provisions of the law, pensions were to be paid to workers who reached the age of sixty-five. The necessary funding for these pensions was to be raised through taxes on employers and employees rather than by general public revenues. The size of individual pensions was to reflect the amount of worker contributions so that those with higher wages received higher pensions. While assisting a great many people, the programme did not provide coverage to certain groups of workers with the greatest need. These groups included agricultural and domestic workers, many of whom were black people.

Title IV of the Act created the programme known as Aid to Dependent Children (ADC), which provided matching federal money to help states fund mothers' aid programmes. In administering the programme, states were given wide discretion in determining who was eligible for ADC and

how much they received. The result was that one state's benefits might be five or six times the amount of another state's. In 1939, the U. S. Congress passed a legislation making widows with children eligible for social security benefits, if their husbands had contributed to the system while working. Thus, widows increasingly tended to rely on social security while ADC gradually came to support more divorced, deserted, and never-married mothers. As a result, a certain amount of stigma has attached to ADC, which unlike social security, is limited to those with low incomes.

Post–New Deal Era

A second period of great legislative activity on the social welfare front occurred between World War II and the end of the 1970s. For example, in 1944, the U. S. Congress passed the GI Bill of Rights, which offered a comprehensive set of disability, employment, and educational benefits for returning veterans. Under this legislation, half of all U.S. veterans received benefits for further training or higher education. Federal Disability Insurance was added to the Social Security Act in 1956.

Early in his presidency, Lyndon B. Johnson put forward an ambitious agenda of social legislation termed the Great Society, which proved to be the most important expansion of the federal government in the United States since the Great Depression. Unlike the New Deal, which was a response to economic hard times, Great Society programmes were passed during a time of prosperity. During the tenure of Johnson, the U. S. Congress passed three major civil rights acts. The 1964 Act forbade job discrimination and the segregation of public accommodations; the 1965 Law guaranteed black voting rights; and the 1968 Act banned housing discrimination.

The best-known part of the Great Society, however, was a large group of initiatives instituted between 1964 and 1967, known as the War on Poverty. The Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 generated a number of new programmes, including Volunteers in Service to America (VISTA), which was intended to operate as a domestic version of the Peace Corps and sent middle-class young people on "missions" into poor neighborhoods, and Upward Bound, which assisted poor high-school students entering college. Other programmes included free legal services for the poor, Neighborhood Youth Corps, the Job Corps, and Head Start. These programmes were designed to fight poverty by providing training and educational opportunities to those who otherwise might not have them. A key element of these programmes was the idea of community action, or encouraging the poor to participate in designing and running the programmes intended to assist them.

In 1965, the U. S. Congress also added the Medicare programme to the existing provisions of the Social Security Act. This provision provides funds for medical care for the nation's elderly and its benefits are available to anyone over age sixty-five, regardless of need. (In 1964, the Food Stamp Act had begun to provide food vouchers for those with minimal income). In 1966, the government extended medical benefits to welfare recipients of all ages through the Medicaid programme. Also during the 1960s, the U. S. Congress passed legislation to provide significant federal aid to public education. The Elementary and

Secondary Education Act of 1965 offered financial assistance to underfunded public school districts throughout the country, while the Higher Education Act of the same year provided aid to needy college and university students.

When compared to most other countries, the extent of social welfare legislation in place in the United States is quite minimal. Nevertheless, such programmes have engendered considerable controversy. In the aftermath of the Great Society, few new or significant programmes have been implemented. With the election of Ronald Reagan as president in 1980, the federal government began to attempt to cut back on welfare benefits, relying on the theory that the problem of poverty is best addressed by encouraging the growth of private industry and private-sector jobs. In 1996, President Clinton, working together with a Republican Congress, signed into law the Personal Responsibility and Work Opportunity Reconciliation Act, or welfare reform law, which transformed the welfare system by raising recipients' work requirements and limiting the time period during which benefits are available.



In the history of social legislation, what is conservative about 19th century, and what is progressive about since 20th century till date?

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this Study Session, we discussed the parameters that constitutes social legislation. We also discussed how it has metamorphosed over time using the United States of America, as a case study.

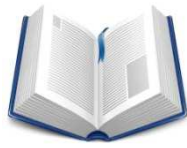
Assessment



Assignment

1. What is the focus and scope of Social Legislation?
2. Discuss briefly the development of social legislation in the United States?

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Study Session2

The Subject of Social Legislation: Laws

Introduction

In this lecture, discussion shall be on the concept of law and the role it has played in formulating social legislation. To do this effectively, it will be useful to understand what law is all about. We shall also consider the classification of law, functions of law as well as the features of law.

Learning Outcomes



Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 2.1 define and use correctly the term law.
- 2.2 explain how law is classified.
- 2.3 discuss functions of law.
- 2.4 point out the features of law.

2.1 Concept of Law

Law can be defined as a set of rules governing the behaviour and relationships of members of a society. It is promulgated and enforced by an appropriate authority. Law can also refer to the body of official rules and regulations, generally found in constitutions, legislation, judicial opinions and the like, that is used to govern a society and to control the behavior of its members. The nature and functions of law have varied throughout history. In modern societies, some authorised body, such as a legislature or a court, makes the law. It is backed by the coercive power of the state, which enforces the law by means of appropriate penalties or remedies.

From above discussion, we can regard law as the instrument by which society regulates the conduct and behaviour of members of that society. Therefore, owing to the important place of law in human society, law inheres a certain amount of definitional problem. However, if we strip law of all its references in the sciences and economics, law can then be reduced to a set of rules that addresses itself to regulating human behaviours in all areas, where these behaviours enjoy multiple probability recurrence, such as in business, family, on the street, the mass media, etc. In spite of this, however, there is an immense amount of conceptual entanglement when considering the meaning and nature of law. According to Alemika (1994), the law is a command, which obliges a persons or a group of persons to a course of conduct or a change in

behaviour. Law as a command must issue from a determinate person or group of persons backed by some sanction to enforce compliance.

Law has also been defined as the outcome of what judges do. The focus of this definition is the legal process. This implies that law is a body of principles emanating from the decision of specific cases otherwise called stare decisis or precedents.

The definition of law involves issues bordering on its sociality. In this case, law is seen as the nerve center, the bulwark of all the other environments. Law is the environment that seeks to legitimise and or engages in social engineering. Law is therefore a human instrument that operates in an environment that provides the legal basis for transactions among persons, real and abstract and encouraging as well as discouraging those conducts of business that will advance social progress and growth or hinder such an advance, as the case may be.

Law may also be defined in terms of its purpose. In this regard, we can define law as a body of rules or principles recognised and implied by the state in the administration of justice. McOliver and Ugiagbe (2003) have attempted to synthesize the purpose and functions of law. They see law as providing the following:

- 1) content, form, and direction, to the common will of the majority;
- 2) the legitimacy for actions of citizens; and
- 3) means of guiding and regulating in most part, the behaviour of others who are not indigenes, as/like a foreign investor who desires to do business in the environment of the guest - nation.
- 4) law helps to express, maintain and sustain the sovereignty of states, and by extension rights and duties of citizens given that each nation has its own laws pertaining to local business and investments from abroad.
- 5) law is an instrument of change, and "change" here only indicates the dynamism in the environment of business, which the effective manager must learn to respond to. Change could come in the area of improvement demanded; it could be in fiscal or monetary policies, or the activities of competitors in industry, or legal requirements for welfare schemes and insurance protection.

Hint

We will discuss in detail the functions of law in section 4 of this session, [linked here](#).



Tip

Law in modern societies has assumed a significant role as means of social control.

2.2 Features of Law

Before examining the different categories or classification of law, we will explain the meaning of the terms a law and the law as used in this text. A law refers to a particular Act of Parliament, a decree or edict in force while the law refers to the totality or body of the laws of a nation state or

organization. These laws include the various enactments, promulgation, judicial decisions and decree and other received English laws and even the customs and traditions of the people now entrenched in the legal system. The totality of these aforementioned laws refers to the laws of the state as the case may be. Some of the features or characteristics that distinguish law from other social phenomena are as follows:

- 1) **Law is a Command:** The law of modern states/nations is a command because all citizens and subjects are compelled as it were to obey it. The civil disobedience is another matter. On paper, the laws of the state are bound to be obeyed by the people. The state through the various agencies, assigns laws and departments ensure that the laws of the state are obeyed by the people. Unlike norms, values and beliefs system, mostly unwritten but which nonetheless control and modify people's conduct and behaviours, laws give no room for choices that is it is mandatory and binding on all to obey the law. Failure to do so usually attracts penalty as is the case of criminal law or liquidity for civil laws.
- 2) **Universality:** Law is in theory or nature universal but in practice it is usually not. The provisions of law are universal because its purposes or intentions are usually meant to affect the generality of the people without exception. For example, the law prohibiting an act means that anybody whether young or old, rich or poor is prohibited from committing such act and any offender will be treated equally or the same way by the law. However, the law of a given community/state in practice is usually not universal because some people are treated with levity and live above the law.
- 3) **Law Reflects the Needs of the Society:** The human society is a dynamic one. Thus, as changes occur from time to time, laws are made to address such pressing need(s) that changes bring about. The laws of a police state ruled by a despot, a communist state, a socialist, capitalist, or other, form of government or state going through turbulent times, are good examples. The laws in operation in these different nations usually reflect their individual desires, goals, aspirations and pressing needs. Whether such needs reflect the yearnings of the generality of the people, or the parochial and myopic, whims and caprices of forgeries, incomprehensible megalomania pimps and cohorts of sycophants, praise singers and even local and international allies, is immaterial here.
- 4) **Law is Dynamic:** Law, like any other social phenomenon, is dynamic. This dynamism usually reflects the changing needs of the society. As needs/development manifests, laws are enacted to deal with the changes brought about by such new developments. Some years ago, trafficking in human beings or drugs was unknown. Hence there was no law relating to drug or human trafficking; today, laws abound dealing with the evils of trafficking, child abuse and so on. As new laws are made, old or existing ones are modified to reflect the needs of the people. For example, existing immigration laws of many nations especially

the European and North America nations are changing to curb the influx of immigrants from poorer nations into their countries.

- 5) ***Laws are given by Legitimate Legal Political Authority:*** The term political here means a recognised and legitimate authority in the society, state and even organisation. Law is so called because there should be a known body authorised to perform such roles of making and enforcing laws in the society, state or organisation that makes them. In any formal organisation, there is a recognized group of people who wield power and authority. Any law such authority enacts or makes so long as such law is within the dictates of such legitimate and political authority and not injurious to the wills of the generality of the people or make them sub human in any way, is regarded as a legitimate law. Thus, a group of people no matter how powerful cannot arrogate to themselves the power to make laws for the society until such collection of people is backed by the mandate of the people or section of the society.

2.3 Classification of Law

Law can be classified in many ways. In brief, these are the following:

Substantive and Procedural law

Substantive law defines the rights and duties of persons, while procedural law defines and deals with the procedure for enforcing those rights.

Public Law

Public law concerns the relationships between a government and individuals. Because the Roman codes were almost entirely limited to the private area, public law is usually not codified. In civil law countries, separate administrative courts adjudicate claims and disputes between the various branches of government and citizens, and many lawyers specialise in public law. In France, Germany, and Italy, still other courts handle constitutional issues.

Private Law

This involves the various relationships that people have with one another, and the rules that determine their legal rights and duties among themselves. The area is concerned with rules and principles pertaining to private ownership and use of property, contracts between individuals, family relationship, and redress by way of compensation for harm inflicted on one person by another.

International Law

This refers to the legal process that concerns relations among nations. Belief and experience in some form of international law dates back to at least the days of the Roman Empire. Such law differs greatly from national legal system. No court has the authority or power to give judgement backed by coercive sanctions. The United Nations is one of the primary mechanisms that articulate and create international law.

Common Law

Common law is a term used to refer to the main body of the unwritten English law that evolved from the 12th century. The name comes from the idea that English medieval law, as administered by the courts of the realm reflected the “common” customs of the kingdom. This system of law prevails in Britain and in those countries, such as Canada, the United States and Nigeria that were originally colonised by the Great Britain.

Civil Law

The term applies to all legal proceedings (whether taking place in a civil law or a common law system) that are not criminal in nature. Under this definition, law regulating marriage, contracts, and payment for personal injury are examples of civil law. Civil law is typically contrasted with common law, a system that evolved in medieval England and that is the basis of law in most of the United Kingdom, Canada, the United States, and Nigeria.

Canon Law

This is the body of legislation of various Christian churches, dealing with matters of constitution or discipline. Although all religions have regulations, the term applies mainly to the formal systems of Roman Catholic, Orthodox, and Anglican communions. It is distinct from civil or secular law, but conflict can arise in areas of mutual concern (for example, marriage and divorce).

Sharia Laws

This is dominant in some Northern states in Nigeria. They are classified as customary laws and are administered in Sharia, Alkali, and Area Courts. Cases coming before them are those pertaining to the family, succession and inheritance, while their jurisdiction in criminal matters is limited.

Criminal Law

This is the branch of law that defines crimes, establishes punishments and regulates the investigation and prosecution of people accused of committing crime. Criminal law includes both substantive law and procedural law, which regulate the implementation and enforcement of substantive criminal law.

Natural Law

Natural Law, in moral philosophy, theology, law, and social theory, is a set of principles, based on what is assumed to be the permanent characteristics of human nature that can serve as a standard for evaluating conduct and civil laws. Natural law may be considered an ideal to which humanity aspires or a general fact, the way human beings usually act.

2.4 Functions of Law

Law serves a variety of purposes. Laws against crimes, for example, help to maintain a peaceful, orderly, relatively stable society. Courts

contribute to social stability by resolving disputes in a civilised fashion. Property and contract laws facilitate business activities and private planning. Laws limiting the powers of government help to provide some degree of freedom that would not otherwise be possible without those laws. Law has also been used as a mechanism for social change; for instance, at various times, laws have been passed to inhibit social discrimination and to improve the quality of individual life in matters of health, education, and welfare.

Are the purposes of laws as stated generally acknowledged by their framers, and obvious to the target population? While typically there may be a public consensus as to the literal intent and purpose of some criminal laws (even if the purposes are not always agreed to), there may be other less obvious functions of these laws as well. For other laws there may be little or no consensus on purpose at all. Not only do the manifest functions of laws require identification, so too do the variety of latent and indirect functions of it. These "by-product" may in fact have given rise to the passage of laws passage. For instance, while tax laws are universally regarded as means of raising revenue, the variety of other purposes pursued through such laws may be less obvious to those affected by them; although clearly intended by the sponsors of the laws. Their importance as mechanisms of social control - apart from revenue raising and spending - must be clearly acknowledged.

Tort law provides another interesting example of the indirect social control functions of law. Tort law has evolved into a multi-faceted instrument capable of pursuing simultaneously a variety of important although not immediately obvious social control goals. If early theorists of tort law did not discuss them, such social control functions of tort law are not viewed as unanticipated consequences of the purely private law of torts, but rather are considered a vital component of the conscious (although not publicly visible) development of the law itself. Such diverse governmental policies as crime control and workman's compensation have all had their roots in "private law" field of torts; and such questions as general deterrence, income distribution and industrial growth are now included in theoretical discussions of the "private" law of torts.

These features of tax and tort law are not, however, generally thought of by social scientists in terms of social control. By and large taxes are viewed as devices to raise revenue, and tort law, if thought at all, is viewed as a means by which private individuals can recover damages done them by others. But what may be regarded' as a latent, an inconsequential function for some may be manifest to others; and in modern societies, complex laws are likely to be adopted and supported precisely because they are capable of pursuing a variety of diverse purposes simultaneously. Because they are preoccupied with laws as commands, social-legal, scholars frequently do not cast their nets wide enough to identify these other kinds of laws or the multiplicity of functions of laws and, as a consequence, they often understand and ignore important efforts at social control, efforts which are all the more important because they go unrecognised by a broader public, are frequently of low visibility and are effectively depoliticised, matters for "specialist" and not for widespread public debate.

Social scientists naturally tend to focus on celebrated commands and direct orders of the highly visible policy-makers who are grappling with the glamorous issues of the day. However, much governmental policy making is institutionalised in positions of low visibility with partial and fragmented responsibility. This observation, which has repeatedly been made with respect to the importance of bureaucracies in modern societies, is particularly applicable to courts in common law countries where important policies are not only developed in a fragmented incremental way but are also effectively depoliticised. Efforts at social controls through law can range from explicit commands to the manipulation of field controls of entire populations.

The command approach envisions an ideal pattern of behaviour for every individual within a clearly designated class. Field controls, on the other hand, are designed to affect the behaviour of only a (usually small) portion within a target group by altering its field or environment so that some individual choices and behaviour will be altered. Such manipulations of the environment are analogous to raising and lowering prices to affect demand, consumption and substitution. This form of legal control is aimed at conditions and aggregates rather than specific individuals.

Other Functions of Law are:

Maintenance of Public Order: Public order is very important in every society and without the rule of law and the court system to enforce it, each of us would be free to push and bully our fellow citizens, and vice-versa. We need law to protect us from the anti-social behaviour of a few bullies, crooks, confidence tricksters and dangerous cranks. If we had no laws and no punishments, how many more harmless people would be robbed, swindled, murdered or raped?

Law Facilitates Co-operative Actions: This is most useful when it comes to business transactions based on the law of contract. In addition, a man living on his own on a desert island (if he can cope) can behave exactly as he likes. As soon as a second person arrives, however, law becomes necessary to make them go along together.

Law Communicates Standards: When law defines rights and responsibilities and backs up its definitions with the threat of coercion, it becomes a powerful agency of communication. Every act of legislation is at the same time an act of communication. Therefore, it is important that there be close co-ordination of legal purpose and legal administration. Fairness (meaning law) at a trial may not offset the effect on public opinion of brutal or even disrespectful conduct by police, at the time of arrest.

Conferring Legitimacy: Law moderates the struggle for power by providing criteria of legitimate succession and by saying who has a right to exercise what kind of power. The legitimate function of constitutional law is the clearest example, for it sets out the conditions for becoming a president or speaker of the house of parliament.

Upholding Right and Duties: In most human interaction, people have to accept the risk that others will not do what is expected of them. Being courteous, showing up for meetings, tending a neighbourly hand and many other expectations are important to orderly social life, but for the most part, they receive no legal recognition. Some expectations however are formally recognised and can be the basis of claims of right. Such a claim, if it stems from a person's status as a human being or constitutional right, for example, the right to a fair trial or to be secure in one's home,

Some experts believe the popular view of law overemphasizes its formal, coercive aspects. They point out that if a custom or norm is assured of judicial backing, it is, for practical purposes, law. On the other hand, a statute that is neither obeyed nor enforced is empty law. Social attitudes towards the formal laws are a significant part of the law in process. The role of law in England and the USA, for example, is somewhat different from its role in Nigeria and in other African nations. Respect for the processes of law is low at least outside matters of business and industry, as tradition looms much larger in everyday life. Resort to legal resolution of a dispute is truly a last resort, with conciliation being the mechanism that is preferred for social control.

Law is not Completely a Matter of Human Enactment: There is also a natural law. The best-known version of this view, that God's law is supreme, has had considerable influence in Nigeria and other Western societies. The civil rights movement in the United States, for example, was at least partially inspired by the belief in natural law. Such a belief seems implicit in the view that law should serve to promote human dignity, for instance, the enforcement of equal rights for all. Muslim societies also embrace a kind of natural law, which is closely linked to the religion of Islam.

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this Study Session, we explored the concept of law. In doing so, we examined the various definitions of law, the purpose, and functions of laws. We also discussed some features of law.

Assessment



Assignment

1. Explain the concept of law?
2. List and discuss how law is classified
3. What are the major functions of law?
4. Discuss the features of law.

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Study Session 3

Social Policy and Legislation in Nigeria

Introduction

We will be discussing social policy and legislation in Nigeria in this session. To start with, we will explore the roles of social development sector in national development in Nigeria. We will also examine how social work practices started in Nigeria.

Learning Outcomes



Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 3.1 define and use correctly the term: “social policy”.
- 3.2 explain the role of social development sector in national development.
- 3.3 outline the development of social welfare Nigeria.

3.1 Essence of Social Policy

Social policy refers to instrument for regulating the process of development and its effects on the people’s insights, knowledge, skills, attitudes and the appreciation of the techniques of utilising these for the improvement of individuals and their community. Government is aware of the need to clearly define the distinctive areas or roles in the scheme of national economic, social and human development.



Tip

The primary purpose of government policy is to formally and firmly establish the identity and status of “social development” as a distinct sector of public policy.

The myriad of hometown voluntary associations and their impressive track records of providing their communities with much needed infrastructure and amenities are testimonial to what a good social policy mechanism can do or has done. But civil society in Nigeria has not seen the reduction of the economic and social plight of the poor and disadvantaged, especially, the womenfolk. The Nigeria economy consists of a small urban capital-intensive sector, and a largely informal, agro-based traditional rural sector is made up of small-scale poor farmers, food processors, informal traders and other micro-entrepreneurs who account for about two-thirds of the population living in poverty.

During the 1980s there were organised efforts from both the public and the non-governmental organisation [NGOs] sector to expand development flows to the micro enterprises for investment. Therefore, government's social policy directives are in the following areas of 'the security and welfare of the people' as contained in chapter 11, section 14[2] [b] of the Nigeria constitution. The fundamental social objective which stands out clearly in the Nigeria constitution is the protection and advancement of the rights, security, dignity and welfare of the people. Therefore, understanding the relevant provision of the country's constitution, as imposing upon it obligation to enact and enforce appropriate legislations aimed at protecting certain specific human rights and to formulate and implement appropriate development programmes of action at rendering the communities more conducive to the protection of human rights and dignity, to the advancement of economic and social security and to strengthening of the capacity of all affected groups, especially that of vulnerable group to function effectively to maximize their contribution towards the attainment of national objective and to protect themselves against invidious neglect, exploitation and abuse, is crucial.

Meanwhile, government at both the local, state and federal levels has committed substantial resources to a wide range of programmes and projects and to the development of legislations intended to advance the pursuit of national objective in the social development sector. Among the relevant programmes and projects initiated are in the areas of youth, social welfare, community development, voluntary organisations, and local or rural communities. However, the Federal Government of Nigeria, after reviewing the past and present status of development programmes and their impact on, and potentials for, the community development sector, came to the conclusion that more work needed to be done to strengthen the policy of resource distribution and operations in order to maximise its contribution towards the attainment of the relevant national objectives. Accordingly, the government decided to be explicit through its policy document on the philosophy which guides her initiatives in the matter of social policy development. The policy is firmly rooted in the various cultures of our people, which inextricably bind the welfare of each Nigeria with the family and kinship group of its local community and of its wider national community.

It is also true that the welfare and capacity of any nation depend very much on the contributions of the people, as individuals and as groups, and their capacity and stimulation make the necessary contributions among other things, to social development. This, however, is a function of the extent to which society has prepared them for this role; on how effectively their efforts are organised and the extent they participate equitably in the benefits, which their contributions make available.

Thus, the policy is informed, as already mentioned above, by the humane aspirations embodied in our cultural heritage, our customs, values, norms and traditions as a people and by our political commitment to the observance, protection and advancement of our constitution as they relate to social objectives and fundamental human-rights.

3.2 Role of Social Development Sector in National Planning

The realization of the processes of social development sector can be strongly linked to macro-economic policy, on one hand, and the social problem situation on the other. In the past, development planning in Nigeria had been neglected, and this has caused many social problems, which have over the years become more and more chronic. Presently, the problems now pose a threat to the socio-political orientation and welfare of the people as well as security of the nation. These problems are in form of urban unemployment, urban congestion, rural stagnation, food shortage, hyper-inflation, gross economic inequalities, poverty, destitution, juvenile delinquency, low productivity and under-production in all sectors of the economy and insecurity among the people.

Therefore, government policy in this regard is geared towards macro-economic planning systems and processes. It aims to give adequate consideration to social and economic development in order to facilitate the entire development planning process. It also aims at developing policy decisions at all levels and in all sectors that would reflect a strong concern for the minimisation of social problems and the advancement of national social development objectives. In order to achieve these goals, government has identified the following broad policy objectives:

1. To strengthen social development sector at all levels.
2. Ensure direct participation in the overall development planning process by all stakeholders responsible for social development matters.
3. Also to ensure that budgetary proposals are given on social development programmes at all levels. This means that strengthening the sector in the planning process will substantially reduce the level of unemployment and improve the output and production level in all the sectors and expansion of both economic and employment opportunities, reducing the incidence and prevalence of poverty and improving the social and psychological well-being of all Nigerians.

3.3 A Survey of Social Work Practice in Nigeria

At this stage, it will be useful to examine how the practice of social work practice started in Nigeria. Social work practice formally started in Lagos in the 1940s during the Second World War when there were many homeless children and juveniles parading the streets. As a result of this, social welfare or services were designed to aid these homeless children to meet with the basic standard of life and health and also to create other personal and social relationships in order to develop them and promote their well-being for the benefit of the community.

The social service programmes developed comprised of:

1. Family and child welfare
2. Rehabilitation
3. Counseling and Corrections
4. Care of the elderly and probation and after-care services.

Therefore, government ensures that a conducive environment is created for the family to effectively operate in harmony towards the realisation of its goals. Government policy legislation is to guarantee the Nigerian family a conducive environment for the development of human personality. This include guaranteeing safety and security of her citizens, provision of shelter, access to employment opportunities, provision of recreational facilities, ensuring adequate healthcare, including planned parenthood, inculcating moral and cultural values and political consciousness among his people. Finally it will also ensure appropriate educational development and access to good living condition of its people.

The instrumental provisions of these policies by government are to vigorously pursue measures to strengthen the family as a social institution so that a healthy development can be provided for her citizens. Second, it enlightens the family in relation to child spacing, planning and management. It also combats values which tend to undermine the healthy development of the family; and finally, liaise with relevant authorities already handing social security to ensure its successful implementation.

As regards family and child care, we should recall that the family is the basic social unit of any nation since the social and economic development is built by members of family and also depends on the stability and well-being of the family. Therefore, the welfare and development of the nation depends greatly on the quality of the family unit considering the traditional and cultural values that enhance and strengthen the healthy and wholesome development of the Nigeria society.

Generally, the integration and cohesion of the family is the ultimate goal of this policy. Government now ensures a conducive atmosphere in which the family operates effectively and in harmony towards the realisation of its goals. The fundamental objectives of this policy are to guarantee the Nigeria family friendly environment for the total development of the human personality of the citizens, provision of shelter, ensuring access to food, inculcating moral and cultural values, ensuring adequate health including planned parenthood and also ensuring access to employment opportunities, etc.

Government policy ensures that the family as a social institution is strengthened so that it can provide the necessary context for healthy development and also promote family life education which includes child spacing, planning and combat cultural values which tend to undermine the healthy development of the family.



Tip

Social policy in Nigeria is informed by the humane aspirations embodied in our cultural heritage, our customs, values, norms and traditions as a people and by our political commitment to the observance, protection and advancement of our constitution as they relate to social objectives and fundamental human rights

Furthermore, as regards child welfare, the National Child Welfare policy in Nigeria flows from a deeply entrenched concern for the overall well being of the child. It flows from a conviction which is firmly rooted in the various cultures of our people that the welfare of the child is bound up with that of his parents, his family and kinship group to which he belongs and the wider community in which he lives and grows. It flows a lot from the realisation that the welfare and capacity of the nation tomorrow depend very much on the development experience and overall life quality of children today. This is informed by the faith of the Nigerian government and people in fundamental human rights and in the dignity and worth of the human as well as by the internationally accepted principles that mankind owes the child the best it has to give. This government policy is based on the indigenous cultures, traditions and philosophies of the Nigerian people regarding the values, rights, duties and development of the child and on the aspirations of the Nigerian society for the Nigerian child.

In formulating this policy, the overall rights of the Nigerian child must equal the responsibilities of childhood and of later adult life in Nigeria and in the world at large. The greatest emphasis of the policy is the creation and maintenance of an environment conducive to the healthy growth and development of the child.

For the purpose of clarity of this policy, a child can be defined as any person who is twelve years and below (Federal Ministry of Health, 1986). The significant objectives of the provision of this policy are to guarantee for the Nigerian child adequate environment and opportunities for the total development of his personality, encourage the development of his capacity for coping with the challenges of living and ensure a satisfactory overall life quality thus enabling him make maximum contribution towards the development and well-being of her country.

Some specific objectives of the National Child Welfare policy are as follows:-

1. To ensure survival and subsequent healthy growth and development of all children.
2. The enhancement of the health status of the Nigerian child and their mothers through measures to control causes of High Child Death Rate (HCDR) and Maternal Mortality Rate (MMR).
3. The elimination or reduction of the existing gap between children in urban and rural areas or between those of the rich and poor families in respect of access to facilities for child health care.
4. To minimise the incidence of malnutrition amongst the Nigerian child and their mothers.
5. Adopting measures to ensure effective education of the Nigerian child at all levels including the pre-school child.
6. Facilitating the internalisation of positive societal values through appropriate early socialisation.
7. Ensuring that every Nigerian child grows up in a social and cultural situation that is conducive to the healthy development of the total personality and which provides adequate opportunity to participate in social and cultural activities.

8. Promotion and support of necessary family planning programmes and facilities, enhancement of the maternal security of the family and strengthening of family welfare services.
9. Ensuring that every handicapped child has adequate opportunity to develop his talents to the maximum and to fully achieve his potentials.
10. Providing special education and vocational training opportunities and programmes in order to achieve full realisation of their potentialities.
11. Minimising the incidence of the various forms of child abuse prevalent in the society with a view to eventually eliminating them. Child abuse in the context of this policy is a condition in which a child's health, physical, moral and emotional well-being are endangered by acts of a person or persons.
12. Minimising the incidence of the various forms of child neglect which, in the context of this policy, is defined as any act of omission or commission either by parent or state which deprives a child of the basic necessities of life, such as care, love, warmth, attention, food, shelter, clothing, education, etc.
13. Ensuring that fostered and adopted children in all parts of the country are protected and given necessary care, attention and emotional support, and that a satisfactory environment is provided for their healthy development.
14. Minimising the incidence of teenage pregnancy.
15. Adopting appropriate measures to reduce the phenomenon of child marriage.
16. Ensuring that multiple births are given opportunities for survival and growth.
17. Eliminating those aspects of cultural beliefs and practices, which encourage child marriages.

Study Session Summary



Summary

We have discussed what social policy and legislation are all about. We also discussed the roles of social development sector in national development by focusing on how it relates to the family and child welfare.

Assessment



1. What do you understand by Social Policy?
2. What are the roles of social development sector in national development?
3. Trace how social welfare developed in Nigeria

Assignment

4. Explain Nigerian social policy on family and child welfare.

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Study Session 4

Structure and Management of Social Development Sector in Nigeria

Introduction

In this Study Session, we shall discuss structure and different levels of management of social development sector in Nigeria. To do this we shall start by identifying some reasons why social development sector has not impacted positively on Nigerians over the years. In response to these problems of the social development sector, we shall consider the measures government has adopted to address the problems. We shall also examine the various responsibilities of each level towards effective management of social development sector

Learning Outcomes



Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 4.1 discuss the reasons responsible for limitation of the effectiveness and impact of the social development sector.
- 4.2 explain how revamp of agencies can aid social development.

4.1 A Review of Nigeria's Social Development Sector

In the past, a lot of reasons had been advanced on the limitation of the effectiveness and impact of the social development sector. Some of these reasons given were:

1. Lack of basic planning strategy of operation.
2. Uncertainties surrounding the delegation of responsibilities, especially, between and within levels of government, professionals, as well as public and private sectors.
3. Lack of established principles and procedures for the effective development of programme initiatives.
4. Inadequate funding and inefficient resource management.
5. Problems of staff management and development.
6. Problems in the area of legislation.

7. Lack of appropriate research and data base for effective planning and decision-making.
8. Lack of awareness as to the meaning and the importance of social development by the government, who are the policy makers.

From the above reasons, the basic strategy of operation that the government provides is to minimise the extent to which these reasons continue to impede the effectiveness of the sector in future. The following basic strategies guiding the organisation of the sector programmes and activities include:

1. Decentralisation of programmes and giving a prominent role to the state and the local governments in the formulation and planning on how to deliver direct services to the people.
2. There should be emphasis on the community-based approach to development and full utilisation of available resources in the community.
3. Attention on developmental and preventive programmes of the community choice and needs.
4. Priority to the implementation of programmes for the benefit of society's most disadvantaged and vulnerable groups, most especially, the poor, youth, rural women, less privileged ones and destitutes.
5. The use of project monitoring and evaluation system in order to determine the impact of the project on the people and the management process.
6. Efficient and effective distribution of resources between programmes and administrative costs.

4.2 Attempted Revamp of Nigeria's Social Development Agencies

In order to ensure that social development agencies, especially those in the public sector are effective, government then decided to adopt the distribution of role and responsibilities into the following:

Role of Federal Government

The Federal Government in Nigeria is responsible for establishing the policy structure, coordination and formulation of the overall national policy, and review such periodically in consonance with relevant national legislative policy.

Second, it is also the responsibility of the Federal Government to monitor and coordinate state and inter-governmental policies and programmes and provide necessary technical advice in area of development programmes, or project selection. It is the Federal Government that also mobilises resources in support and implementation of programmes or projects at national, state and local levels. This is done by organising and conducting staff training to strengthen the operational capacity of relevant personnel at all levels.

Finally, the Federal Government is also responsible for the management of international programmes and relations, funding and conducting of

research relevant for planning process for effective and efficient discharge of projects or programmes for the country.

Role of State and Local Governments

Generally, state governments involve their local governments in the planning and implementation of social development programmes and delegates to the local governments the implementation of all such programmes. But for efficient and effective formulation and implementation of programmes at grassroots level, inter-ministerial cooperation is required, and also because of the problems of operations, coordination and organisational stability in the social development, functions and programmes were wholly administered by Social Development, Youth and Sports at the State level and Department of Social Development, Youth and Sports at the local government level. These ministries are charged with the administration of social development programmes or project at each level.

Role of Private Sector

Government acknowledges the complementary role, which the private sector, such as organised business sector, voluntary organisations and non-governmental organizations play in the delivery and funding of social development programmes, especially in the areas of social welfare and community development. The cooperation of these organisations is to enhance and impact heavily on the quality of life of all affected citizens. As a result, government now establishes appropriate policy guidelines and institutional arrangement to ensure that all stakeholders involved are making adequate contributions towards the advancement of national objectives, and ensure that such contributions are judiciously committed to and managed.

Role of Local Community

Government also recognises the need to involve local community to fully participate in the organisation of social development programmes in order to tap its maximum contribution and have sense of belonging, especially, in areas of policy that emphasizes community-based approach. It is the responsibility of both the state and local government to ensure full participation of the citizens in the planning, formulation and implementation process of social development programmes.

Role of Mass Media

The crucial role of communication in the social development process cannot be over-emphasized. Appropriate communication system strengthens the relationship organisations or agencies. Similarly, communication strategists and social psychologists should be encouraged to develop appropriate scientifically based strategies for the modification of attitudes and behaviours of the people towards social campaign programmes. Also, appropriate steps should also be taken to establish effective channels for consulting affected targeted community groups and enlightening them to appreciate the importance of the projects coming to them.

In conclusion, considering the discussion above the federal government saw the need to clarify the nature and status of legislations relevant to issues of social development at all levels, especially, the relationship between the federal and the state legislations. Therefore, federal government decided to establish the national legal framework for social development activities. So, within the structure of obligations set by federal laws, state and local governments, are entitled to establish legislations and procedures, which reflect the peculiarities of their own social and cultural environments, and which facilitate the effective implementation of social development programmes, provided that such legislations and procedures are not in conflict with the fundamental principles, which the federal laws stipulated. As a result of this, the Federal Ministry of Social Development, Youth and Sport should consult the Federal Ministry of Justice and conduct periodic assessment of social development legislations at state and local government levels. The Federal Ministry of Social Development, Youths and Sports should take appropriate steps to correct any anomalies that may be found.

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this Study Session, we identified some factors that limited the positive impact of social development sector in Nigeria. In order to correct by government I discussed the structure and different levels of management put in place by the government to address the problem. I also examined the various roles of federal, state, local community and mass media in this regard. Based on this, I also mentioned that within the structure of obligations set by federal laws, state and local government are entitled to establish legislations and procedures which reflect the peculiarity of their own social and cultural environments and which facilitate the effective implementation of social development programmes, provided that such legislations and procedures are not in conflict with the fundamental principles which federal laws stipulated.

Assessment



Assignment

1. Highlight the reasons responsible for the limitation of effectiveness and impact of the social development sector in Nigeria?
2. How can the social sector be developed?

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Study Session 5

The Problem of Poverty and to Social Welfare

Introduction

In this Study Session, we shall discuss poverty. To do this extent, it will be appropriate to examine its types, how it can be measured, what are its various causes as well as its effects of poverty on the people.

Learning Outcomes



Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 5.1 define and use correctly the term poverty.
- 5.2 differentiate between absolute and relative poverty.
- 5.3 discuss poverty from a global and historical perspective.
- 5.4 explain how poverty can be measured.
- 5.5 highlight causes of poverty.
- 5.6 discuss the various effects of poverty.

5.1 Meaning of Poverty

Various definitions of the concept of **poverty** have been advanced. One can define it as a condition in which the basic needs of human beings (shelter, food, and clothing) are grossly lacking. We can also define it as the condition of having insufficient resources or income in its most extreme form. Thus, poverty is a lack of basic human needs. Such as adequate and nutritious food, clothing, housing, clean water, and health services. Extreme poverty can cause terrible suffering and death, and even modest levels of poverty can prevent people from realising many of their desires. Over one-fifth of the world's population was living in extreme poverty in 1995, of which around 70% were women. Nearly 13.5 million children under five years die each year from poverty-related illnesses (measles, diarrhea, malaria, pneumonia, and malnutrition). In one of its annual report, the UN Children's Fund (UNICEF) said that 600 million children continue to live in poverty. There are different definitions of the standard of living considered to be the minimum adequate level (known as the poverty level). The European Union (EU) definition of poverty is an income of less than half the EU average (£150 a week in 1993). By this definition, there were 50 million poor in the EU in 1993.

Despite the above, it is on record that the world's poorest people- many of whom live in developing areas of Africa Asia, Latin America, and

Eastern Europe - struggle daily for food, shelter, and other necessities. They often suffer from severe malnutrition, epidemic disease outbreaks, famine, and war. In wealthier countries – such as the United States, Canada, Japan, and those in the Western World, the effects of poverty may include poor nutrition, mental illness, drug dependence, crime, and high rates of disease.

5.2 Types of Poverty

At this stage, it is necessary to differentiate between absolute and relative poverty. **Extreme poverty**, which threatens people or lives, is also known as destitution or absolute poverty. In other words, absolute poverty refers to where people lack the necessities of life such as food, clothing, and shelter. Absolute poverty measures the number of people living below a certain income threshold or the number of households unable to afford certain basic goods and services. In many countries, absolute poverty is common and persistent, being reflected in poor nutrition, short life expectancy, and high levels of infant mortality. It may result from a country's complete lack of resources, or from unequal distribution of wealth.

On the other hand, **relative poverty** is the condition of having fewer resources or less income than others within a society or country, or compared to worldwide averages. We can also define it as the inability of a citizen to participate fully in economic terms in the society in which he or she lives. Relative poverty measures the extent to which a household's financial resources fall below an average income threshold for the economy. Although living standards and real incomes have grown because of higher employment and sustained economic growth over recent years, the gains in income and wealth have been unevenly distributed across the population.

5.3 History of Poverty

Poverty has been a concern in societies even before the beginning of recorded history. According to sociologists and anthropologists, social stratification, that is, the division of a society into a hierarchy of wealth, power, and status, was a defining characteristic of the earliest civilizations, including those of ancient Egypt, Sumter in the Middle East, and the Indus Valley of what is now known as India. The rulers and other powerful or wealthy members of these civilisations frequently mistreated the poor, sometimes subjecting them to hard labor or enslaving them.

Babylonian and Talmudic, writings in the ancient era and early Christian writings entreated people with resources and good fortune to relate to the poor with compassion. As the powerful nations of Western civilisation became established, they codified relationships between the poor and the non-poor into law, as was done in the ancient Babylonia. The present-day welfare systems of the United Kingdom, the United States, and Canada evolved from a 17th -century British legal act known commonly as the Poor Laws.

The rise of civilizations also led to stratification among nations, powerful and wealthy nations built empires by using the labor and resources of less powerful nations. This dynamism took on a new form in the era of colonialism. Through two colonial periods—from the 15th century to the early 19th century and from the early 19th century to the mid-20th century – countries in Western Europe, and later the United States and Japan, laid claims to territories, created colonies and new countries in Asia, Africa, and the Americas. These were areas where people still lived directly off the land and where natural resources were plentiful. Colonisers variously sought to acquire new resources and productive land, to spread religion, to find religious freedom, and to gain strategic positions against rival nations in political and military confrontations.

During the first period of colonialism, several western European countries – led by Portugal, the Netherlands, Spain, France, and in used their colonial territories to provide themselves with goods for consumption and trade. In the late 18th century, the Industrial Revolution brought mechanised production to many nations and ushered in a second period of colonialism. Industrialisation began in Britain and soon spread to North America, much of Western Europe, and some Pacific nations, such as Japan. Industrialised countries could produce much larger quantities of goods and resources than had previously been possible. To achieve this level of production, they relied on colonies to provide raw materials for building and powering machines and for supplying their factories. The industrialised countries and many of their peoples experienced increases in wealth and ease of access to essential resources, including clothing, building materials, and staple foods.

The colonies in Africa, South and East Asia, and what is now known as Latin America did not share in these gains. Often, the resources of the colonies were exploited by the colonising countries, especially geographically smaller ones, such as Britain and the Netherlands, to supply raw materials such as metal ores for smelting or sugarcane for the production of rum. In the colonies, the production of food and raw materials for manufacturing diverted indigenous peoples from doing subsistence work, such as gardening or tending livestock. Others were simply displaced from their land. Native Africans, Asians, and Americans, who had been self-sufficient as farmers, herders, or hunter-gatherers, now became dependent, for the first time, on outsiders for their basic needs, and many became poor. An exception to this pattern occurred in two of the world's largest countries, Russia and China. These countries used primarily their own hinterlands to obtain resources.

In other cases, colonies were centers of trade in slaves. Many European nations, including Portugal, Britain, Spain, France, the Netherlands, and Denmark, set up outposts in West Africa from which they shipped slaves to the colonies of the Americas and the Caribbean. These countries also used slaves for free labour in their own lands. Slaves suffered a total loss of home, land, and livelihood.

The economies of the former colonies in Africa, Asia, and Latin America began to change only in the mid-20th century, when they gained political independence. Most former colonies came to be known as developing countries world or, collectively, as the Third World. The Third World is

home to the world's poorest people, and Nigeria accounts for at least half the entire population of Africa. Consequently, it may actually be home to about half the world's poorest people. The countries of Eastern Europe—which were formerly part of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) and the Communist bloc— and the People's Republic of China, are sometimes referred to as the Second World. These countries have vast rural territories and a legacy of state-owned property, facilities, and equipment (as for farming) from the years of communist rule. They have become industrialized but many still have high levels of poverty. The former colonising countries, which are highly industrialised and post-industrial (service –and information-based) economies, have become known generally as developed countries, world or the First World.

5.4 Measuring Poverty

How people and institutions portray and try to cope with poverty depends to a considerable extent on how poverty is measured. The differences between relative poverty (having less than others) and absolute poverty (not having enough to survive) are great. However, there is a wide variety of options for measuring wealth and well-being and for establishing lines that separate the poor from the nonpoor. Economists have traditionally chosen income as the basis for measuring and defining poverty, but even that choice allows for a multitude of options. While no one measure is necessarily correct, experts argue that some are better than others.

5.4.1 International Measurements

In international economics, such as in statistics kept by the United Nations (UN), the measure of a country's wealth is generally based on its gross domestic product (GDP). GDP measures the aggregate yearly monetary income of all of a country's people and businesses. For the purpose of figuring poverty levels, GDP figures are usually calculated as GDP (sometimes referred to as income) per capita. If two countries have the same aggregate GDP, the one with a smaller population will have a higher GDP per capita. In other words, each person in the smaller country has a greater share of the total national income.

In the 1990s, developed countries typically enjoyed average per capita yearly incomes in excess of \$15,000 and often \$20,000. At the other extreme, the poorest countries often had per capita yearly incomes substantially under \$1000. According to one figure, for example the per capita income in Mozambique, a country in Southeastern Africa and one of the world's poorest countries, was about \$100 in 1996. While people with such low incomes might be able to produce or obtain some food and other basic needs, they generally have difficulty providing for themselves.

Levels of poverty also depend on how income and resources are distributed. Countries with high GDPs can have low levels of poverty if people have relatively equal amounts of income and resources, such as in Scandinavia. On the other hand, countries with equally high GDPs will have higher poverty rates if a few people have far more income and resources than the rest. The United States is such a country.

5.5 Causes of Poverty

The reasons for poverty are clear. Some people believe that poverty results from a lack of adequate resources on a global level - resources such as land, and building materials that are necessary for the well-being or survival of the world's people. Others see poverty as an effect of uneven distribution of resources around the world on an international or even regional scale. This second line of reasoning helps explain why many people have much more than they need to live in comfort, while many others do not have enough resources to live.

Poverty has many causes; some of them very basic. Some experts suggest, for instance, that the world has too many people, too few jobs and not enough food. But these basic causes are complex and not easily eradicated. In most cases, the causes and effects of poverty interact, in the sense that, what makes people poor also creates conditions that keep them poor. Primary determinants of poverty include:

5.5.1 Overpopulation

Overpopulation, the situation of having large numbers of people with too few resources and too little space, is closely associated with poverty. It can result from high population density (the ratio of people to land area, usually expressed as numbers of persons per square kilometer or square mile) or from low amounts of resources, or from both. Excessively high population densities put stress on available resources. Only a certain number depends on how much food and other resources the land can provide. In countries where people live primarily by means of simple farming, gardening, herding, hunting, and gathering, even large areas of land can only support small numbers of people because these labour – intensive subsistence activities produce only small amounts of food.

In developed countries such as the United States, Japan, and the countries of Western Europe, overpopulation generally is not considered a major cause of poverty. These countries produce large quantities of food through mechanised farming, which depends on commercial fertilizers, large-scale irrigation, and agricultural machinery. This form of production provides enough food to support the high densities of people in metropolitan areas.

A country's level of poverty can depend greatly on its mix of population density and agricultural productivity. Bangladesh, for example, has one of the world's highest population densities, with more than 950 persons per sq km (2500 persons per sq mi). A large majority of the people of Bangladesh engages in low-productivity manual farming, and this contributes to the country's extremely high level of poverty. Some of the smaller countries in Western Europe, such as the Netherlands and Belgium, have high population densities as well. These countries practice mechanised farming and they are also involved in high-tech industries. Therefore they have high standards of living.

At the other end of the spectrum, many countries in sub-Saharan Africa have population densities of less than 30 persons per sq km (80 persons

per sq mi). Many people in these countries practice manual subsistence farming; these countries also have infertile land and lack the economic resources and technology to boost productivity. As a consequence, these nations are very poor. The United States has both relatively low population density and high agricultural productivity; it is one of the world's wealthiest nations in the world. The reverse is the case in Nigeria which has a relatively high population density and a very low agricultural productivity. For this reason, it is considered one of the world's populated nations.

High birth rates contribute to overpopulation in many developed countries. This problem is especially serious in Nigeria where children are seen as assets to many poor families because they provide labour for farming. Cultural norms in traditionally rural societies could sanction the value of large families. Also, the Nigerian government provides little or no support, financial or political, for families even people who wish to keep their families small have difficult so. For all these reasons, Nigeria, as with other developing countries, have high rates of population growth.

Most developed countries provide considerable political and financial support for family planning. People tend to limit the number of children they have because of the availability of this support. Cultural norms in these countries also tend to affirm the ideal of small family size.

5.5.2 Unequal Distribution of Resources in the World Economy

Many experts agree that the legacy of colonialism accounts for much of the unequal distribution of resources in the world economy. In many developing countries, the problems of poverty are massive and pervasive. In recent decades, most of these countries have tried to develop their economies with industry and technology with varying levels of success. Some nations have become fairly wealthy, including the Republic of Indonesia, Malaysia, Singapore, South Korea, and Thailand. However, many developing countries, lack essential raw materials and the knowledge and skills gained through formal education and training. They also often lack the infrastructure provided by, for example, transportation systems and power-generating facilities. Because these things are necessary for the development of industry, developing countries generally must rely on trading with developed countries for manufactured goods, but they cannot afford much.

Some social scientists argue that wealthier developed countries continue to practice a form of colonialism, known as neo-colonialism. The affluence of these countries is based to a large extent on favorable trade with the developing world. Developed countries have been able to get inexpensive natural resources from poorer countries in Asia, Africa, and Latin America, including oil for power, ores and minerals for manufacturing durable goods, and manufactured goods made by low-wage workers in factors operated by multinational corporations. This practice contributes to the dependency of poorer countries while not raising their standards of living.

5.5.3 Low Standards of Living and High Cost of Living

Because people in developed nations may have more wealth and resources than those in developing countries, their standard of living is also generally higher. Thus, people who have what would be considered adequate wealth and resources in developing countries may be considered poor in developed countries. People in the United States, for example, may expect to make an average of about \$ 30,000 each year. They also probably expect to rent an apartment or own a house with electricity and running water, to be able to afford to eat and dress well, and to receive quality health care. In addition, many people aspire to afford discretionary expenses- that is, purchases inessentials to survival, such as cars, higher-priced foods, and entertainment.

In contrast, people in developing countries such as Nigeria may consider themselves to be doing well if they have productive gardens, some livestock, and a house of thatch or mud-bricks. In rural areas, people may be accustomed to not having plumbing, electricity, or formal health care. By the standards of developed countries, such living conditions are considered hallmarks of poverty.

Developed countries also tend to have a high cost of living. Even the most basic lifestyle in these countries, with few or no luxuries, can be relatively expensive. Most people in the United States, Canada, Japan, Australia, Western European nations, and other developed countries cannot obtain adequate food, clothing, and shelter without ample amounts of money. In some areas, even people with jobs that pay the legal minimum wage may not be able to cover their basic expense. People who cannot find or maintain well-paying jobs often have no spare income for discretionary or emergency expenses, and many rely on government welfare payments to survive. The cost of living in Nigeria is thought to be on the increase. In fact, by comparable modern cost of living beyond the reach of the common man. Most Nigerians cannot afford decent accommodation, adequate food, and even clothing. Only the wealthy can afford the luxury of recreation or other out-door activities. Not many Nigerians now visit movies or can even afford the niceties of hosting friends and families – activities which at some point in their history were highly valued.

5.5.4 Inadequate Education and Employment Opportunities

Illiteracy and lack of education are common in poor countries. Governments of developing countries such as Nigeria often cannot afford to provide for good public schools, especially, in rural areas. Without education, most people cannot find income-generating work. Poor people also often forego schooling in order to concentrate on making a minimal living. In addition, developing countries tend to have few employment opportunities, especially, for women. As a result, people may see little reason to go to school.

Even in developed countries, unemployment rates may be high. When people do not have work, they do not make any money; thus, high unemployment leads to high levels of poverty. Availability of employment also tends to fluctuate, creating periods of high joblessness. Countries such as Japan, the Republic of Korea, Singapore, Switzerland, and Luxembourg have managed at times to keep unemployment as low as 2 percent. Unemployment figures during the 1990s in the United States and most of Europe, on the other hand, ranged from about 5 percent to more than 20 percent. In countries with high populations, unemployment levels of only a few percentage points mean that millions of working – age people cannot find work and earn an adequate income. Because unemployment figures indicate only the number of people eligible to work who have no jobs but are seeking employment, such figures are not necessarily an accurate indicator of the number of people living in poverty. Other people may not be able to find enough work or may earn wages too low to support themselves.

5.5.5 Environmental Degradation

In many parts of the world, environmental degradation-the deterioration of the natural environment, including the atmosphere, bodies of water, soil, and forests-is an important cause of poverty. Environmental problems have led to shortages of food, clean water, materials for shelter, and other essential resources. As forests, land, air, and water are degraded, people who live directly off these natural resources suffer most from the effects. People in developed countries, on the other hand, have technologies and conveniences such as air and water filters, refined fuels, and industrially produced and stored foods to buffer themselves from the negative effects of environmental degradation.

Global environmental degradation may result from a variety of factors, including overpopulation and the resulting overuse of land and other resources. Intensive farming, for instance, depletes soil fertility, and it thus decreases crop yields. Environmental degradation also results from pollution. Polluting industries include mining, power generation, and chemical production. Other major sources of environmental pollution include automobiles and agricultural fertilisers.

In Nigeria, deforestation has had particularly devastating environmental effects. Many rural people, particularly in the southern tropical regions, depend on forests as a source of food and other resources, and deforestation damages or eliminates these supplies. Forests also absorb many pollutants and water from extended rains; without forests, pollution increases and massive flooding further decreases the usability of the deforested areas.

5.5.6 Certain Economic and Demographic Trends

Poverty in many developed countries can also be linked to economic trends. In the 1950s and 1960s, for example, most people in the United States experienced strong income growth. Taking inflation into account, average family income almost doubled during this period. However, since

the early 1970s typical incomes, adjusted for inflation, have not grown much while the cost of living has increased. In particular, many young and less-educated people have suffered from this economic shift, as they cannot find jobs that pay enough to support themselves. In Nigeria, the rate of inflation has increased. All the efforts being made by the state to stem this rising trend has not been successful. Instead of reducing inflation and poverty, the policies have increased inflation and poverty and created untold hardships for the people. The Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) introduced in 1985 by the General Babangida administration to tackle the problem of inflation by making certain economic adjustments, failed woefully as it led to the creation of a sizeable population of desperately poor people. Till date, attempts at controlling poverty even with the introduction of various programmes have remained nothing more than window dressing programmes that increase the capital base of the rich and powerful while pushing the poor majority further to the brink of economic suffocation.

Changes in labour markets in developed countries have also contributed to increased poverty levels. For instance, the number of relatively high-paying manufacturing jobs has declined, while the demand for workers in service- and technology-related industries has increased. Historically, people have learned the skills required for jobs that involve manual labour, such as those in manufacturing, either on the job or through easily accessible school vocational programmes. As these jobs are replaced by service-and technology-related jobs-jobs that usually require skills taught at the college level-people who cannot afford a college education find it increasingly difficult to obtain well-paying work.

Some researchers also cited demographic shifts (changes in the makeup of populations) as contributing to increases in overall poverty. In particular, demographic shifts have led to increases in poverty among children. For instance, typical family structures in Nigeria have changed significantly, leading to an increase in single-parent families, and this tends to make those involved poorer. Single-parent families with children have a much more difficult time escaping poverty than do two-parent families in which adults can divide and share childcare and work duties.

5.5.7 Individual Responsibility and Welfare Dependency

There are differing beliefs about individual responsibility for poverty. In ancient times, poverty was regarded as the manifestation of vices and sins. All the people were thought to enjoy equal opportunity to acquire economic security by their own labour, and those who did not attain such security were seen as morally flawed. Therefore, poverty was a strong proof of moral bankruptcy. The poor were treated accordingly. However, in modern times poverty and sins has been theoretically delinked. There is now a general reluctance to ascribe the misery of the poor to the laws of providence. Some people believe that poverty is a symptom of societal structure and that some people will always be poor. These people feel that poverty is beyond the control of those who experience it. However, some other people feel that the poor intentionally behave in ways that cause or perpetuate their poverty. These people have formulated a cultural theory

of poverty, which asserts that the poor lack sufficient desire and motivation to escape poverty. The theory states that the goal of economic security is of lesser importance in the value matrix of the poor. By this hypothesis, the poor are poor only because their “culture” prevents them from taking advantage of opportunities to escape poverty. As it has been argued, if the poor are culturally bound to poverty, then the task of eliminating poverty becomes increasingly more difficult and time consuming. Government policy and private efforts must, therefore, be directed at changing attitudes and environments, rather than simply towards changing opportunities. The culture of poverty thesis applies strongly to Nigeria and as such cannot be dismissed lightly.

In addition, many people in developed countries blame cycles of poverty, or the tendency for the poor to remain poor, on overly generous welfare programmes. Supporters of this position, including some politicians, argue against government spending and initiatives to help the poor. They believe that these programmes provide incentives for people to stay poor in order to continue receiving payments and other support. This argument also suggests that welfare discourages work and marriage. In the United State and other developed countries, getting a job results in reduced welfare support; the same is true when a single parent gets married. However, cash welfare benefits for the typical poor U. S. family with children fell in value by half between the early 1970s and the mid-1990s, taking inflation into account. Such benefits may be too meager to motivate people to stay on welfare or to avoid work or marriage.

5.6 Effects of Poverty

Poverty has wide-ranging and often devastating effects. Many of its effects, such as poor nutrition and physical health problems, result directly from having too little income or too few resources. As a result of poor nutrition and health problems, infant mortality rates among the poor are higher than average, and life expectancies are lower than average. Other effects of poverty may include infectious diseases, mental illness, and drug dependence. Some effects of poverty are not as easily understood. For example, studies have linked poverty to crime, but by no means are all poor people also criminals. In many cases, the primary effects of poverty lead to other problems. Extended hunger and lack of employment, for instance, may lead to depression, which may sometimes contribute to criminal behaviour.

5.6.1 Malnutrition and Starvation

Malnutrition is one of the most common effects of poverty. In developing countries, the poorest people cannot afford to eat nutritious foods to obtain adequate calories to develop or maintain their appropriate body weight. Poor children often suffer the most, especially from a deficiency known as protein-energy malnutrition. In these cases, children lack protein in their diets, especially from an insufficient amount of mother’s milk. Protein-energy malnutrition leads to a variety of problems, including gastrointestinal disorders, stunted growth, poor mental development, and high rates of infection. Prolonged malnutrition can lead

to starvation, a condition in which the body's tissues and organs deteriorate. Long-term starvation almost always results in death.

In addition to caloric malnutrition, most poor children and adults suffer from severe vitamin and mineral deficiencies. These deficiencies can lead to mental disorders, damage to vital organs, failure of the senses, such as poor vision; problem conceiving or delivering babies; and gastrointestinal distress.

Even in the major cities of developed nations, the poor often have unhealthful diets. Resulting in part from a lack of health care and nutritional education and in part from the lower availability and higher cost of better-quality foods. The urban poor tend to eat too much of the wrong kinds of foods. The urban poor commonly eat foods that are fatty or fried, high in sugar and salt, and made of mostly processed carbohydrates. Their diets are often high in low-grade fatty meats, chips, candies, and desserts and low in vegetables, fruits, whole grains, and high-quality lean meats and fish. Such diets commonly cause obesity and hypertension, both of which can contribute to heart disease and other ailments.

5.6.2 Infectious Disease and Exposure to the Elements

In addition to the effects of malnutrition, the poor experience high rates of infectious diseases. Inadequate shelter or housing creates conditions that promote diseases. Without decent protection, many of the poor are exposed to severe and dangerous weather as well as to bacteria and viruses carried by other people and animals. In the tropics, monsoons and hurricanes can destroy the flimsy shelters of the poor. Once exposed, people are vulnerable to fluctuations in temperature that lower their resistance to diseases. They also are more likely to become infected with diseases carried by insects or rodents. For instance, mosquitoes carry malaria, a debilitating disease that is common in the tropics. In arid regions, drought leaves the poor without clean water for drinking or bathing. In temperate climates, including in the major cities of developed countries, homelessness is a growing problem. Many of the homeless poor are harmed by or die of exposure to extreme winter cold.

Inadequate sanitation and unhygienic practices among the poor also lead to illness. Inadequate sanitation almost always accompanies inadequate shelter. Because the poor in developing nations commonly have no running water or sewage facilities, human excrement and garbage quickly accumulate and this becomes a breeding ground for diseases. In cities, especially in ghettos and shantytowns that house only poor people, overcrowding can lead to high transmission rates of airborne diseases, such as tuberculosis. The poor are also often uneducated about the spread of diseases, notably sexually transmitted diseases (STDs). As a result-and because prophylactic devices such as condoms may be hard to obtain or afford, especially in developing countries-STD rates are high among the poor. In particular, the incidence of acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS) among poor people is higher than average.

Along with the problem of high incidences of diseases, developing countries also have shortages of doctors. Medicine and treatment are often both scarce and too expensive for the poor. In addition, many people who live in the rural areas of developing countries cannot get to doctors located in urban areas. In developing countries, the poor may have no health insurance, making the costs of health care unaffordable.

5.6.3 Mental Illness and Drug Dependence

In most developed countries, the rate of mental illness is highest among the poor. The most common disorders associated with poverty are depression and anxiety disorders. Without meaningful, well-paying work and the resources and social affirmation that come with it, many poor people develop low self-esteem and feelings of worthlessness. People who are stressed by the uncertainty of where they will get their next meal or spend the night often develop high anxiety. Because the poor experience high rates of severe mental illness, they also have high rates of suicide.

Some poor people attempt to relieve feelings of anxiety and depression associated with poverty through the use of mind-altering drugs. A common drug among the poor is alcohol, which is legal and affordable. Many of those who drink develop alcoholism, becoming physically and emotionally dependent on drinking. Others use and often become addicted to more dangerous and often illegal drugs, including heroin, methamphetamines, and cocaine. Of these drug users, those who take drug intravenously (by injection a vein) and share needles within this process easily AIDS.

Mental illness and drug dependence demonstrate the difficulties of distinguishing people between poverty's causes and its effects, mentally ill and drug-dependent people who tend to have troubles holding steady jobs and maintaining relationships, causing them to fall into poverty. At the same time, in some cases, poverty itself appears to promote mental illness and drug dependence.

5.6.4 Crime and Violence

Some experts believe that poverty leads people to commit acts of violence and crime. Anger, desperation, and the need for money for food, shelter, and other necessities may all contribute to criminal behavior among the poor. Other experts caution that link of cause and effect between poverty and crime is unclear. In some cases, poverty undoubtedly motivates people to commit crime although it may not be the only factor involved. Other problem associated with poverty is often linked to crime. For example, to obtain money some poor people commit the crime of selling illegal drugs: others may steal to obtain the money to buy drugs on which are dependent.

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this Study Session, we have discussed the process of poverty to man in society. In the process, we defined what poverty is about, types of poverty and how it is matured. We also examined the various causes of poverty as well as its effects on the society.

Assessment



Assignment

1. How will distinguish between absolute and relative poverty?
2. How can poverty be measured?
3. Why is poverty so prevalent in the developing countries of the world?
4. What are the main causes of poverty?
5. What are the effects of poverty?

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Study Session 6

Welfare and Anti-Poverty Measures in Nigeria

Introduction

In this lecture, we shall discuss the several steps that have been taken against poverty in Nigeria. To do this extent, it will be appropriate to examine the condition of Nigeria as it relates to poverty and how poverty in Nigeria is measured. We shall also discuss some of anti-poverty measures put in place by successive governments to reduce the scourge of poverty in Nigeria.

Learning Outcomes



Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 6.1 discuss the poverty situation in Africa and Nigeria in particular.
- 6.2 explain how poverty is measured in Nigeria.
- 6.3 outline and examine the anti-poverty measures put in place by successive governments in Nigeria to cushion the scourge of poverty.

6.1 Prevalence of Poverty in Africa with Focus on Nigeria

As we pointed out in the previous Study Session, Africa is home to some of the poorest countries in the world. In much of Africa south of the Sahara, harsh environmental conditions exacerbate the conditions of poverty. Dry and barren land covers large expanses of this region. As the poor try to eke out living through farming and other subsistence practices, they exhaust the land, using up the soil nutrients needed to grow crops. Over time, this has led to desertification, a process in which once fertile land turns to desert. During the late 20th century, desertification contributed to famines in a number of Africa nations, including Somalia, Ethiopia, and Mali. Political instability and wars in many sub-Saharan countries have also contributed to poverty.

This is especially true of Nigeria whose income generating potentials are extraordinary. Nigeria is blessed with vast human and natural resources such that if these resources were properly annexed and managed, it would rank as one of the richest in the world. But structural and political problems including ethnicity, corruption, and poor leadership have

conspired to rob it of its potentials and created huge problems for the country, the problems that have resulted in the pauperization of majority Nigerians.

Many countries which were formerly part of the communist bloc (the Communist countries of Eastern Europe); including those of the former Soviet Union, have relatively high levels of poverty. Historians and economists blame the legacy of communism for much of the poverty in these countries, where communist governments owned and distributed most of their countries income and wealth. Leaders of these governments proclaimed the benefits of this centralised system, but many people who lived under communism experienced lower standards of living than people who lived in countries with democratic governments and free-market economies, such as the United States and the nations of Western Europe.

Since the fall of communism in 1989, poverty in much of Eastern Europe and Central Asia has increased. The fall of communism ended a political and economic system in which all people had been virtually guaranteed jobs and basic needs, such as food and housing. Sudden uncertainty about the future led to decreases in the value of currencies in all formerly communist countries. Wars and instability ravaged many of these countries. In the most devastating conflict, the former Yugoslavia erupted in violent civil war in 1991. In several formerly communist countries, political and economic upheaval has led to a wide array of problems, including a dramatic increase in the number of orphans. The high number of orphans has stretched the capacity of orphanages, and many orphans live in extreme poverty and suffer from malnutrition, disease, and starvation.

6.1.1 Poverty Incidence in Nigeria

In 2002, several studies reported more than 75 million people living in poverty in Nigeria, or about 65 percent of the population. The number of Nigerian families living in poverty in the late 1990s and early 2002 is at an all time high. While little has changed in the aggregate, or total levels of Nigerian poverty, the composition of the people living in poverty has changed significantly. That is, poverty rates have changed significantly within demographic groups, which are based on age, race, family status, and geographic location. Some groups of people are now much more likely to be poor than in the past while other groups are less likely to be poor.

We can divide the total Nigeria population into three basic age groups: children (up to 17 years of age), prime-aged adults (18 years to 59 years), and the elderly (60 years and above). Poverty among children was higher in the 1990s than in the past three decades. About 60 percent of children were poor in 2002, more than for any other age group. Poverty among prime-aged adults, who generally work, has fluctuated with changes in the Nigerian economy. In 2002, when the economy was thought to be performing well, about 40 percent of prime-aged adults lived in poverty. The numbers of elderly living in poverty increased dramatically between 1960 and 2002, from about 6 percent to around 78 percent.

In 2002, more than 28 percent of married couples were poor. On the other hand, over 62 percent of single-mother households lived in poverty at this time. Rates were even higher for single-mother households within minority ethnic groups, where almost half of them are living in poverty.

Higher percentages of people are poor in the Southern and Western parts of the country than in the Northern parts. One reason for this difference may be that the South and West contain more and more sparsely populated, rural areas, which have fewer higher wage jobs. Poverty is more prevalent in rural areas, and also in central cities, than it is in suburbs. Although pockets of high poverty exist, poor people live in all areas of Nigeria.

Poverty Measurements in Nigeria

Generally, people are said to be poor if their incomes fall below a certain level called a threshold, also known as the poverty line. In this definition, the poor do not have enough income to purchase or have easy access to basic goods and services, such as food, clothing, transportation, and education. The official Nigerian poverty rate equals the number of people whose incomes fall below the poverty threshold divided by the number of people counted in the National Population Census. Rates are also determined for various groupings within the population, such as sex, age, and race.

The Nigerian poverty threshold can be calculated as the cost of a minimum adequate diet (the least expensive of four nutritionally adequate food staples) multiplied by three to account for other expenses, such as clothing, housing, and medical cost. We can then update thresholds to account for inflation in the prices of basic goods and services.

The poverty line does not, however, change in real naira (value in terms of what the naira can purchase). In principle, the 2002 threshold of 22,000 naira for a family of four (two adults and two children) represents the same purchasing power as the 1960 threshold value of about 150 naira for the same type of family. Also, in contrast with the governments of most developed countries, the Nigerian government usually adjusts poverty thresholds up or down with changes in overall average income.

The government determines poverty status by comparing an individual's or family's income to a threshold limit. This calculation defines income as money earned before taxes, plus transfers (grants to the poor) of cash from the government. Welfare payments, therefore, can put people above the poverty level. The thresholds vary according to family size, people's age, and family composition. They do not change, however, across geographic regions, even though the costs of living in different parts of the country can vary widely.

The Nigerian government can use the National Population Commission figures to determine how many people qualify for public assistance programmes for the poor. Different poverty thresholds apply to people in different living situations. We can propose many changes in the way the government measures poverty. Foremost among these changes would be a plan to gauge poverty each year according to how much the average person or family spends on goods and services. The existing

measurement relies on government's definitions of basic goods and services developed decades ago. A new measurement would be a step towards defining Nigerian poverty based on standards of living rather than only on costs of living.

6.1.2 Anti-poverty Programmes in Nigeria

A number of Nigerian government agencies use poverty statistics to decide how much to spend on poverty alleviation programmes and transfers of money, goods, and services to help the poor. Federal programmes that aim directly at helping poor people in Nigeria include Family Economic Advancement Programme (FEAP), which was an ambitious government programme established to create access to affordable credit facilities for micro enterprise for cooperative families; and National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP), which provides extra income to poor people who are unemployed and to enable individuals without income but with viable skills to make an income. These agencies set up under Obasanjo's administration carry the bulk of government's antipoverty efforts in Nigeria. They are expected to create more jobs for the expanding mass of the unemployed people and also to reduce the size of the unemployable population by teaching skills that will be directly relevant to their ability to earn some form of income. Therefore, they are able to live above the poverty line.

In addition to government's programmes, many NGOs in Nigeria provide aid packages to the poor at the local, state, and national levels. One of the largest of such NGOs addressing the problems of poverty in Nigeria is Lift Above Poverty Organisation (LAPO), which provides a variety of types of assistance to people in need.

The Women's Health and Action Research Center (WHARC), another formidable NGO with programmes throughout Nigeria, mobilises support for the improvement of the reproductive health needs of women in Nigeria, many of whom are poor.

Welfare System in Nigeria

Welfare refers to programmes that are aimed at helping people who are unable to support themselves fully or earn a living. The term has often been used to describe income maintenance programmes that provide assistance on the basis of need alone. Although many people conceptualise welfare as one big, centrally administered programme, the realities of welfare are very different. To buttress this point, we should understand that the welfare system is composed of two distinctly different kinds of assistance. The first provides cash assistance to the poor, while the other provides various forms of in-kind assistance, such as food, housing, and medical services. Furthermore, within either of these classifications, there are a variety of programmes, each with its own characteristics, regulations, and objectives. As we proceed, these programmes will be examined in some detail.

Welfare recipients include elderly people with mental or physical disabilities, and those needing help to support dependent children. Many people in Nigeria most commonly use the term welfare to refer to government-funded programmes that provide economic support, goods,

and services to unemployed or underemployed people. Professionals in the field of public policy and social work use the term social welfare to describe a broader range of programmes, both privately and publicly funded. Social welfare programmes are structured to help a broad range of people – not only the unemployed or underemployed – to function more fully in society.

All developed nations maintain a variety of social welfare programmes. Countries offer many such programmes as rights of citizenship. Governments establish welfare systems to provide a so-called safety net to prevent people from suffering the effects of poverty. However, many people believe that welfare encourages its recipients to become dependent on government support and remain unemployed. As a result welfare programmes have always aroused heated public debate.

Basis for Welfare

In any society, not all the people are able to work. Societies recognise that the very young and the old have limited capacities to perform any income-generating work, as do people with severe mental or physical disabilities. Welfare is a means by which societies help support these segments of the population.

In a free-market economy, such as that of Nigeria and most other nations, a certain percentage of capable, working – age adults will always be unemployed. Unemployment rates vary regionally as some adults will always be unemployed. Unemployment rates also vary regionally and from season to season as technology and a desirable job skill change and as workforce grow or diminish. In the 20th century, most countries have experienced these changes very rapidly. Unemployment rates in developed countries may be fairly low such as 3.1 percent in Japan in 1995-or quite high-around 12 percent in France and Italy in 1995. The unemployment rate in the United States was around 5 percent in early 1997. The unemployment rate in Nigeria today is as high as 40 percent.

Long-term economic changes have also weakened social support systems, which in turn have increased the need for social welfare programmes. In the 19th century, many people lived in large extended families that worked together for generations on family farms. The size of the family-which could include grandparents, cousins, and other relatives-and its stability were important for farm production. During the 19th and 20th centuries, countries around the world shifted from primarily agrarian (farming) to primarily industrial economies. In the late 20th century, some of these nations shifted again and became primarily post-industrial (service-and information-based) economies.

Wherever these shifts occurred, the tradition of people living in large families began to disappear. Many people began living in smaller and post-industrial jobs-in factories, retail stores, and offices which often depend on flexible and mobile workers. Since most of these jobs are away from their home, people must seek work and take it where it is offered. They may have to relocate with certain jobs. Most people in Nigeria today have completely separate family and work lives. Small, flexible families are better suited to these kinds of work patterns. Small families do not, however, provide the kind of social support that extended

families do. In addition, Nigeria has a growing number of single-parent households-which provide even less support than do typical nuclear families- and increasing numbers of people living alone.

Fundamental changes in the global economy also create welfare needs. In the second half of the 20th century, businesses began moving low-skill jobs to countries that could provide cheap labour. They also created many new, higher-skill jobs such as those in technological and scientific research and computer programming. These changes have affected both developed and developing nations. They often require that people move, learn new skills, or dramatically alter their living arrangements for work. Such shifts leave people in situations where they may need a safety net.

Forms of Welfare in Nigeria

The Nigerian government provides welfare in a number of basic ways. Some programmes distribute direct cash assistance that recipients may spend as they choose. Other programmes provide specific goods, such as public housing; or the means to obtain them, such as subsidised rents, vouchers to offset private housing costs, or coupons to purchase food. Still others provide services or the means to obtain services. Welfare services include health care, childcare, and help coping with drug or alcohol dependency. Goods and services, as opposed to direct cash assistance, are known as in-kind benefits. Other welfare programmes create or subsidise jobs for the unemployed. In addition, the government also provides pension to retired people, which some people consider a welfare programme. If calculated as expenditure, the payment of pensions is one of the more costly Nigerian welfare programmes.

In Nigeria, as in many other nations, the government decides how much welfare support to provide, and to whom, based on the measures of economic well-being. These measures are themselves based on national mean income figures. Mean income is an estimate of how much a typical person earns over a given period of time, usually a year. People whose incomes are less than a determined amount below the national mean are considered to be living in poverty. Welfare programmes targeted at people with relatively little incomes and few assets are called means-tested welfare programmes. Other forms of income support are referred to simply as non-means-tested.

In virtually all cash welfare programmes, benefits rapidly fall as recipient's income increases. These programmes are targeted at, or restricted to, people with little or no income and few assets. Some programmes further restrict benefits to those meeting additional, non-income requirements, known as categorical targets. For example, benefits might depend on a recipient being a single parent with dependent children or a juvenile in foster care.

Eligibility for certain forms of welfare is based on membership in specific groups. The elderly and people with mental or physical disabilities, for example, receive several types of support that the government provides specifically to them. Eligibility for social insurance programmes such as the National Pensions Fund, meanwhile, depends upon individuals having made prior financial contributions to a fund, which can be drawn on later. The most prominent example of this form of welfare in Nigeria is the

National Social Insurance Trust Fund. This programme provides support to workers and their families when they lose employment, retire, or become disabled.

In theory, welfare targets make sense, since they direct support to those most in need. Targeting however creates problematic incentives. For example, if welfare recipients begin to earn money, or more money than they had been earning, their benefits may fall and their taxes rise. This can be a powerful incentive for recipients to remain on welfare and not seek work. In effect, this situation creates a penalty for welfare recipients who take work, especially in any of the many low-wage jobs especially available to them. Working at a minimal wage minus taxes often cannot offset the loss of welfare benefits. Targeting welfare benefits to certain groups also creates incentives for people to change their behaviour in order to become eligible for benefits. A young parent may be less inclined to marry or stay married, if single parenthood makes it easier to claim welfare benefits. The dilemma of balancing compassion for the poor with a desire to promote socially approved behaviours-work and marriage, for example, has defined public policy debates over welfare for several centuries.

Cash Assistance Programmes

On many occasions, the Nigerian government has come to the temporary aid of many citizens in need of government assistance of some sort. Often, government's cash assistance is targeted at parents and children in need of economic support due to the death, continued absence, or incapacity of the family's primary wage earner (typically the father).

Low-income families with children are not the only group eligible for cash assistance. Adults who are not able to work because of age or disability, as well as some disabled children, can receive cash assistance through some supplemental government programmes.

In-kind Assistance Programmes

Most people on welfare receive more than just cash assistance. For example, many persons receive Medicaid health care support, food and clothing assistance, housing assistance or live in public housing, and many have been actively involved in programmes designed to help them find work such as the NAPEP programme.

General Assistance Programmes

No federal cash welfare programmes exist for people who are clearly able to work-single adults and couples who have no dependent children and who are not eligible for a disability programme. However, some states or local governments may provide help for such people under what is called General Assistance (GA) programmes. Where they exist, GA programmes commonly provide limited economic supports and subsidies for medical care.

In conclusion, the general public and government representatives at all levels have grown increasingly critical of the Nigerian welfare system. In fact, many have argued that there is no deliberate government welfare policy in Nigeria. Instead, what the government calls welfare are a series of disjointed, ad-hoc, haphazard arrangements that depend on the whims and caprices of the particular person wearing the toga of government. In

essence, it has been argued, there is no systemic effort to incorporate systems of welfare in the Nigerian polity. Many welfare programmes targeted at fighting poverty have failed to produce the much-desired results.

According to unofficial estimates, over 60 million Nigerians live below poverty lines. Although there is a distinct possibility that these estimates are exaggerated by the neglect of in-kind transfers, it is clear however, that millions of Nigerians are poor either because their standard of living is below minimally adequate standards or because they depend primarily on public assistance or welfare to maintain their poverty standard. Expert recognition that poverty is widespread has generated two simple questions: first, why are so many Nigerians poor?, and second, what policies will eliminate poverty? This lecture has already provided much of the background information necessary to answer these questions. We will now attempt to summarise the salient impressions of our inquiry and offer policy suggestions.

However, it should be emphasized that a good understanding of the causes of poverty provides clear directions for the formulation of required public policy. The central question is: how do we eliminate poverty. To do this, we must first expand the number of decent job opportunities as well as their availability.

In Nigeria, the government has several options available to it to reduce poverty and unemployment. First, the government must seek to maintain a high level of aggregate demand by the judicious and equitable use of fiscal and monetary tools. It must also give special attention to the structure of demand that those tools stimulate. Thus, it is the responsibility of the policy-makers in Nigeria to select a mix of public actions that maximises the impact on the unemployed and poor, while minimising dislocations, such as inflation.

Apart from this aggregate, economic policies must also incorporate clear supply-side incentives for employment and training of the poor. We should realise that boson's, tax, spending. or regular policies that raise the cost of hiring the poor, will not reduce poverty. In developing macroeconomic policies, these potential supply-side effects' must be addressed as well.

In addition to seeking full employment, government agencies must make a determined effort to equalise educational and employment opportunities. Such a policy will not only further reduce poverty and inequality; it will also make the attainment of full employment easier and less expensive.

Finally, the public must assume responsibility for those who are temporarily or permanently unable to participate in the labour market. The government must make available, adequate income both to alleviate economic hardships and to reduce intergenerational deprivation. However, the government must pay greater attention to the need to reduce public assistance to the barest minimum.

When we place this policy framework against recent public anti-poverty programmes and activities, these programmes appear poorly directed. Rarely has there been a sustained and determined effort to reach full

employment. Even where there is a conscious effort to increase employment, Nigerian policy decisions always stop short of considering the structure of aggregate demand that is created thereby. Instead, public anti-poverty policy has, to a large extent, been a 'bread and circus' or 'carrot and stick' kind of affair. The Nigerian government has allotted (grudgingly) small sums of money to feed, clothe, and house the poor, in the vain belief or hope that this will achieve some measure of social tranquility. At the same time the Nigerian society has subjected the poor to a various forms of training and education activities, holding out false promises of job opportunities. Yet, the society and government has done almost nothing to create the job opportunities that are our most pressing need.

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this Study Session, we discussed welfare and anti-poverty measures in Nigeria. We examined the poverty situation in most developing countries and Nigeria in particular. We also discussed how poverty is measured in Nigeria. This lecture also presented some anti-poverty measures put in place by the government such as the Welfare system, Cash Assistance Programmes, In-kind Assistance and General Assistance Programme. Against this background, we identified the reasons why these programmes have yielded less positive results and suggested ways of tackling the situation in order to reduce poverty to a manageable level in Nigeria.

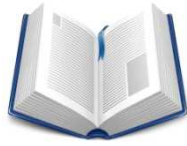
Assessment



Assignment

1. Point out why poverty is very rampant in Africa?
2. How can we measure poverty in Nigeria?
3. What anti-poverty measures have successive governments in Nigeria put in place in cushioning the crusting effects of poverty?
4. Write short but critical notes on the following:
 - a) Welfare system
 - b) Cash Assistance Programmes
 - c) In-kind Assistance Programmes
 - d) General Assistance Programmes

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Study Session 7

Public Health Policy in Nigeria

Introduction

In this study session, we will discuss the health services in Nigeria. To start with we will examine the traditional health care system and from this we will move on to discuss the evolution of modern health services in Nigeria. This will be followed by a critical examination of the state of health services in Nigeria as well as the philosophy guiding the national health policy. Finally, we will evaluate the finance of health care in Nigeria.

Learning Outcomes



Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 7.1 define and use correctly the term health.
- 7.2 discuss the traditional health care system and modern health services.
- 7.3 analyze the state of health services in Nigeria.
- 7.4 present an overview of the national health care system
- 7.5 discuss how public health is financed in Nigeria.

7.1 Defining Health

The World Health Organization (WHO, 1946) defines being healthy as “a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity”. When these conditions are not fulfilled, then one is said to be sick or ill. Medication and the science of pharmacology is used to cure or reduce symptoms of an illness or medical conditions. Developmental disability is a term used to describe severe, life-long disabilities attributable to mental and/or physical impairments. For a better explanation, some concepts such as physical, mental and social well-being should be further explained.

As regards physical being, abnormal conditions of the body or mind that cause discomfort, dysfunction, or distress to the person afflicted or those in contact with the person can be deemed an illness. Sometimes the term is used broadly to include injuries, disabilities, syndromes, infections, symptoms, deviant behaviours, and typical variations of structure and function, while in other contexts, these may be considered distinguishable categories. A pathogen or infectious agent is a biological agent that causes disease or illness to its host. A passenger virus is a virus that simply hitchhikes in the body of a person or infects the body without causing symptoms, illness or disease. Foodborne illness or food poisoning is any illness resulting from the consumption of food

contaminated with pathogenic bacteria, toxins, viruses, prions or parasites.

Furthermore, as regards mental being, mental illness (or emotional disability, Cognitive dysfunction) is a broad generic label for a category of illnesses that may include affective or emotional instability, behavioural dysregulation, and/or cognitive dysfunction or impairment. Specific illnesses known as mental illnesses include major depression, generalised anxiety disorder, schizophrenia, and attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, to name a few. Mental illness can be of biological (e.g., anatomical, chemical, or genetic) or psychological (e.g., trauma or conflict) origin. It can impair one's ability to work effectively or go to school and engage in other meaningful beneficial activities. Other generic names for mental illness include "mental disorder", "psychiatric disorder", "psychological disorder", "abnormal psychology", "emotional disability", "emotional problems", or "behaviour problem". The term insanity is used technically as a legal term. Brain damage may occur due to a wide range of conditions, illnesses, or injuries.

As regards social being, social determinants of health are the social conditions in which people live that determine the status of their health. Illnesses are generally related to social, economic, political, and environmental circumstances. Social determinants of health have been recognised by several health organisations, such as the Public Health Agency of Canada and the World Health Organisation and these have motivated these agencies or organisations to greatly influence collective and personal well-being.

An important component of socio-economic development in any society is good health. Good health is essential because it is a vital component of the quality of life as well as a prerequisite for high levels of productivity. We cannot overemphasize the importance of health in national development as this itself has been recognized by governments (past and present) as crucial to overall national development. In fact, the national health policy stated above provides an eloquent testimony to the fact that the health of the Nigerian citizens is of primary importance to the government. No government can function if a sizeable amount of its citizens are sick.

7.2 Types of Health Systems in Nigeria

There are basically two distinct systems of health care in Nigeria: the traditional and the modern health care systems. The two systems are fundamentally different from each other, not only in terms of availability and quality of care, both also in terms of technology and social adaptability. However, there is a similar current flowing through both systems especially as they aim to serve the same population in need. Thus, the two systems co-exist although they intentionally remain functionally unrelated.

Of the two systems, the government often supports the modern system, which often assumes the character of a monopolistic medical establishment and a doctor dependent, hospital based, health care model, and which often ignores the importance or desirability of the traditional

system. We will attempt here to discuss the traditional health system because it is the one that appeared first and more in use, especially, in rural areas before discussing the specific structures of the modern health system.

7.2.1 Traditional Health Care System

We can conceptualise the traditional health care system in Nigeria as any effort by any indigenous community to tackle the problem of illness and disease. It incorporates within its scope medical taxonomy; folk knowledge; guidelines; traditions and values; health behaviour rules and patterns; supportive social institutions and identified personnel; and structures of delivery of preventive and restorative therapy.

The detailed features of traditional health care systems vary from one part of Nigeria to another. This in fact reflects the varying socio-cultural characteristics of the people in different parts of the country. Despite this spatial pattern, however, traditional health care systems by their characteristics have basic commonalities.

To start with, all health care begins with a fundamental perception of illness. A perception is made either by the patient or his associates, family and friends. Also, reactions to symptomologies are culturally determined. Thus, the traditional concept of disease causation in Nigeria incorporates a belief in both natural and supernatural causative agents. Frequently, Nigerians will blame witches and wizards, ghosts, and other spirit beings for their illness. Also, they may locate the source of their health problems in breaches of taboos and failures to observe kinship rules or religious obligations.

This conceptual base of the causes of illness and diseases in the first place will ultimately determine the nature and type or model of treatment to apply. The process of diagnosing the ailment also reflects the pattern identified for its treatment. Diagnosis is based on one or more of several procedures, including observation of the patients' attitudes, gestures and ability to perform basic tasks as a test of logical reasoning: divination and possession, which may lead beyond diagnosis to prognosis and prescribed treatment: and case history, which may be intensive and over a patient's family and social milieu. Traditional healers include herbalists, who primarily use herbs to practice healing; cult healers, who possess strong spiritual powers to negotiate or deal with witches and wizards; fetish priests, who depend on some deity, herbs divination, and possession, and the leaders of syncretic churches, who use prayers and other ritualisations to heal sick members who possess the necessary amount of faith. Under the practice of traditional medicine, the sick have three basic options: first, to recover from the illness; second, to remain sick; and third to die.

Traditional healers are seen as helping mediums who attempt to mediate the relationship of the sick and some hidden supernatural forces. The influence and efficacy of the methods of some Nigerian traditional healers are pervasive and transcend national boundaries. Many provide support for clients who come from so many other countries including Western European countries and the Americas. Several of the important traditional medicine practitioners have also established clinics outside

Nigeria in their attempt to extend healings outside the frontiers of Nigeria.

In many rural areas in Nigeria, traditional medicine provides the only source of medical care as a result of the scarcity and low accessibility to modern medical services. In such environments, the use to which traditional medicine is put will vary intensively with the nature and seriousness of the ailment, the type of specialist customarily sought, the acculturation of the client, the proximity of a preferred or reputable specialist and transportation.

Also, in such cases where modern health facilities can also be assessed in the rural community, preference for a particular health care provider (whether traditional or modern) will be determined solely by individual taste, which itself may be hinged on past experiences, the concept and definition of etiology, perceived chronicity and expectations of a cure.

7.2.2 Modern Health Care System

As regards modern health system in Nigeria, the modern health services of Nigeria have evolved through a series of historical developments including a succession of policies and plans, which had been introduced by previous administrations. The health services are judged to be unsatisfactory and inadequate in meeting the needs and demands of the public as reflected by the low state of health of the population.

At this juncture, it is pertinent to attempt a historical analysis of the background of the growth and development of the health services in Nigeria. We shall also attempt an understanding of earlier attempts to formulate national policies on health and the present state of the health services. The policy proposed and the strategies emerging from it have been based on an appreciation of the current status of the health of the people of Nigeria with a careful analysis of the major factors, which affect the health of the population as well as the nature of intervention which can produce improvement most rapidly and economically.

It is important to note that the public health services in Nigeria originated from the British Army Medical Services. With the integration of the army with the colonial government during the colonial era, government offered to treat the local civil servants and their relatives, and eventually, the local population living close to government stations.

The Colonial Medical Service developed and was duty bound to provide free medical treatment to the army and the colonial service officers. Medical treatment, which government initially provided its officials, was made available to the local population only as an incidental service. Various religious bodies and private agencies established hospitals, dispensaries and maternity centers in different parts of the country.

The first attempt at planning ahead for the development of health services in Nigeria took place in 1946, as part of the exercise which produced the overall Ten-Year Plan for Development and Welfare (1946-56), covering all aspects of governmental activities in the country. Since Nigeria was still a colonial territory, the proponents of this plan were mainly British officials. It included 24 major schemes designed to extend the work of existing government departments although it was not an integrated

development plan in the current sense of the word. These schemes were not economic target. Nevertheless, it was modest, realistic, and it served as the basis for subsequent health plans.

Since the country became independent in 1960, health policies have been enunciated in various forms, either in the National Development Plans or as government decisions on specific health problems. Along this line, we can identify three distinctive periods:

- 1) The health component of the Second National Development Plan 1970-1974, identified and aimed at correcting some of the deficiencies in the health services.
- 2) In the Third Development Plan, 1975-1980, there was a deliberate attempt to draw up a comprehensive national health policy dealing with such issues as health manpower development, the provision of comprehensive health care services based on the Basic Health Services Schemes, disease control, efficient utilisation of health resources, medical research, health planning and management.
- 3) The health policy content of the Fourth National Development Plan (1980-1985) will be the focus of this chapter.

7.3 State of Health Services in Nigeria

As currently organised, the health services show major defects that are widely recognised. These include are;

- 1) The coverage is inadequate. It is estimated that no more than 35% of the population has access to modern health care services. Rural communities and the urban poor are not well served.
- 2) The orientation of the services is inappropriate with a disproportional high investment on curative services to the detriment of preventives services.
- 3) The management of the services often shows major weaknesses, resulting in waste and inefficiency, as shown by the failure to meet targets and goals. With several different levels of government, voluntary organisations and other agencies providing health care, the various inputs are poorly coordinated.
- 4) The involvement of the community is minimal at critical points in the decision-making process. Because the communities are not well informed on matters affecting their health, they are often unable to make rational choices.
- 5) The lack of basic health statistic is a major constraint at all stages of planning, monitoring and evaluation of health services.
- 6) The financial resources allocated to the health services, in Nigeria, especially, to some priority areas, are inadequate to permit them to function effectively.
- 7) The basic infrastructure and logistic supports are often defective, owing to inadequate maintenance of buildings, medical equipment and vehicles, unreliable supply of water and electricity, and the poor management of drugs, vaccines and supplies systems.

Whilst this list is an accurate summary of the broad range of defects in the health services, in Nigeria, there are also encouraging cases in which dynamic health administrators, professional persons and lay members of the communities have successfully corrected these faults within their local areas. Such successful programmes provide useful models of what can be done with limited resources in spite of various constraints.

To achieve health for all Nigerians, the national health policy is based on the national philosophy of social justice and equity. A health system based on primary health care is adopted as the means of achieving the goal.

The National Philosophy

The national philosophy is founded on the principles of social justice and equity. This philosophy is clearly enunciated in the Second National Development Plan, 1970-1974, which described the five national objectives to make Nigeria,

- 1) a free and democratic society;
- 2) a just and egalitarian society;
- 3) a united, strong and self-reliant nation;
- 4) a great and dynamic economy;
- 5) a land of bright and full opportunities for all citizens.

These principles of social justice and equity and the ideas of freedom and opportunity have been affirmed in the constitution.

The national health policy has been formulated within the context of these objectives. Furthermore, the formulation results from a strong belief in socio-economic development, that all sectors shall be mutually supportive and together contribute to the ultimate goals of the nation. Health development shall be seen not solely in humanitarian terms but also as an essential component of the package of social and economic development as well as being an instrument of social justice and national security.

7.4 National Health Care System

The National Health Care System shall be examined at three levels:

- 1) Primary health care
- 2) Secondary health care
- 3) Tertiary health care

7.4.1 Primary Health Care

Primary health care, as the entry point of the health care system shall provide general health services of preventive, curative, promotive and rehabilitative nature to the population. The provision of care at this level is largely the responsibility of local governments with the support of States' Ministries of Health and within the overall national health policy. Private medical practitioners shall also provide health care at this level.

Nothing that traditional medicine is widely used, that there is no uniform system of traditional medicine in the country, since there are wide

variations with each variant being strong to the local culture and beliefs, the local health authorities shall, where applicable, seek the collaboration of the traditional medical practitioners in promoting their health programmes, such as nutrition, environmental sanitation, personal hygiene, family planning and immunisations. Traditional health practitioners shall be trained to improve their skills and to ensure their cooperation in making use of the referral system in dealing with high risk patients. Government of the federation shall seek to gain a better understanding of traditional health practices, and support research activities to evaluate them. Practices and technologies of proven value shall be adapted into the health care system and those that are harmful shall be discouraged. As defined in the Alma Ata Declaration, primary health care shall be the key to the development of the National Health Policy.

Primary health care is essential health care based on practical, scientifically sound and socially acceptable methods and technology made universally accessible to individuals and families in the community, through their full participation and at a cost that the community and country can afford to maintain at every stage of their development in the spirit of self-reliance and self-determination. It forms an integral part both of the country's health system, of which it is the central function and main focus, and of the overall social and economic development of the community. It is the first level of contact of individuals, the family and community with the national health system. It brings health care as close as possible to where people live and work, and it constitutes the first element of a continuing health care process.

7.4.2 Secondary Health Care

The secondary health care level shall provide specialised services to patients referred from the primary health care level through out-patient and in-patient services of hospitals for general medical, surgical, pediatric patient and community health services. It shall also serve as administrative headquarters, supervising health care activities of the peripheral units. Secondary health care shall be available at the district, divisional and zonal levels of the state. Adequate supportive services, such as laboratory, diagnostic, blood bank, rehabilitation, and physiotherapy shall be provided.

7.4.3 Tertiary Health Care

Tertiary health care, which consists of highly specialized services, shall be provided by teaching hospitals and other special hospitals which provide care for specific diseases, conditions of specific groups of persons – e.g. orthopedic, eye, and psychiatric, maternity and pediatric hospitals. Care should be taken to ensure that these services are evenly geographically distributed. Appropriate supporting services shall be incorporated into the development of these tertiary facilities to provide effective referral services. Selected centers shall be encouraged to develop special expertise in the advanced modern technology thereby serving at the secondary and tertiary levels. Whilst high priority shall be accorded to primary health care, within available resources, the secondary

and eventually all Nigerians shall have easy access not only to primary health care facilities but also to secondary and tertiary levels as required. Particular attention shall be placed on the needs of remote and isolated communities which have special logistic problems in providing access to the referral system.

In the Constitution of 1999, health is on the concurrent list of responsibilities with the exception of the external health relations, quarantine and the control of drugs and poisons which are exclusively the responsibilities of the Federal Government of Nigeria. The constitution also assigns specific responsibilities to the local governments (fourth schedule to the constitution). The national health care system is built on the basis of the three-tier responsibilities of the federal, state and local government. Schedules of responsibilities, which are to be assigned to the federal, state and local governments respectively, shall be prepared for approval by the Federal Ministry of Health.

7.5 Developments in Public Health Financing in Nigeria

7.5.1 Health Insurance

Health insurance is a social security system that guarantees the provision of needed health services to persons on the payment of token contributions at regular intervals.

The National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS) is a corporate body established under Act 35 of 1999 constitution by the Federal Government of Nigeria to improve the health of all Nigerians at an affordable cost. The NHIS Act is the statutory authority for the scheme's benefits programmes as well as the general rules and guidelines for the operation of the scheme. The evolution of the National Health Insurance Scheme dates back to 1962, when the need for health insurance in the provision of healthcare to Nigerian citizens was first recognised.

The government had initially provided 'free healthcare' for its citizens funded by its earnings from oil exports and general tax revenue. However, the global slump in oil prices in the 1980s greatly affected Nigeria's major source of income. Therefore, the government could no longer afford to provide free health care, and subsequently introduced several cost recovery mechanisms like User Charges and Drug Revolving Funds. Furthermore, the introduction of the Structural Adjustment Programme in 1986 adversely affected the health sector allocation. These amongst other factors outlined below informed the establishment of the Insurance Scheme:

- 1) The general poor state of the nation's healthcare services
- 2) The excessive dependence and pressure on government-provided health facilities
- 3) Dwindling funding of health care in the face of rising costs
- 4) Poor integration of private health facilities in the nation's health care delivery system

Objectives of NHIS Scheme

- 1) To ensure that every Nigerian has access to good health care services
- 2) To protect families from the financial hardship of huge medical bills
- 3) To limit the rise in the cost of health care services
- 4) To ensure equitable distribution of health care costs among different income groups
- 5) To maintain high standards of health care delivery services within the scheme
- 6) To ensure efficiency in health care services
- 7) To improve and harness private sector participation in the provision of health care services
- 8) To ensure equitable distribution of health facilities within the Federation
- 9) To ensure appropriate patronage of all levels of health care
- 10) To ensure the availability of funds to the health sector for improved services.

How the NHIS Works

In order to ensure that every Nigerian has access to good healthcare services, the National Health Insurance Scheme continuously improves the way it works. The information and diagram below shows you how the NHIS structure works.



Patients have been getting excellent care in the NHIS since its inception, but this excellence has been patchy. Now patients are being encouraged

to become actively involved in their own care and are helping to shape local services in the following ways:

- 1) They are making real choices about when and where to be treated.
- 2) They are being recognised by health professionals as equal partners in their care and are being empowered to manage their own symptoms and medications more effectively.
- 3) They are making decisions about local services through Patient Forums and Foundation Trusts.
- 4) They are being asked for their views routinely and listened to, as part of every local service's effort to achieve the best performance ratings.

Among many issues concerning patients, safety is uppermost in the NHIS agenda. Achieving a high quality health service which is responsive to people's needs, means giving organizations and front-line professionals the freedom and support they need to work more effectively; encouraging staff to develop new skills and think radically and flexibly about how to improve local services.

Throughout all this change, patients need to know that the care they receive is safe and is of a high standard. Staff too need to know they are working within a system which protects the patient and, where mistakes are made, they can report these to benefit others without the fear of being unduly blamed or punished.

- 1) At the national level, the Star Rating system measures the standard of treatment at each HMO and how well patients do after their treatment. In addition, the National Patient Safety Agency is working to encourage staff and organisations to report 'adverse incidents' - mistakes which have endangered the wellbeing of patients. The Agency's aim is to gather and analyse this information, and then share it across the whole NHIS so everyone can learn from it.
- 2) At the local level, every NHIS organisation must have in place a system for 'clinical governance'. This is a clear and formal reporting process, which allows organisations to safeguard high standards of care as well as continually improve the quality of their services.

A very important issue Choice of patient was introduced to put patients in the driving seat - giving them real control over:

- 1) Appointment dates and times - so they can fit their treatment or hospital stay around their family and work lives.
- 2) Where they get their treatment - so they can choose the hospital or place of treatment which is right for them, whether that's the hospital nearest to where they live; or the one with the shortest waiting list, perhaps the one with the most appropriate specialists; or the one which has the best patient feedback.

But Choice is also about giving patients the power to drive up standards within the health service. Radical changes to the way hospitals are funded means hospitals are paid for the activity they actually undertake. Therefore, it makes sense for hospitals to ensure they are providing the sort of high-quality responsive

services that will attract patients who have the power to choose. Giving patients choice over when and where they are treated and more control over their own care means little or nothing if they are not supported by the right information at the right time.

Quality services are those that not only have the best health outcome for patients, but also put the patient at the center of their care. Quality services can be accessed quickly and conveniently by patients, when and where they need them.

They are services delivered by the professionals with the most appropriate skills; they are tailored to each individual, and these include all the care that patient might need not just part of it as well as treating patients for coronary heart disease. For instance, a quality service will offer a patient help to quit smoking and take more physical exercise.

There have been some important developments in the last few years to ensure that NHIS organisations and staff are properly rewarded for delivering high-quality patient care:

- 1) Quality not quantity - for the first time ever, the new primary care contracts (governing the way HCPs and their teams are paid) reward practices for the quality of care rather than the quantity of patients they treat.
- 2) Funding follows patients - changes to the way primary healthcare providers are funded means all NHIS Primary HCPs will soon be paid for the actual activity they carry out. With patients increasingly able to choose where to get their treatment, it means that there is a greater incentive than ever before for hospitals to keep waiting times down and push up quality standards.

Primary Healthcare Providers

Primary Health Care Providers will serve as the first contact within the health care system, and they include; Private clinics/hospitals, Primary Health Care Centres, Nursing and Maternity homes, and Out-patient departments of Hospitals/Clinics. Primary Health Care Providers are mostly concerned with a patient's general health needs. Increasingly, more specialist treatments and services are becoming available to primary care settings.

Health Maintenance Organizations (HMOs)

These are limited liability companies which may be formed by private or public establishments or individuals for the sole purpose of participating in the Insurance Scheme. They are registered by the Scheme to facilitate the provision of health care benefits to contributors in the Formal Sector Social Health Insurance Programme.

Their functions include the following:-

- a. They receive/collect contributions from eligible employers and employees
- b. They collect contributions from voluntary contributors

- c. They pay Health Care Providers for services rendered
- d. They mention quality assurance in the delivery of healthcare benefits in the Formal Sector Social Health Insurance Programme.

Secondary and Tertiary Health Care Providers

Secondary Health Care Providers provide health services on referral from Primary Providers, while Tertiary Health Care Providers provide health services on referral from primary and secondary levels. Referrals are undertaken essentially to ensure cost-effectiveness and efficiency in patients' management under the NHIS. A patient may be referred from a primary to a secondary service provider due to need for specialised investigations, for medical/ surgical reasons or other services diagnostic, physiotherapy etc, or from secondary to tertiary level. Approval by the HMOs is necessary, except in emergencies where they cannot be reached and notification of such should be served within 48hrs.

The various types of secondary and tertiary healthcare providers will include:

Dentists: Dentists mainly provide dental services and they are also responsible for check-ups and treatments such as fillings, extractions, fitting bridges and dentures, as well as scaling and polishing. Part of their work involves advising people on how to look after their teeth and gums in order to prevent dental problems in the future.

Dental practices can take private and NHIS patients - with most taking both.

Pharmacies supplying prescription and 'over-the-counter' medicines and healthcare advice to patients and members of the public

They dispense prescriptions and can advise on a range of ailments such as minor injuries, skin conditions and allergies. They can help you decide whether or not you need to see a doctor. One can talk to his/her pharmacists in confidence and he/she does not need to make an appointment. The Federal Government Nigeria is committed to making even better use of the skills of pharmacists to widen the range of quality health care and advice available in convenient community settings.

Opticians carrying out eye and sight examinations, prescribing and fitting spectacles

There are three kinds of opticians that provide eye services to the general public:

Ophthalmic medical practitioners are qualified doctors who specialise on diseases and abnormalities of the eyes. They will test your eyes, examine the health of your eyes, and give a prescription for spectacles. **Optometrists** (also known as ophthalmic opticians) are the opticians you are most likely to visit for sight tests and spectacles. They are also trained to recognise abnormalities and diseases that are revealed in the eye, such as diabetes and glaucoma. **Dispensing opticians** are qualified to fit and supply spectacles to a prescription provided by an optometrist or ophthalmic medical practitioner.

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this Study Session, we started by defining the concept of health using the World Health Organization definition. We explained some vital components of that definition which includes: physical, mental and social well-being. From this we proceeded to discuss two types of health care systems in Nigeria: namely, traditional and modern health services. We concluded this session by examining the state of health services in Nigeria as well as the philosophy guiding the national health policy in Nigeria.

We have also discussed the levels of health care services in Nigeria as well as some recent developments in the health care financing. In this process, we critically examined the primary, secondary and tertiary levels. This will be complemented with examining recent developments in the health care financing in Nigeria. We also discussed extensively the National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS), which is a new mode of health financing in Nigeria.

Assessment



Assignment

- 1) Explain the concept of health.
- 2) What do you understand by the concept of public health policy?
- 3) Briefly explain the traditional health care system.
- 4) Explain the evolution of modern health system in Nigeria.
- 5) How can you evaluate the state of health system in Nigeria?
- 6) Discuss the philosophy guiding the national health policy.
- 7) How will you explain Health Care in Nigeria?

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Study Session 8

History and Philosophy of Education

Introduction

We will be discussing the history and philosophy of education in Nigeria, in this study session. In the process, we will explore the concept of education as well identifying the various forms of education we have in Nigeria.

Learning Outcomes



Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 8.1 outline the history of education in Nigeria.
- 8.2 explain the philosophy of education in Nigeria.

8.1 Concept of Education

The concept '**education**' is derived from the Latin word *educere*, which means 'to lead out of, a movement from ignorance to knowledge, from foolishness to modern, from darkness to light'. Specifically, education is that instrument through which members of a society acquire the knowledge required of them to live a normal life within the society. Also Fafunwa (1974) defines education more broadly as the aggregate of all the processes by which a child or adult develop the activities, attitudes and other forms of behaviour, which are positive. In other words, it is a process of disseminating knowledge either to ensure social control or to generate rational direction of the society or both. Also, it is a process through which an individual irrespective of his age is taught content of his culture and other relevant ideas, knowledge, values and skills, which makes him a more functional of the society.

8.2 Forms of Education

Often times, people lay emphasis on the formal school system whose origin is traceable to westernisation, thereby downplaying the informal ways of acquiring knowledge within the society. Forms of education can be divided into three main types:

8.2.1 Informal Education

In small, non-literate societies, such as hunting and gathering, education cannot be distinguished from other aspects of life. Up till very recently, but prior to the emergency of industrial capitalism, education was effectively located in the family and other institutions as well as the apprenticeship system in the local communities.

Prior to the colonial incursion in to Nigeria, education was predominantly informal, that is, there were indigenous ways by which people educated themselves. The focus was for individual to grasp the basic rudiments of how his society worked so that he would know how to conform to societal norms.

Informal education, according to Fafunwa (1974), is geared towards the achievement of the following goals:

1. the development of the child's latent physical skills;
2. the development of good character;
3. the inculcation of respect for others and those in position of authority;
4. the development of intellectual skills; and
5. the development of sense of belonging and active participant in family and community.

Therefore, in informal type of education, the whole society is the learning environment and learning is a day long affair unlike in formal educational institutions where learning holds within specified period.

8.2.2 Formal Education

This form of education came first with the introduction of Islamic (Arabic) and later Christian (Western) education. Formal education refers to the kind of education in which the system of training is done in a formal setting designed solely for that purpose. This system of education involves two parties, the learner and the instructor(s) who is (or are) usually employed and paid for the service. Both the colonialist and Christian missionaries contributed to the spread of western education in Nigeria. The driving force at this stage was the perception of indigenous people and their system as uncivilised and barbaric.

Second, to create a set of new men who were to assist in perpetuating colonial interests. Till date, the number of years spent in schools and the number of students attending these institution show the importance society attaches to this form of education. To a very great extent education (i.e. formal education) has consistently become the yardstick for meaning development. Formal certificate, thus serves as the 'meal ticket' for securing jobs, especially, in the formal sector of the economy.

8.2.3 Non-formal Education

This system of education has the features of both informal and formal systems. These include seminars, conferences, symposia, workshops, etc.

Although the process of instruction takes place, those involved are usually contemporaries. Ideas are mainly shared and individual experience(s) enriched. Examinations are not taken at the end of the instruction exercise. In some cases, certificate of participation, may be awarded. The environment in which this kind of education takes place is usually relaxed.

Education in Nigeria is no more a private enterprise, but a huge government venture that has witnessed a progressive evolution of government's complete and dynamic intervention and active participation. The Federal Government of Nigeria has adopted education as an instrument per excellence for effecting national development. It is only natural then that the government should clarify the philosophy and objectives that underlie its current massive investment in education, and spell out in unequivocal terms the policies that guide the government's educational efforts.

It is the government's wish that any existing contradictions, ambiguities, and lack of uniformity in educational practices in the different parts of the Federation be removed to ensure an even and orderly development of the country. The government has also stated that for the benefit of all her citizens, the country's educational goals should be clearly set out in terms of its relevance to the needs of the individual as well as in terms of the kind of society desired in relation to the environment and the realities of the modern world and rapid social changes.

These were the factors which led to the government's summoning in 1973, a seminar of distinguished education experts, under the chairmanship of Chief S.O. Adebayo former Permanent Representative of Nigeria at the United Nations and the then Chairman of the National Universities Commission, to deliberate on all aspects of a National Policy on Education. These experts who were drawn from a wide range of interest, included representatives of both Christian and Islamic religious organisations, the Universities, National Universities Commission, interested external agencies, ministries and organisations of private and public sectors who are interested in the end-products, of education for purposes of employment, women's organisation and others. Quite a good part of the present document is based on the recommendations of the seminar, modified in their passage through the various organs of government which examined the recommendations, as well as by the passage of time which made some recommendations either obsolete, having been overtaken by events, or no longer acceptable in the light of changing circumstances.

The government needs to place on record its appreciation of the excellent work done by the men and women who presented papers at the seminar, participants and officials, as well as by the National Council for Education, the Joint Consultative Committee on Education, the National Educational Research Council and Federal Ministry of Education officials whose comments helped to improve the final recommendations that went to the Federal Government, including the various specialists in different fields of education who helped to review and updated the seminar recommendations and to advise the Government on the implications of the implementation.

It is government's intention that the far-reaching recommendations set out in the twelve sections of this document should start to transform all aspects of the national's life without delay. Government has therefore set up a National Education Policy Implementation Committee which translated the policy into a workable blueprint that will guide the bodies whose duty it is to implement educational policy, and also develop a monitoring system of the progress of the planned educational evaluation to ensure that items of infrastructure are prepared and bottle-necks removed in time to facilitate the effective smooth implementation of the National Policy on Education.

Since education is a dynamic instrument of change, this policy will need to be constantly reviewed to ensure its adequacy and continued relevance to national needs and objectives.

8.3 History of Education in Nigeria

For generations before the arrival of Europeans, Nigerians taught their children informally about their culture, work, survival skills, and social activities. Some societies gave more formal instruction about their culture as part of young peoples' rites of passage into adulthood. In Islamic communities, students studied the Koran and read other religious texts written in Arabic. Many of the more able students pursued higher Islamic studies and became teachers, clerics, or legal scholars. By 1919, Northern Nigeria had about 25,000 Qur'anic schools. A large number of Islamic schools are still in operation.

In Lagos, Calabar, and other coastal cities, Christian missionaries introduced European education in the 1840s. Within a few decades, schooling in English was well established, and some elite families sent their children abroad to study. Enrollments expanded rapidly in the south; were uneven in the middle belt, depending on where missionaries were active; and were virtually nonexistent in the north. Consequently, as late as 1973, fewer than 10 percent of children in the far north were enrolled in primary schools, compared with nearly 90 percent of children in Lagos State. The gap was even greater in secondary and post-secondary schools.

Government's reforms in the 1970s led to a primary-school enrollment rate of about 90 percent of all Nigerian children in 1980. The rapid expansion contributed to falling standards of instruction and other problems. By 1990, only 72 percent of children attended the compulsory first six years of education, due to government cutbacks, rising school fees, the deterioration of buildings, inferior instruction, and poor prospects of graduates. Enrollment rates remain lower for girls than boys, primarily because many rural northerners remain skeptical about schooling for girls. In 1996, the enrollment rate for secondary schools was 34 percent.

Adult literacy is estimated to be 90 percent for men and 85 percent for women—an improvement over years past, and this resulted from universal primary education and programmes for adult literacy. Official data, however, estimate literacy only in English, thus discounting the significant level of literacy in Arabic among northern Muslims.

In 1996, Nigeria had 37 universities, 25 funded by the federal government and 12 by state governments. The oldest, University of Ibadan, was founded in 1948 as a college of the University of London and became autonomous in 1962. Many of the other prominent universities - University of Nigeria in Nsukka, Obafemi Awolowo University (formerly University of Ife), Ahmadu Bello University in Zaria, and University of Lagos - were founded in the years immediately following independence in 1960. In 1970, the University of Benin was opened, followed in 1975 by new universities in Calabar, Ilorin, Jos, Kano, Maiduguri, Port Harcourt, and Sokoto. Since 1980 several more universities have opened, including institutions specialising in agriculture and technology. Since the return of Nigeria to civilian rule in 1999, more than twenty private Universities have been licensed to operate. In addition, several varieties of polytechnic schools, including Yaba College of Technology in Lagos and Kaduna Polytechnic, and other non-degree postsecondary programmes have been established over the years. All these however expanded the scope of education in Nigeria. For instance, in 1994, the total enrollment in Nigerian universities was 208,000.

8.4 Philosophy of Nigeria Education

Since a national policy on education is government's way of achieving that part of its national objectives that can be achieved using education as a tool, no policy on education can be formulated without first identifying the overall philosophy and objective of the nation.

The five major national objectives as stated in the Second National Development Plan and endorsed as the necessary foundation for the National Policy on Education are the following:

1. a free and democratic society;
2. a just and egalitarian society;
3. a united, strong and self-reliant nation;
4. a great and dynamic economy;
5. a land of bright and full opportunities for all citizens.

Nigeria's philosophy of education, therefore, is based on the building of the individual into a sound and effective citizen and the philosophy also entails equal educational opportunities for all citizens of the nation at the primary, secondary and tertiary levels, both inside and outside the formal school system.

In consequence, the quality of instruction at all levels has to be oriented towards inculcating the following values:

1. respect for the worth and dignity of the individual;
2. faith in man's ability to make rational decisions;
3. moral and spiritual values in inter-personal and human relations;
4. shared responsibility for the common good of the society;
5. respect for the dignity of labour; and
6. promotion of the emotional, physical and psychological health of all children,

For the philosophy to be in harmony with Nigeria's national objectives, it has to be geared towards self-realisation, better human relationship, individual and national efficiency, effective citizenship, national consciousness, national unity, as well as towards social, cultural, economic, political, scientific and technological progress.

The national educational aims and objectives to which the philosophy is linked are therefore:

1. the inculcation of national consciousness and national unity;
2. the inculcation of the right type of values and attitudes for the survival of the individual and the Nigerian society;
3. the training of the mind in the understanding of the world around; and
4. the acquisition of appropriate skills, abilities and competencies both mental and physical equipment, for the individual to live in, and contribute to, the development of this society.

The desire that Nigeria should be a free just and democratic society, a land full of opportunities for all its citizens, able to generate a great and dynamic economy and growing into a united, strong and self-reliant nation cannot be over-emphasized. In order, to fully realize the potentials of the contributions of education to the achievement of the objectives, all other agencies will operate in concert with education to that end. Furthermore, to foster the much needed unity of Nigeria, imbalances in inter and intra-state development have to be corrected. Not only is education the greatest tool that can be used to bring about redress, it is also the greatest investment that the nation can make for the quick development of its economic, political, sociological and human resources.

The government intends to take these following measures to implement the policy:

1. Education will continue to be highly rated in the national development plans, because education is the most important instrument of change; as any fundamental change in the intellectual and social outlook of any society has to be proceeded by an educational revolution.
2. Lifelong education will be the basis for the nation's educational policy.
3. Educational and training facilities will be multiplied and made more accessible, to afford the individual a far more diversified and flexible choice.
4. Educational activity will be centered on the learner for maximum self-development and fulfillment.
5. Universal basic education, in a variety of forms, depending on needs and possibilities, will be provided for all citizens.
6. Efforts will be made to relate education to the overall community needs.

7. Educational assessment and evaluation will be liberalised by basing them in whole or in part on continuous assessment of the progress of the individual.
8. Modern educational techniques will be increasingly used and improved at all levels of the education system.
9. The educational system will be structured to develop the practice of self-learning.
10. At any stage of the educational progress after primary education, an individual will be able to choose between continuing his full-time studies, combining work with study, or embarking on full-time employment without excluding the prospect of resuming studies later on.
11. Opportunity will continue to be made available for religious instruction. No child will be made available for religious instruction, which is contrary to the wishes of his parents.
12. Physical education will be emphasized at all levels of the education system.

In conclusion, the Nigerian government appears to appreciate the importance of language in the educational process, and as a means of preserving the people's culture. The government considers it to be in the interest of national unity that each child should be encouraged to learn one of the three major languages other than his own mother-tongue. In this connection, the government considers the three major languages in Nigeria to be Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba. The importance of language in the educational process, and as a means of preserving the people's culture cannot be over emphasized.

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this Study Session, we discussed the history of education in Nigeria from the traditional period to the present era. We also examined philosophy behind education in Nigeria. We also discussed the objectives behind the philosophy which included among other things; the inculcation of national consciousness and national unity; the inculcation of the right type of values and attitudes for the survival of the individual and Nigeria society; the training of the mind in the understanding of the world around and the acquisition of appropriate skills, abilities and competencies both mental and physical equipment for the individual to live in and contribute to the development of his society.

Assessment



Assignment

1. How will you define education?
2. Briefly trace the history of education in Nigeria?
3. Briefly examine the philosophy of education in Nigeria.
4. Discuss the objectives behind the philosophy of education in Nigeria.

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Study Session 9

Issues in Nigeria's Educational Sector

Introduction

In this Study Session, discussion shall be on some critical issues involved in education in Nigeria. In the process, we shall start by examining the education policy and politics in Nigeria as well as various policies put in place by various governments to get Nigerians educated. You shall also explore contemporary issues in Nigeria such as Quota System, Federal Character, Educationally Disadvantaged States as well as Commercialisation of education in Nigeria.

Learning Outcomes



Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 9.1 highlight the link between education policy and politics in Nigeria.
 - 1 discuss various efforts made by past governments to get Nigerians educated;
 - 2 explain the concept of Quota System as it relates to education in Nigeria;
 - 3 explain the concept of Federal Character as it relates to education in Nigeria; and
 - 4 explain the concept of Educationally Disadvantaged States.

9.1 Education Policy and Politics in Nigeria

It will be practically difficult if not impossible in a space this short to exhaustively discuss the politics of education in Nigeria. Discussing Nigeria's education policy and politics requires as extensive analysis of the various issues, interests and values that have shaped and will continue to shape educational policies in Nigeria. However, suffice it to say that politics being the authoritative allocation of values (Easton, 1965), its influence in the educational sub-system, and indeed in every other aspects of the social system, has always been very decisive, transformatory and sometimes even unsettling. This has become very imperative because, sequel to the fact that resources to satisfy society's competing ends are scarce, it is only logical that policy makers in the exercise of their governmental powers will have to decide who gets what, when and how.

And in the field of education this will involve such decisions as to what kind of educational policies and programmes are to be formulated, when they are to be implemented, how they are to be executed and worse still, who benefits at the end.

In the light of the above, we will, even if in a highly abbreviated manner, discuss the concept of politics of education system in Nigeria.

The influence of Politics on Education Policy in Nigeria

It may be instructive to start this section by re-iterating that what we now call formal education in Nigerian is a product of our contact with the forces of global imperialism beginning from the 15th century. There have been speculations of attempts by the early Portuguese explorers of that era to establish schools in the courtyards of native chiefs and potentates to educate their sons and natives who were converted to Christianity, but all these were short-lived as a result of the slave trade of over three centuries, which left Nigerian and indeed the rest of Africa battered, and decimated.

The second wave of missionary education in the country was pioneered at the threshold of formal colonialism by Revd. Thomas Birch Freeman of the Methodist Church and Revd Henry Townsend of the Church Missionary Society (later Anglican Church) in 1843 when their missions established formal schools in Badagry and Abeokuta respectively to help them in their proselytising mission. It must be emphasized here that while other missionary groups took a cue from this to establish more schools in various towns and villages in the southern part of the country, the thrust of their curriculum revolved around the three basic “Rs”: reading, writing and arithmetic. A fourth “R” was later added (religion) which only went further to reinforce the argument that the object of their education was to acculturise the people into European values, thought and belief.

The first major intrusion of politics into the sphere of education in the country was in 1925 when the British colonial government issued its Memorandum on Education in British Tropical Africa which, among other things, regulated the establishment of schools by voluntary agencies, insisted on compulsory registration of all teaching staff, and defined the role of the government and its supervisory agencies in the education system of the colonies. It must be emphasized that before this time, the voluntary agencies had been left alone to manage the education system the way they could and might probably have been allowed more leeway but for the publication of the Phelps-Stoke Commission Report (entitled: “Education in Africa”) in 1922, which indicted the colonial government for laissez faire attitude in the educational upbringing of its subjects in West, South and Equatorial Africa.

Since then, the influence of politics on education had become more obvious as more edicts and ordinances had been promulgated by successive governments to regulate activities in the sector. The import of this has been the overt takingover of the image and direction of the education system by the political decision makers soon after flag independence in 1960.

Education, being an agent of socialization, it is understandable that the government would want to use it, or at least control it, in its bid to ensure that the values and ideology of the extant ruling class are transmitted from generation to generation.

In 1977, the federal government enunciated a National Policy on Education (revised in 1981) which among other things set out the broad objectives of government in the sub-sector. There was no pretension as to the political undertones underlining it as the policy stated *inter alia* that:

“education in Nigeria is no more a private enterprise, but a huge government venture that has witnessed a progressive evolution of government’s complete and dynamic intervention and active participation (National Policy on Education, 1981:5)”.

The Policy which gave additional boost to the Universal Primary Education (UPE) scheme that was instituted a year earlier (1976), also delineated in clear terms what government’s philosophy and objectives were with regards to the other levels of education. This policy along with the 1979 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria which placed education on the concurrent legislative list, served as the *magna carta* that empowered our political decision-makers to chart the course of education in the country.

Based on the fact that soon after the civil war (1967-1970), all the state governments had enacted edicts harrying away the control of schools from voluntary agencies and placing them under their firm control, the 1979 Constitution and others that followed it invariably made the politicisation of education a *fait accompli*. While some state governments declared: “Free education” at primary or all levels, some others insisted they were pursuing “free paying but qualitative education”. Even in the sitting of schools, government has always displayed preference for political exigencies and other primordial calculations in place of objective rationality.

Funding is also another area where politics takes precedence over economic needs and viability as federal and state governments’ funds to the educational sector take the form of a carrot-and-stick approach. While states or localities seen as supportive by the government in power (or having influential people at the corridors of power) are provided with their educational needs, perceived as belonging to or hob-nobbing with the opposition are denied theirs on the excuse of lack of funds.

As at the present time the northern part of the country is engrossed in a concerted attempt to bridge the educational gap between the area and the south. Consequently, all avenues are explored and employed in the pursuit of this sworn objective. The result is the setting up of a subtle *affirmative action* through such ostensibly innocuous instruments like “Catchment Areas” in university admission; “Educationally Disadvantaged-States”; “State of Origin;” and, until recently, their overbearing influence in the Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board (JAMB).

Discussion on education in Nigeria will be incomplete without reference to bureaucracy, autonomy and change in education sector in Nigeria. Against this background, it must be emphasized here that Nigeria's education system is organised along the Max Weber's ideal bureaucratic framework of hierarchy of authority formalism, rules and regulation, record-keeping, career orientations, and employment/promotion, based on seniority or achievement, or both.

The three levels of government in the country (federal, state and local) are all involved in the running of education. While the federal and state governments concurrently legislate on educational matters, consequent upon which they establish and run their own secondary and tertiary institutions, the local/governments are restricted by the constitution to the management of primary education.

Within the system itself, authority flows from the Federal Ministry of Education, which serves as the regulatory agency, through the State Ministry to the Local Education Authorities and down to the individual schools concerned. Sometimes, the primary locus of authority can also be the State Ministry of Education. This is normally the case for matters that are peculiar to a particular state.

Typically, the above scenario throws up a plethora of problems. For instance, the hierarchical structure of the educational system has been known to block informal channels of communication as the pyramidal form of authority relationship ensures that the sector is characterised by a labyrinthine layers of officialdom, which leads to inhibitions in the attainment of goals.

The result is that communication flow is most time delayed or even outrightly sabotaged as the one-way flow of directives from top to bottom is abhorred by those on whom it is intended. According to Weber (1964), rules and regulations are supposed to act as the *raison d'être* of bureaucratic organizations as they are expected to guide group behaviour serve as a reference point in all activities within the organisation, and promote efficiency and rationality; yet sometimes they render the organisation less responsive to unique circumstances and less able to benefit from the expertise of individual employees

This restrictive scenario has led to clamours for some measure of autonomy within the system. But beyond these formal problems bolstered by the structural constraints in the system, the social constraints thrown up by the politicisation of education in the country equally demands attention. The politicisation of education implies that recruitment, selection and placement of staff within the system be carried out through a process purportedly merit-inclined but apparently nepotistic in substance.

The need to reflect federal character in appointments to offices within the federal public service has necessitated the sacrifice of achievement orientations, as employees no longer earn their appointment by dint of hard work but by a compensatory scheme that confers on them the privilege to represent the interest of their ethnic group in the scheme of things.

Funding is also another area where the influence of bureaucratic bottleneck has been substantial. Appropriation earmarked for the sector by both the federal and state governments are not released timely; and worse still such funds are sometimes diverted to sources or grouped other projects than the one to which they are originally intended. The result is that teachers, especially, those that are seen as antagonistic to the party in power, are owed arrears of salaries running into several months. It is on record that the huge arrears of salaries owed primary school teachers in 1993 led to the repeal of a 1991 decree that had transferred the onus of paying teachers salaries to local government councils in the country. Even in the present dispensation, there have been muted and overt strike actions by primary and secondary teachers in some states who aver that their salaries are diverted by politicians and bureaucrats to satisfy their personal needs.

Bureaucracy has also ensured that heads of educational institutions are not in a position to take quick decisions demanded by contingencies without recourse to their supervisory agency (ies). A case in point is the situation before now where Vice Chancellors cannot re-open their shut universities after a staff or students' strike without approval from the Presidency. The universities themselves cannot run courses, which they are qualified to run by virtue of their human and material resources, except such courses are approved by the National Universities Commission (NUC). They are also required by regulation to ensure that only a certain percentage or ratio of their teaching staff are promoted to the ranks of professor, irrespective of how many staff are qualified for such elevation.

Expectedly, academics within the system under the umbrella of the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) have persistently fought against these politically imposed constraints. Interestingly, the present administration's response to the issue is in the form of an outrageous autonomy bill submitted to the National Assembly through which it latently intends to over-liberalise and commercialise education, while on the other hand conferring unlimited powers on university administration to discipline critical and radical lecturers. How far the issue of bureaucratisation, autonomy and change will drag on is only a matter of conjecture.

9.2 Contemporary Issues in Nigerian Education

The intriguing aspect of this section and perhaps the most agonising is in isolating those issues within our educational system that can be appropriately tagged "contemporary". The problem is exacerbated by the fact that educational phenomena, just like other systems within the macrocosmic social system, are in a state of flux thereby rendering any analysis obsolete in no time. Nevertheless, it may be instructive to note that some of these contemporary issues have been highlighted in our foregoing discussion. Consequently we may just have to discuss the

issue of quota system, federal character, educationally disadvantaged states among others.

9.2.1 Quota System

This refers to an Affirmative Action policy by which admission into federal secondary schools (popularly called Unity or Schools) and universities is conducted on the basis of the percentage or proportion reserved for each state in the federation. Thus, each state is reserved a number of choices (quota) in schools located outside its geographical boundaries, which it (the state) cannot exceed. The obvious implication of this is that no matter the brilliant performance put up by candidates from a particular state in a nationally conducted entrance examination, once its chances are taken up by those not fortunate to be accommodated within the quota, the candidates are dropped to try again another year. This is without prejudice to the fact that candidates from other states who may have performed poorly in the exams relative to the dropped candidates will be short-listed for admission.

9.2.2 Federal Character

Federal character in terms of design and purpose is synonymous with the concept of quota system, except that it is normally applied to employment opportunities and postings in the federal public service. Its essence, according to the 1990 constitution, is to ensure adequate representation for the federating units at the decision-making centres at the federal level. The constitution also established a Federal Character Commission whose main function is to ensure an effective realization of the objective. Within the educational system, application of the policy had implied that while officers on Grade Level (GL) 01-06 are recruited from the states where the educational institution is located, those on GL 07 and above are recruited and posted through the Federal Civil Service Commission, which adheres strictly to this criterion in the execution of its assignment.

9.2.3 Educationally Disadvantaged States

These are states within the country, which are presumed to be educationally backward, compared to their neighbours, which are not educationally disadvantaged. The foregoing concept has its roots in the colonial era where some sections of the country were receptive to western education and other sections were not. That headstart over time refracted into an educational gap between the regions, which was carried over into our present thirty-six states structure. The result has been that government has had to pump more resources into these educationally disadvantaged states to enable them bridge the educational gap and eventually catch up with their neighbours.

Beyond the political undertone, which it serves, it remains to be seen how, much has been achieved by governments both at the federal and state levels in their resolve to narrow the gap. The fact that many states within the disadvantaged zone are yet to throw off the phony garb and don the garb of educationally developed states many years after the federal government's attack on the "scourge" shows in clear terms that the phenomenon has not achieved its intended purposes. If anything, it has

continued to provide a facade for state officials to siphon away public funds for private purposes. It has also served to dampen the zeal or attempt by such designated states to strive to break off their self-imposed yoke of high illiteracy ratio and institute a radical approach to catch up with the rest of the country. This is also true of the two afore-mentioned issues, quota system and federal character, whose net effect has been to demoralise those from sections of the country where there is high achievement orientation, while promoting mediocrity and encouraging those involved in indolence to see it as a virtue.

9.2.4 Commercialisation of Education

Following the implementation of the Bretton Woods engineered policy of structural adjustment in the country in 1987, social services in the country has witnessed a drastic reduction in government funding and, as a corollary, gradual commercialisation of activities in the sector. The result has been the introduction of commercial charges for services that were hitherto subsidised or provided entirely free of charge by the government for the citizens. One of the sectors worse hit by this liberalisation policy has been the education sector. Although the government has remodelled its former Universal primary Education (UPE) into a Universal Basic Education (UBE), insisting that its thrust is to provide free but qualitative education at the basic (primary) level, yet the hidden charges paid by parents, who are sometimes saddled with the responsibility of buying sticks of chalk, dusters, drinking buckets and schools uniforms for their children and wards, put a question mark on the avowed objective of the government. Even at the tertiary level where government claims that tuition is free, the removal of subsidy on feeding and accommodation has ensured that the poor can no longer have access to higher education. It remains doubtful if the interest of government here is not to promote educationally inequality among the population in order to foreclose the only leverage that would have afforded the poor the opportunity to aspire for high positions in government. This in essence is the politics of education.

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this Study Session, we explained the concept of politics of education, and its historical evolution. The enunciation of educational policies that were politically motives and the use of education to pursue political ends were also explored. The organizational structure of the country's education system was also explored thereby projecting to the fore the bureaucratic log-jams existing in the system and the need for autonomy and change. Finally, an objective analysis of some contemporary issues in education, such as quota system, federal character, educationally disadvantaged states and commercialisation of education was made with the conclusion that these issues need to be dispassionately looked at in order to ensure that our educational system achieves both the national and international objectives of the country.

Assessment



Assignment

1. Is there any link between education policy and politics in Nigeria?
2. Discuss briefly various efforts made by governments to make education accessible to the people in Nigeria.
3. Differentiate between the concepts of Quota System and Federal Character as they relate to education in Nigeria.
4. Is there any link between educational policy and politics in Nigeria?
5. Discuss the link between bureaucracy, autonomy and change in educational sector in Nigeria.
6. With concrete examples discuss the concepts of Quota System and Federal Character as they relate to education in Nigeria.

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Study Session 10

Population Policies

Introduction

In this lecture, discussion shall be on the issues relating to population in the world at large and Nigeria in particular. I shall begin by discussing the state of world population; the challenges posed by rapid increase in the world population, population policies in both developed and developing countries and Nigeria in particular.

Learning Outcomes



Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 1.1 ...
- 2 discuss the state of world population;
- 3 discuss the challenges posed by increase in the world population;
- 4 explain the population policies in the developed and developing countries; and
- 5 explain the population policies in Nigeria.

10.1 Overview of World Population

The United Nation (UN), an accepted authority on population levels and trends, estimates that world population reached 6 billion in 1999, and increasing annually by more than 77 million persons. The rate of increase, 1.3 percent per year, has fallen below that peak rate of 2 percent per year attained by 1970 by the late 2040s, the UN estimated, that growth rate will have fallen to about 0.64 percent annually, at which time more than 50 countries will experience negative growth.

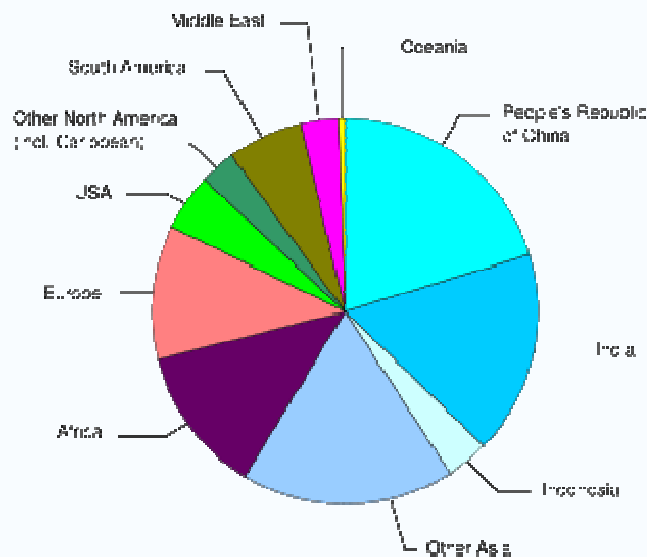
Estimates of world population before 1900 were based on fragmentary data, but scholars agree that, for most of human existence, long-run average population growth approached approximately 0.002 percent per year, or 20 per million inhabitants. According to UN estimates, the population of the world was about 300 million in the year AD 1, and it took more than 1,500 years to reach the 500 million mark. Growth was not steady but was marked by oscillations dictated by climatic changes, food supply, diseases, and wars.

Starting in the 17th century, great advances in scientific knowledge, agriculture, industry, medicine, and social organisation made possible rapid acceleration in population growth. Machines gradually replaced human and animal labour. People slowly acquired the knowledge and

means to control diseases. By 1900, the world population had reached 1.65 billion, and by 1960, it stood at 3.04 billion.

Beginning about 1950, a new phase of population growth was ushered in when famine and disease could be controlled even in areas that had not yet attained a high degree of literacy or a technologically developed industrial society. This happened as a result of the modest cost of importing the vaccines, antibiotics, insecticides, and high-yielding varieties of seeds produced since the 1950s. With improvements in water supplies, sewage-disposal facilities, and transportation networks, agricultural yields increased, and deaths from infectious and parasitic diseases greatly declined. Life expectancy at birth in most developing countries increased from about 35-40 years in 1950 to 66 years by 2000. The rapid decline in deaths among people who maintained generally high fertility rates led to annual population growth that exceeded 3.1 percent in many developing nations - a rate that doubles population size in 23 years.

Distribution of World Population in 2005



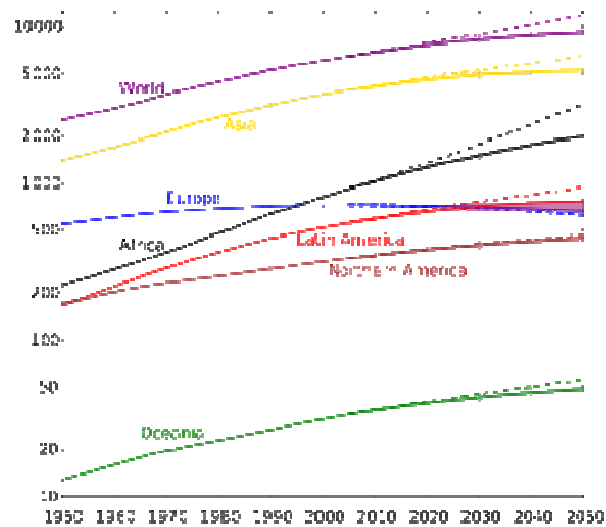
In a nutshell, the world population is the total number of [humans](#) on the [Earth](#) at a given time. By [February 2008](#), the world's [population](#) is believed to have reached over 6.65 billion. In line with population projections, this figure continues to [grow](#) at rates that were unprecedented before the 20th century, although the rate of increase has almost halved since its peak, which was reached in 1963, of 2.2 percent per year. The world's [population](#), on its current growth trajectory, is expected to reach nearly 9 000 000 000 by 2050.

10.2 Global Population Challenges

From 1950 to 2000, the world's population grew from about 2.5 billion to more than 6 billion. The pace of population growth may continue to increase. Can the world's land and resources support the demands of so many people? In a March 2003 feature article in the Encarta Yearbook, Lester Brown, the founder and president of the World Watch Institute,

discussed the causes and problems of population growth and explained measures countries can take to stabilise their populations.

According to some demographers, the population of the world grew at an infinitesimal rate for most of human history, about 0.002 percent per year. Not until the 17th century, with advances in science, agriculture, and industry, did world population growth begin to accelerate. Over the next 300 years, the world's population increased fivefold, from about 500 million in 1650 to about 2.5 billion in 1950.



Population evolution in different [continents](#). The vertical axis is logarithmic and it expresses millions of people.

In the second half of the 20th century, the population grew even faster, reaching more than 6 billion in 2000, according to the United Nations (UN). These figures mean that the world's population has grown more in 50 years than it did during the more than 4 million years since our early ancestors first stood upright.

This unprecedented growth in population, combined with rising individual consumption of food, water, and natural resources, has begun to strain Earth's capacity to sustain human life. Demands for water are draining supplies from aquifers (layers of permeable rock, sand, or gravel that serve as repositories of water) and other water sources. Demand for fish, a food staple in many areas of the world, is contributing to the depletion of fish stocks around the world. Human activities that cause pollution and encroach on habitats are responsible for the greatest extinction and encroachment on natural habitats is responsible for the greatest extinction of plant and animal species since the dinosaurs disappeared about 65 million years ago. Meanwhile, *global warming* (an increase in Earth's surface temperature caused largely by the burning of fossil fuels) has begun to change Earth's climate in ways not yet fully understood. In short, the growth in human population and the scale of human activities appear to be redirecting the natural course of our planet.

The 15 Most Populous Nations

From: DSW-Data report 2006 ("Deutsche Stiftung Weltbevölkerung"):

1. [China](#): 1.32 billion (about 20% of world population)

2. [India](#): 1.12 billion (about 17%)
3. [United States](#): 300 million (about 4.6%)
4. [Indonesia](#): 225 million (about 3.5%)
5. [Brazil](#): 186 million (about 2.8%)
6. [Pakistan](#): 165 million (about 2.5%)
7. [Bangladesh](#): 147 million (about 2.3%)
8. [Russia](#): 143 million (about 2.2%)
9. [Nigeria](#): 140 million (about 2.1%)
10. [Japan](#): 128 million (about 2.0%)
11. [Mexico](#): 108 million (about 1.7%)
12. [Vietnam](#): 87 million (about 1.3%)
13. [Philippines](#): 86 million (about 1.3%)
14. [Germany](#): 82 million (about 1.3%)
15. [Egypt](#): 75 million (about 1.2%)

10.3 Population Policies in Developed Countries

Government population policies seek to contribute to national development and welfare goals through measures that, directly or indirectly, aim to influence demographic processes—in particular, fertility, migration etc. Examples include statutory minimum ages for marriage, programme to promote the use of contraceptives, and controls on immigration. (When such policies are adopted for other than demographic reasons, they can be termed implicit policies).

European countries did not address the issue of a national population policy until the 20th century. Subsidies were granted to expanding families by such disparate nations as the United Kingdom, Sweden, and the USSR. The Italian Fascists in the 1920s and the National Socialists (Nazis) in Germany during the 1930s made population growth an essential part of their doctrines.

Japan, with an economy comparable to those of the European nations, was the first developed country in modern times to initiate a birth-control program. In 1948, the Japanese government formally instituted a policy using both contraception and abortion to limit family size.

European pro-natalist policies were conspicuously unsuccessful in 1930s, and their milder variations over the past few decades (in, for example, France and many Eastern European nations) have apparently done little to slow a continuing fertility decline. Government control of migration is more straightforward. Short-term migration tied to labour demands (guest workers) has been a common practice in Western Europe, allowing the various nations the flexibility to curtail migration during economic recessions.

10.4 Population Policies in Developing Countries

With special reference to India, in 1952 India took the lead among developing nations in adopting an official policy to slow its population growth. India's stated purpose was to facilitate social and economic development by reducing the burden of a young and rapidly growing population. Surveys to ascertain contraceptive knowledge, attitude, and practice showed a high proportion of couples wishing no more children. Few, however, practice efficient contraception. Family planning programmes were seen as a way to satisfy a desire for contraception by a large segment of the population and also to confer health benefits from spacing and limiting births.

Asia's lowered growth rate can be attributed mainly to the stringent population policies of China. Although it has a huge population, China has successfully reduced both fertility and mortality. The government has recently been advocating one-child families to lower the nation's growth rate.

By 1979, more than 90 percent of the population in developing countries lived under government that, in principle at least, supported access to contraceptives by their citizens, based on considerations of health and the right to choose to have children and to space them at desired intervals. Recent evidence indicates that progress towards the objectives of lowered fertility and national growth is being achieved in many nations, in part by government support for family planning programmes.



Activity

Time required:
40 minutes

The Case of Nigeria

Read the article on Population Policy in Nigeria (Appendix A, [linked here](#)).

Highlight the policies. What do you consider as the rationale behind the policies?

Discussion

The background of the policies in the article informs the need for us to examine the impact of rural community structures on the adopting of efficient contraceptive methods. The study departed from the standpoint that variation in rural communities of Nigeria, in terms of social, cultural, economic and infrastructural development are bound to have considerable influence on attitudes towards the adoption of efficient modern contraceptive techniques. It becomes essentially important to identify those rural community indicators critical to the adoption of efficient modern contraceptive techniques. It becomes essentially important to identify those rural community indicators critical to the adoption and non-adoption of modern contraceptive techniques to ensure a successful propagation and implementation of programmes for an improved contraceptive prevalence rate (CPR) in rural communities of Nigeria.

The Nigerian Government has integrated family planning in the Primary Health Care (PHC) and women development programmes so as to improve the availability and distribution of family planning services to the Nigerian populace. It is expected that the contraceptive prevalence rate (CPR) will rise from its low level to 50-60 percent within the next decades. Such expectation indicates on less than ten-fold increase in CPR during this period and it is definitely an uphill task particularly in a country with widespread illiteracy; limited urbanisation, preponderance of farmers and related workers in the workforce; traditionalism in religious beliefs; high adult mortality; low age at marriage; universality of marriage; polygamy, poverty and limited knowledge or negative attitude towards the practice of modern methods of fertility regulation.

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this Study Session, we have discussed the issue of population. We have argued that in 2000, the [United Nations](#) estimated that the world's population was then growing at the rate of 1.14% (or about 75 million people) per year, down from a peak of 86 million per year in 1987. In the last few centuries, the number of people living on Earth has increased many times over. By the year 2000, there were 10 times as many people on Earth than there were 300 years ago. In [February 2008](#), the world's [population](#) is believed to have reached over 6.65 billion. In line with population projections, this figure continues to [grow](#) at rates that were unprecedented before the 20th century, although the rate of increase has almost halved since its peak, which was reached in 1963, of 2.2 percent per year. The world's [population](#), on its current growth trajectory, is expected to reach nearly 9, 000, 000, 000 by the year 2050. We finally examined the population policies in the developed and developing countries with special reference to Nigeria's 1988 population policy.

Assessment



Assignment

- 1) Critically assess the state of world population.
- 2) Briefly examine the challenges posed by the increase in the world population.
- 3) Explain briefly the population policies in developed and developing countries.
- 4) Discuss the population policies in Nigeria with specific examples.
- 5) Critically assess the 1988 population policies in Nigeria.

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Study Session 11

Labour Legislation in Nigeria

Introduction

Our focus in this session is labour legislation in Nigeria. We will begin by examining the sources of the Nigeria labour law. We will also examine who is a worker, the various ways of terminating employment contract and avenues available to a worker who is wrongfully dismissed to seek redress.

Learning Outcomes



Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 1.1
- 2 discuss who a worker is;
- 3 discuss the contract of employment;
- 4 explain the various ways by which the contract of employment can be terminated; and
- 5 highlight the avenues available for redressing wrongful dismissal.

11.1 Sources of Nigerian Labour Laws

Nigeria's legal system is based on the English common law, which continues to apply except to the extent it has been modified by some statutes. In relation to the termination of employment, the most important statutes are the Labour Act 1974 (LA) (also known as the Labour Decree 1974), as amended, and the Trade Disputes Act 1976 (TDA).

11.2 Scope of Legislation

All labour law statutes in Nigeria, including the LA and the TDA, apply only to those persons considered "employees" at common law (i.e. those employed under a "contract of service" rather than a "contract for services"). In addition, both Acts apply only to those employees who are "workers". The LA defines a worker as any person who has entered into a contract (of service) with an employer, whether the contract is for manual or clerical work, or is expressed or implied, or oral or written (*sec. 90*, LA). The courts have interpreted this definition to apply only to manual or clerical workers. The LA definition also excludes:

1. any person not employed for the purposes of the employer's business (such as domestic staff);

2. persons exercising administrative, executive, technical or professional functions;
3. members of the employer's family (also excluded by *sec. 21* of the LA);
4. representatives, agents and commercial travellers, to the extent that their work is carried out outside the employer's permanent workplace;
5. home workers; and
6. any persons employed at sea or on an aeroplane, who are governed by specific legislation.
7. In addition, members of the armed forces and police are excluded from the LA .

The definition of "worker" in the TDA mirrors the LA definition, except that it is expressly extended to workers other than manual or clerical workers and to apprentices. Furthermore, the exceptions listed above do not apply (*sec. 47*). However, again, members of the armed forces and police are excluded from the TDA (*sec. 48*).

11.2.1 Contract of Employment

Contracts of employment may be either contract for an indefinite period or for a fixed term or fixed amount of work. The common law position that contracts for a fixed term or fixed amount of work expire according to their terms is codified in *sec. 9(7)(a)* of the LA and this rule has not been modified by statute, nor is there any further statutory regulation of fixed-term contracts.

Probationary periods are possible; although, as the statutes do not exclude probationary employees from their ambit, the statutory notice periods (see below) also apply to probationary employees. The term "casual worker" has no legal significance in Nigeria.

11.2.2 Termination of Contract of employment

The termination of contract of employment other than at the employer's initiative is largely governed by common law. Contracts of employment may be terminated, other than at the employer's initiative, by:

1. Mutual agreement, either by an agreement as to the term of the contract or an agreement that employment should end. In this case, the parties to an employment contract can, at any time, by mutual agreement, either in accordance with the terms of the contract or otherwise, bring the employment to an end. And this is true whether the contract is of a definite or an indefinite duration.
2. Frustration: Any contract of employment may be brought to an end by frustration. When frustration occurs, it kills the contract itself and discharges both parties automatically. A contract of employment will be brought to an end by frustration where changes in the circumstance of the employment either render further performance of the contract impossible or where the obligations undertaken by the parties under the contract have

become radically different. Events such as death of either party to a contract, illness of an employee, outbreak of war, change in the law or even imprisonment of an employee may bring about frustration.

3. The employee resigning by giving the requisite notice. There is no doubt that either party to a contract of employment has a common right to bring the contract to an end by giving notice of this intention to the other party. However to do this, appropriate notice must be given.
4. Summary dismissal: This refers to where employee persists in refusing to obey his employer's orders. In this case, the employer will be justified in dismissing him. Therefore after a refusal on the part of the employee to perform his work, the employer is not bound to keep him on as a burdensome and useless employee. However, where incompetence is alleged, the onus is on the employer not only to prove the incompetence but also that it justifies summary dismissal. Thus where an employer alleges incompetence on the part of the employee, but he is unable to prove it, the dismissal is held to be wrongful. Besides, under the general law of contract, only conduct or breach which amounts to a repudiation of contract will justify the innocent party in opting to bring the contract to an end. A single act of misconduct may justify summary dismissal. Misconduct, whether cumulative or single, is viewed in the same way. The real difficulty is in determining whether misconduct evinces an intention to disregard an essential condition of the employment. Not every misconduct amounts to a repudiatory misconduct; although, there is no fixed rule of law which defines the degree of misconduct which amounts to repudiation. Where misconduct is committed outside working hours, it will justify dismissal only when it is proved to be harmful to the employer's business or reflects on the employee's capacity to perform his duties in accordance with the contractual terms, expressed or implied. Even when summary dismissal is held justified, it cannot be made to take retrospective effect from the date of the misconduct held to justify the dismissal.

Sec. 10 of the LA codifies the common law position that an employee's contract of employment may not be transferred from one employer to another without the employee's consent; and, in addition, requires authorisation of any transfer of employment by a government labour officer, who may also require a medical examination.

Dismissal

There is no general statutory principle against unfair dismissal in Nigeria, and the law of dismissal is largely governed by the common law, as affected by the LA. However, a dismissal may constitute a "trade dispute" under the TDA, in which case the worker concerned may bring a claim to the National Industrial Court (NIC) under that Act.

Notably, while it is far from clear from the statutory definition of "trade dispute" in the TDA (i.e. "any dispute between employers and workers ... which is connected with the employment or non-employment of any

person”) that claims relating to dismissals are covered by the Act, in practice the NIC has exercised jurisdiction over dismissal claims. There is, however, little statutory guidance as to the standard the NIC is to apply in adjudicating trade disputes involving a dismissal; its remedial jurisdiction simply being to “make awards to settle trade disputes” (*sec. 15(1)(a)*, TDA).

There are specific statutory prohibitions against dismissal on the grounds of union membership and activity (*sec. 9(6) (b)*, LA) and pregnancy and taking maternity leave (*sec. 53(4)*, LA). In addition, the common law has developed the concept of a “constructive dismissal” (i.e. behaviour by the employer which is intolerable, and which forces the employee to resign, and which is deemed to be a dismissal) and, as part of the common law, this concept is part of Nigerian law.

The LA (*sec. 11(5)*) expressly retains the common law right of an employer to summarily dismiss an employee for serious misconduct. The LA also retains the employer’s ability to dismiss on the grounds of redundancy (*sec. 20*), although this section also introduces certain procedural requirements for redundancies (see below). “Redundancy” is defined by *sec. 20(2)* of the LA to be “an involuntary and permanent loss of employment caused by an excess of manpower”.

Notice and Prior Procedural Safeguards

Sec. 11 of the LA sets out statutory minimum notice periods as follows:

1. for less than three months of service, one day;
2. for three months to two years of service, one week;
3. for two to five years of service, two weeks; and
4. for more than five years of service, one month.

The above periods are statutory minimal which can be improved upon by collective agreements or contracts of employment. Payments in lieu of notice are permissible, and either party may waive the right to notice (*sec. 11(6)*, LA).

For dismissals for misconduct, the common law rules that employers, who, with full knowledge of the employee’s conduct, condone such conduct, cannot thereafter rely on the conduct to justify a summary dismissal.^[2] However, the common law rule also applies that misconduct discovered after dismissal may justify the dismissal. There are no statutory requirements as to procedure for dismissals for misconduct; although, a breach of any contractual procedure may constitute a breach of contract leading to an award of damages. Likewise, there are no statutory procedural requirements for dismissals on the grounds of unsatisfactory performance.

For dismissals on the grounds of redundancy, *sec. 20* sets out the following procedural requirements:

1. the employer is to inform the trade union or worker’s representative of the reasons for and anticipated extent of the redundancies;
2. the principle of last in, first out is to be applied, subject to factors of merit, including skill, ability and reliability; and

3. the employer is to use his or her best endeavours to negotiate redundancy payments.

Severance pay

There is no general statutory severance pay; although, there is provision for the Minister of Labour to enact regulations providing for severance pay to redundant workers (pursuant to *sec. 20(2)* of the LA). In addition, the NIC has, on occasions, awarded severance pay, as additional compensation, to unfairly dismissed workers.

Avenue for Redress

Claims for wrongful dismissal or breach of contract may be brought before the civil courts, although, such claims are limited to damages for the equivalent amount that the employee would have earned during the notice period, and generally exclude reinstatement and damages for injured feelings.

In addition, as discussed above, a dismissed employee may submit a trade dispute to the NIC, and the NIC has a wide discretion as to remedies, including reinstatement. The resolution process for trade disputes can also include conciliation provided by the government.

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this Study Session, we have discussed issues relating to labour legislation in Nigeria. Specifically the lecture dealt with the sources of Nigerian Labour Law, contract of employment, termination of contract of employment, as well as issues relating to notice and prior procedural safeguards, severance pay and avenues for seeking redress. It identified ways through which the contract of employment may be terminated, such as mutual agreement, frustration, by resigning after giving appropriate notice and by summary dismissal.

Assessment



Assignment

1. Point out the source of Nigerian labour law.
2. Explain briefly the various ways by which the contract of employment can be terminated.
3. Discuss the scope of labour legislation in Nigeria.
4. Write short notes on:
 - a. dismissal
 - b. severance pay
 - c. avenues for redress.

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Study Session 12

Housing Policy in Nigeria

Introduction

In this lecture, we shall discuss issues relating to housing policy and administration in Nigeria. To do this extent we shall begin by examining the concept of housing as well as the history of housing in the world and Nigeria in particular. From there, we will move on to discuss the role of housing in the Nigeria national development. We shall also discuss the housing policies in other countries and we shall conclude by examining programmes of housing development and administration in Nigeria.

Learning Outcomes



Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 12.1 discuss the history of housing in the world and Nigeria in particular.
- 12.2 explain the role of housing in national development.
- 12.3 discuss the programmes of housing development and administration in Nigeria.
- 12.4 highlight housing policies in other countries.

12.1 History of Housing

Housing or shelter refers to permanent shelter for human habitation. Because shelter is necessary to everyone, the problem of providing adequate housing has long been a concern, not only of individuals but of governments as well. Thus, the history of housing is inseparable from the social, economic, and political development of humankind.

From the beginning of civilisation, attention has been paid to the form, placement, and provision of human habitation. The earliest building codes, specifying structural integrity in housing construction, are found in the Code of Hammurabi. City planning activities during the Greek and Roman empires centered almost exclusively on the appropriate placement of urban housing from the perspectives of defense and water supply. These same concerns continued throughout the middle Ages. In the 13th-century Europe, the city became a center of trade, and its walls provided a safe haven from nomadic warriors and looters. People could find shelter for themselves and their flocks, herds, and harvests while the open country was being overrun by enemies of superior force. Demand for urban housing has increased over the centuries. For centuries this demand was filled by planned additions to, and subdivisions of, existing structures. Where climate permitted, squatting (occupying without title

of payment of rent) became commonplace, but this provided only temporary shelter.

By the 19th century, with the Industrial Revolution, people were moving to cities in unprecedented numbers. Workers lived in sheds, railroad yards, and factory cellars, typically without sanitation facilities and water supply.

In the post-industrial society of the 20th century, housing in developing nations and poor parts of developed countries continues to be of insufficient quality and does not meet the demands of some parts of the population. Vacant, abandoned central-city housing exists alongside structures that are usable but overcrowded and buildings that are structurally reclaimable but are functionally obsolete.

Even at present, there is both a demand for housing and a supply of reusable structures that are going unclaimed. This situation is a good example of the complex role housing plays in society. Its primary function was to serve the need for shelter and privacy, but housing must now offer other advantages: First, location, including proximity to the workplace, shopping, businesses, schools, and other homes; second, environment - that is, the quality of the neighbourhood, including public safety and aesthetics; and third, investment potential, or the degree to which home ownership may affect capital accumulation.

12.2 Housing in Nigeria

In Nigeria, the physical stock of housing in the country is one of the nation's principal capital assets. The unique aspects of housing in Nigeria are its density and how it is provided. In Nigeria, the majority of the population lives in multi-room homes, most of which have been built by private individuals in small plots of land. Nigeria's housing industry is a largely unorganised group of entrepreneurs who construct housing in their own geographical areas. They decide on the type of housing that will be accepted by consumers and then proceed to provide this housing through the development process. Various laws, institutions, and public agencies work to ensure that private-market housing is produced safely by builders and delivered efficiently to consumers. Zoning laws controls the quantity and type of housing; the quality of the housing and the inclusive services to be offered are determined by building or housing codes. Financing needed to construct and purchase housing is available from lending institutions whose activities are governed by laws. Consumers are afforded access to this housing through a variety of settlement procedures and fair-housing laws.

Housing has been built in Nigeria in an outward progression from major cities, such as Lagos, Ibadan and Kano, first following railway and then automobile paths such as major roads, beltways, and interstate highways. Housing in their city was generally wither single-family homes (one unit on one lot, typically of brick construction) or multifamily dwellings (multiple apartment units on a single tract of land, also of brick construction)

There is no doubt that the different levels of government in the Federation are quite aware that Nigeria is faced with housing problems. As rightly put in the Third National Development Plan Document; “Although Nigeria’s housing problem has not been comprehensively studied, theories are enough to give information to conclude that the magnitude of the problem is quite serious” (Ministry of National Planning 1975). Successive development plans have adopted a variety of measures. In the last fifty years or there about, the government authorities in Nigeria have taken number of measures and adopted a number of strategies: like rent control; public ownership; and development of subsidised housing estates for the low income groups; direct and indirect subsidies to the middle and upper income earners; staff housing loans scheme; establishment of housing scheme; just to mention a few to ameliorate the problems of housing for her citizens. The main questions now are: what are the different housing policy measures introduced in Nigeria? What have been the achievements and limitations of the various strategies proposed and adopted?

In the first section of the Housing Policy Document, “Housing in Nigeria’s National Development, Professor E.O. Adeniyi examined the priorities accorded to housing in national development plans. He established the significant role which investment in housing could play in the economic development of a country. He aptly stated that, “the exercise of investment in housing should be seen as a stimulating, strengthening and integrating mechanism that increases employment opportunities, families’ incomes, improves community and urbanization facilities, raises levels of living and provides more savings for expanding the cycle of investment”(Quoted in Omoruyi and Omoyinbo, 2004:214). In spite of the multiplier effects of investment in housing as stated in economic development, Adeniyi illustrated how Nigeria has accorded low priority to programmes of housing development, especially, during the periods of first and the second development plan.

Despite the above, soaring increase in rentage is one of the prime issues of great concern to the governments of this country. The following excerpt from the Third National Development Plan convincingly highlights the problems:

“as a result of the acute shortage of suitable rental accommodation especially for the low-income groups in our major towns and cities, rents are extremely high and the average urban worker often has to pay as much as 40 percent of his monthly income in rent. This is a major factor in the distortion of income distribution in favour of the property owner and constitutes an obstacle in the realisation of one of the on-term goals of our development effort – the attainment of a just and egalitarian society. There is no area of social service where the urban worker in Nigeria now needs relief from desperately than in housing”. (Ministry of National Planning, 1975)”.

As a result, in 1976 the Federal Government of Nigeria introduced rent control as a strategy for curbing the soaring rents in the country. Due to

the apparent failure of the rent control measures of the Federal Government, most individuals are advocating a more discrete and selective use of the rent control instrument as a stronger policy emphasis on the incentive in the form of leveraging of more housing supplies, which would lower rents more naturally and help to avoid penalising those the rent edict intends to help.

12.1 Role of Housing in Nigeria National Development

Housing is one of the three basic needs of mankind and it is the most important for the physical survival of man after the provision of food. It is also one of the best indicators of a person's standard of living and of his place in society. In addition, housing, either in unit or multiple form is a significant component of the physical form and structure of a community, while the human and family content of the house is part of the very spirit of life and prosperity of the society. In spite of the fact that housing is part of the urbanisation process and a measure of a country's level of development and standard of living, housing continues to be regarded as an economically 'non'-productive' investment. This is because housing has "traditionally been regarded as an unwanted stepchild in the family of projects that constitutes economic development programmes, seen as a form of consumption rather than investment or in a development jargon, as wholly resource absorbing rather than resource producing - the provision of shelter has been viewed by policy makers as something to be tolerated rather than desired. This attitude by policy makers has resulted in housing being given low priority in Nigerian development planning.

The subject of housing has generated much discussion in the country recently and has resulted in a call on the various governments (from the past to the present) of the country to give greater priority to the subject of housing and allocate.... Not less than 10 percent of their annual budget to housing. Unfortunately, although a considerable amount is known on this subject all over the world, relatively little continues to be done in comparison with overall needs, and housing remains one of the world's most pressing problems, one which is continually growing. A report on housing in Africa produced for the United Nations describes clearly the present state of housing in the continent and shows that the situation is getting worse owing to the increasing impact of its causes – populations growth and even worse, urbanisation (Thompson, 1983; Agbola, 2005).

In Nigeria, the planners of the Second National Development Plan recognised that "housing deficiency in both quantitative and qualitative terms", is a universal problem in the country, yet it could be seen from Table I that the percentage of planned investment devoted to housing is far from being sufficient to tackle the problem as vigorously as it should be. In the 1962-68 Development Plan, housing was classified as a Social Overhead and out of the total sum of \$42m (6.2% of total planned expenditure) allocated to Town Planning (including housing), only \$19.6m or about 47 percent of the allocation was actually disbursed. The implementation of the plan in the cities and regions shows clearly that a

‘social overhead’ was interpreted as not much more than a ‘necessary evil’ (Third National Development Plan, 1975-1980).

It is not intended to give a mass of statistics on housing situation in the country as this is readily recognised in the urban centre and is manifested in overcrowding and congestion in buildings, dilapidated houses and soaring house rents. It is however intended to emphasize the importance of housing in national development; to examine current efforts in the provision of housing in Nigeria and to suggest policies and programmes aimed at solving the housing problem. This is done with a view to stimulating interest and provoking discussion on the importance of housing in national development and in finding easy means of solving the growing problems.

12.2 Programme of Housing Development and Administration in Nigeria

In spite of the multiplier effects of investment in housing for economic development, Nigeria governments continue to give low priority to programmes of housing development. The programme of housing development in Nigeria can however, be divided into three periods: First, pre-independence; second, post-independence, and third, post-state creation.

During the pre-independence period, the economy was rural and urban dwellers were limited to people involved in the distributive trade or employed in the various government offices and commercial houses. Government investment was limited to expatriate civil servant housing and some government departments such as the Railways and the Post and Telecommunications. In June 1958, the then Western Region Government established a housing corporation designed to provide high to medium cost houses. The operation of the corporation however, tended to cater for the higher to the medium income group with housing estates established at Ibadan and Ikeja. About the same time, the Federal Government launched housing cost of the lower income workers. The Federal Government also contributed \$1 million to the Nigerian Building Society for the running of a mortgage scheme to enable persons in the high to medium income groups to purchase and own their houses. In addition, the governments operated the African Staff Housing Schemes designed to enable the non-expatriate civil servants to borrow money to build and own houses.

Towards the time of independence in 1960, Nigeria experienced an upsurge in urbanization and the need for housing came to a head in the capital cities, particularly, in Lagos where industrial and commercial activities were expanding. The Federal Government through the Lagos Executive Development Board expanded its housing programme in Lagos though the houses provided were scarcely able to meet a tenth of the housing requirements in Lagos. The then Eastern and Northern Regional governments also followed the example of the West by setting up housing corporations in 1961 and the Mid-Western Region also established one in 1963, with housing estates established mainly in the regional headquarters.

On the whole housing administration in Nigeria involves the direct efforts of both the federal and state government, who act through some parastatals, agencies and departments. Also, some private organisations have played important roles in the administration of housing policies and programmes in Nigeria. We will discuss just a few of the important administrative bodies.

1. Federal Ministry of Works and Housing

The Federal Ministry of Works and Housing was established in 1975 by the Gowon military administration. A minister of cabinet rank who is assisted by a junior minister and other career civil servants heads the ministry. Some of the more direct functions of the ministry are: building research; construction and maintenance of government quarters; housing policy and development; staff housing schemes; public housing programmes; and interaction with other related federal government agencies such as the Federal Mortgage Bank and the Federal Housing Authority. The ministry is also saddled with the responsibility of co-ordinating, harmonising and supervising federal housing programmes with those of the various states.

2. The Federal Housing Authority

The Federal Housing Authority was established by Decree No.40 of 1973 as a corporate body with perpetual succession and a common seal. It is specifically charged with the responsibility of implementing the housing policies and programmes of the federal government. Its more direct functions are:

- a. The preparation and submission to the government, from time to time, of proposals for the National Housing Programme.
- b. The making of recommendations to the government on areas of urban and regional planning, transportation, communication, electric power, sewage, and water supply development.
- c. The execution of all the housing programmes approved by the federal government.

The Decree that established the Federal Housing Authority not only gave it certain powers but also outlined the procedures, activities, rights and obligations of the authority towards achieving its functions. The Decree also provided for the inauguration of a Board of Directors that shall conduct the affairs of the organisation.

3. State Government Agencies

There are two important bodies responsible for housing administration in Nigeria. These are the Ministries of Lands and Surveys and Housing which are headed by a commissioner, and assisted by career civil servants; and housing corporations. These ministries perform essentially the same functions as those of the federal government ministries already discussed. Housing corporations perform the following functions:

- a. the development, construction and management of housing estates;
- b. the granting of loans to people wishing to build houses on their own land within the area of jurisdiction of each corporation; and

- c. the provision and maintenance of necessary social infrastructures, such as roads, drains, electricity, water supply, etc. within the housing estates.

12.3 Housing Policy in Other Countries

Before we discuss the programme for housing development, it will be worthwhile to discuss housing policies in other countries. Housing programmes in the United States and in Western European nations share many similarities. All these countries have initiated public housing, urban renewal, and new town programmes. However, public intervention in Europe began sooner and has been more extensive than in the United States. Britain, for example, embarked on public housing development in the late 19th century. Labourers' Dwelling Acts, authorising local governments to construct public housing, were enacted as early as the mid-19th century, more than 75 years before a comparable U.S. housing legislation was passed. Urban-renewal demolition activities were empowered during the same period, almost a century before something similar happened in America. Massive public housing programmes were started after each of the world wars. By the 1970s, approximately one-third of Britain's housing was publicly subsidised, compared with only 1 to 2 percent in the United States. Britain has also constructed several new community developments that are in contrast to the fledgling and largely unsuccessful new town ventures in the United States.

Housing policies in other Western European nations are similar to those in Britain. For instance, extensive provision and regulation of housing exists, in the form of subsidies for slum demolition and rental housing assistance. Germany, France, the Netherlands, and other Western nations provide low- or no-interest housing loans. The development of new towns is also encouraged or subsidised. More than ten housing units have been built on the outskirts of Paris.

The problems of housing in Canada, both public and private, have been treated with considerable imagination and effectiveness. Federal funds for housing have been targeted almost entirely at people with lower incomes. The government provides assistance to the provinces and municipalities and to individuals, and this assistance is to be used for neighborhood improvement, the purchase of homes, the rehabilitation of residential housing, and the development of new communities. At the same time, the private sector has channelled a high volume of financial support into the mortgage market.

Housing in the former Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) and in Eastern European nations was almost exclusively characterised by government regulations and provisions. These countries pioneered the production and installation of massive prefabricated housing units in urban areas. Housing units, usually of precast concrete, were manufactured in factories and then shipped to the housing site, where they were assembled into large, multifamily complexes. The former USSR was also a pioneer in developing new towns, which were frequently located around massive industrial or power-generating

facilities. One example was the town of Bratsk hydroelectric plant in Siberia.

Housing in economically developing countries is typically inferior in quality and space to that found in economically developed nations. Government efforts to upgrade housing conditions are evolving slowly. In the 1950s, slum demolition was effected on a large scale in many cities, such as Manila in the Philippines and Baghdad in Iraq. In the 1960s, new town development, such as Brasilia in Brazil, became commonplace. These strategies often proved ineffective; demolition was not usually accompanied by replacement housing, and the new towns sometimes proved to be island in a sea of slums. In the 1970s, some developing nations turned to self-help housing. Families were given plots of land and building materials to construct or improve their own shelter. This housing approach is commonly referred to as a “sites and services” programme. So far, such a programme has been implemented on a large scale in India and many South American countries. Numerous organisations assist housing development and the upgrading of housing standards. These include the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, the United Nations Commission on Human Settlements, and the U.S. Agency for International Development.

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this Study Session, we examined the historical background of housing. Furthermore, we looked into the role of housing. In the national development we also discussed housing policies in other countries. The session concluded by examining the programmes of housing development and administration in Nigeria.

Assessment



Assignment

1. Discuss history of housing with reference to Nigeria.
2. Discuss the role of housing in Nigeria's development.
3. Explain housing policies in other countries with specific examples.
4. Write short notes on:
 - a) Federal Ministry of Works
 - b) Federal Housing Authority
 - c) State Government Agencies on Housing

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Study Session 13

Town Planning Policy in Nigeria

Introduction

We will be discussing issues relating to town planning policy in Nigeria. To start with we, shall briefly review the history of town planning in the world and the Ordinances of town planning. To conclude, we shall examine some issues relating to modern town planning in Nigeria.

Learning Outcomes



Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 13.1 describe town planning
- 13.2 discuss the history of town planning with reference to Nigeria
- 1 discuss the modern town planning as well as issues associated with it.

13.1 Overview of Town Planning

Town Planning refers to the unified development of cities and their environs. For most of its history, town or city planning dealt primarily with the regulation of land use and the physical arrangement of city structures, a guide by architectural, engineering, and land-development criteria. In the mid-20th Century the scope of town planning broadened to include the comprehensive guidance of the physical, economic, and social environment of a community. Characteristic of town planning include the following:

1. general plans that summarise the objectives of (and restraints on) land development;
2. zoning and subdivision controls that specify permissible land uses, densities, and requirements for streets, utility services, and other improvements;
3. plans for traffic flow and public transportation,
4. strategies for economic revitalisation of depressed urban and rural areas;
5. strategies for supportive action to help disadvantaged social groups; and
6. guidelines for environmental protection and preservation of scarce resources. Town planning is conducted by governments at all levels – local, state, and federal – and by private groups. It is also subject of university-level study.

13.2 A Brief History of Town Planning

Archaeological excavations of ancient cities have revealed evidence of some deliberate planning, the arrangement of housing in regular, rectangular patterns and the prominent location of civic and religious buildings along main thoroughfares.

The emphasis on planning broadened during the Greek and Roman eras. The Greek architect Hippodamus of Miletus, planned important Greek settlements such as Priene and Piraeus (Pireas). Called the father of town planning, he emphasized a geometric design for towns. Religious and civic citadels were oriented so as to give a sense of aesthetic balance; streets were arranged in a grid pattern; and housing was integrated with cultural, commercial, and defense facilities.

The Romans continued these principles. Their designs for monumental temples, arches, gymnasiums, and forums are classic examples of town planning based on strict regard for symmetry. Their colonial cities, planned as military camps called *castras*, were laid out with a grid of streets surrounded by rectangular or square defensive walls. After the fall of the Roman Empire, cities declined in population and importance. From the 5th to the 14th Century AD, medieval Europe planned towns around castles, churches, and monasteries, with informal street arrangements.

The emulation of Greco-Roman classicism during the Renaissance revived city-planning efforts along classical lines. The Piazza of Saint Peter's Basilica in Rome and the Piazza of Saint Mark's in Venice exemplify an ideal of grandeur in civic structures and public places. In sharp contrast to the narrow, irregular streets of medieval settlements, Renaissance town planning stressed wide, regular radial and circumferential streets, that is, streets forming concentric circles around a central point, with other streets radiating out from that point like spokes of a wheel. Examples include the street design in the *Plan for London* (1666) by the English architect, Sir Christopher Wren, and the streets of Mannheim and Karlsruhe in Germany.

These themes of Renaissance planning were transplanted to the New World in British and Spanish colonial cities settled in the 16th and 17th Centuries, among them were Savannah, Georgia; Williamsburg, Virginia; Mexico City; and Lima, Peru. City planning in the early United States also reflected the preference for grand public buildings and thoroughfares. A notable example is the 1791 design of the District of Columbia by the French American engineer Pierre Charles L'Enfant. His plan featured a network of wide streets converging on major parks, malls, and other open spaces and on public structures such as the Capitol and the White House. The ideals of public grandeur and radial, circumferential streets continued in the 19th century were exemplified in the plan for the reconstruction of Paris (1850-74) by the French administrator Baron Georges Eugene Haussmann.

In the U.S., extensive public park systems were developed in New York City, Boston, Philadelphia, and elsewhere by landscape architects, such

as the American Frederick Law Olmsted and the Anglo-American Calvert Vaux.

During the century of the Industrial Revolution, the few design standards that were introduced often neglected basic physical and aesthetic considerations. This is evident in New York City's Commissioner's Plan of 1811, which divided Manhattan into identical rectangular blocks as a means to encourage further rapid settlement. By the end of the 19th century, the largely unfettered growth of New York and other major cities led to serious overcrowding, with a host of attendant problems. The reaction to these conditions became the basis for a new era of city planning.

The Town Planning in the 20th Century showed that the U.S. and Britain responded similarly to the need to improve the living conditions in cities. Their initial action was to regulate the sanitary conditions and density of tenement housing. A movement then arose in both countries for a more comprehensive, long-term approach; a process of city planning that would examine and control the many forces affecting modern cities. The 1893 World's Columbian Exposition in Chicago featured a planned "White City" that stood in vivid contrast to the squalor of most urban settlements. In the U.S. it sparked the "City Beautiful" movement, which emphasized municipal grandeur embodied in intriguing new public buildings, park systems, and main thoroughfares.

Important steps were taken in the early 20th Century to formalise and legalise city planning. In the bellwether year 1909, Britain passed a Town Planning Act, which authorized local authorities to prepare "schemes" controlling new development. In 1909, in the U.S., the first National Conference on City Planning was conducted; this was the first of a series of annual meetings, which continue even today, that proved influential in obtaining support for city planning. Also in 1909, the American architect, Daniel Burnham, published his Plan of Chicago, a design that was groundbreaking in its regional perspective and comprehensive integration of transportation systems, parks, streets, and other facilities.

Town planning received further support during subsequent years. In 1919, Britain made the preparation of planning schemes obligatory for many local governments, and in 1921 Canada enacted a city-planning law. Other European countries and Australia also undertook city planning. In the U.S., during the 1920s, local planning significantly increased;

In 1920, approximately 100 cities had municipal planning commissions; by 1930 the number was almost 500. This growth can be accounted for in various ways. In 1928, the U.S. Commerce Department published a Standard City Planning Act that provided communities with a convenient procedural model for their planning efforts. The U.S. Supreme Court decision in *Euclid v. Ambler* (1926) removed any lingering doubts about the legality of zoning, a critical end product of city planning. (The first zoning ordinance in the U.S. had been enacted by New York City in 1916). Other influences leading to the increased acceptance of city planning were the rapid growth of cities during the 1920s and the ensuring pressures on transportation facilities and public services.

During the Great Depression of the 1930s, regional and national governments intervened more forcefully in town planning. To foster economic development in depressed regions, the United Kingdom authorised the appointment of special commissioners with wide-ranging powers. Britain, France, the Netherlands, and other European countries carried out extensive public-housing projects. In the U.S. President Franklin D. Roosevelt, under his New Deal program, established a Public Works Administration to deal with capital improvements, a National Planning Board to coordinate long-range development, and a programme that produced three greenbelt towns. The Tennessee Valley Authority was created to prepare and implement a sweeping regional plan. Federal housing insurance and public became important in city building.

The Case of Nigeria

Although there has never been any holistic or comprehensive approach to town planning or urban development in Nigeria, town planning or urban land use has been applied in one form or the other for a very long time. Modern town planning policies evolved from the law and order maintenance policies of the colonialists and their concern for the achievement of adequate sanitary and safety conditions. Native Authorities were established by the colonialists to manage the affairs of towns and villages within a chieftaincy or emirate. Thus, a local authority was appointed by the chieftaincy or emirate. Thus, a local authority was appointed by the governor to govern government reservation areas. Commercial and industrial layouts and new development areas such as “settle” sections which were established around existing towns. This was essential because the colonial authorities felt that the management of its affairs was at variance with the principles of indirect rule. The first systematic attempt to provide the necessary legal framework for town planning in Nigeria was provided by two major ordinances: Lord Lugard’s Township Ordinance of 1917, and the Nigeria Town and Country Planning Ordinance of 1946.

The 1917 Township Ordinance made provisions for the creation, constitution and administration of all towns and municipalities in Nigeria. In fact, the Ordinance ushered in a new era in the management of towns as well as marked a turning point in the growth of towns in Nigeria. This is because for the first time, a definite law was promulgated to govern the creation and administration of towns in Nigeria.

According to Lord Lugard, the Ordinance aimed at establishing a broad principle of municipal responsibility and the measure of its ability to accept and discharge satisfactorily, independent or quasi-independent powers. The Ordinance provided for distinct segregation between European rulers and the Africans they governed. The Ordinance also separation matters relating to health and sanitation from those relating to development control and building and street constructions. While the Ordinance placed issues concerning health and sanitation under the control of the medical and sanitary departments under the Public Health ordinance, the enforcement of township Ordinance was placed under the care of the administrative and public works departments.

The Town and Country Ordinance was enacted by the colonial government in 1946. The Ordinance, which was modelled on the United

Kingdom's Town and Country Planning Acts of 1932, today provides the legislative basis of all laws governing urban and regional planning in Nigeria. The scope and powers of the Ordinance are comprehensive and wide ranging, to the extent that both the federal and state governments can initiate "planning schemes" under the provisions of the Ordinance. For instance, section three of the Ordinance provides that the principal objects of planning schemes are generally to control the development and use of the land involved, to secure proper sanitation, amenity and convenience, to preserve places of natural beauty or interest, and generally to protect existing urban and rural amenities. Section 13 (1) and parts IV and V of its first schedule add the further objectives of coordinating and facilitating the construction of public utility services, transport, communications, and other public services as well as of conserving and developing the resources of the areas concerned.

The First schedule of the Ordinance gives a fairly comprehensive list of subjects, concerned primarily with the planning and development of land use and connected facilities. Among these are the following:

1. the reservation of land for roads, the construction, maintenance and improvement of roads, the establishment of public rights of way;
2. the regulation and control of buildings, slum clearance, the reservation of land for various purposes including open spaces and for industrial trade, education and religious purposes;
3. the facilitation of construction and establishment of all kinds of public utility services, transport and communication; and
4. the preservation of views and specified forms of natural beauty or interest.

Apart from these, the Ordinance also specifies that planning authorities may prepare and implement planning schemes, enter into contracts for that purpose and regulate development projects initiated by private individuals so that they conform with the schemes.

From all indications, the legislative objectives of the Ordinance range go beyond physical planning to include the undertaking of improvement works. Because its aims are extensive, the powers potentially wielded by a planning authority can, in theory, permit it to plan, initiate, and carry through development that, at one and the same time, is physical, social, and economic.

13.3 Issues in Modern Town Planning

Town planning in the U.S. and other countries broadened in the late 1960s beyond a purely physical orientation. In its modern form, city planning is an ongoing process that concerns not only physical designs but also social, economic, and political policy issues. As a fabric of human organisation, a city is a complex weave. On one level, it consists of the arrangement of neighbourhoods, industry, and commerce according to aesthetic and functional standards and the provision of public services for them. On another, perhaps more important level it also comprises the following; first, the background, education, work, and

aspirations of its residents; second, the general functioning of the economic system to which they belong, as well as their positions in and rewards from that system; and Third, their ability to make or influence the policy decisions that affect their daily lives.

Viewed from this perspective, city planning requires more than a narrow specialist who can develop and implement a physical plan. More general skills and activities are also needed. They include:

- 1) the collection and analysis of data about the city and its population;
- 2) research into the need for and availability of social services;
- 3) the development, evaluation, coordination, and administration of programmes and timetables to supply these services;
- 4) programs for economic and housing development and redevelopment – not only planning, but also packaging, financing, and carrying out the development, establishing public and private partnerships, and so forth; and
- 5) effective use of political activity and citizen participation to influence the character of and give support to development programmes.

Comprehensive Town Planning Policy

The basic town-planning document is a comprehensive plan that is adopted and maintained with regular revisions. The plan receives its day-to-day expression in a series of legal documents – zoning ordinances, subdivision regulations, and building and housing codes—that establish standards of land use and quality of construction. The comprehensive plan serves many purposes. It brings together the analyses of the social, economic, and physical characteristics (such as the distribution of population, industry, business, open spaces, and publicly built facilities) that led to the plan; it examines special problems and opportunities within the city and establishes community-development objectives; it coordinates land development with transportation, water supply; schools, and other facilities; it proposes ways to accomplish these coordinated objectives over time; it relates the plan to its impact on public revenues and expenditures; and it proposes regulations, policies, and programs to implement the plan. The comprehensive plan is the guide to making daily development decisions in terms of their long-range consequences.

Development Controls

Land is allocated and private activities are coordinated with public facilities by means of zoning ordinances and subdivision regulations. A zoning ordinance governs how the land may be used and the size, type, and numbers of structures that may be built on the land. All land within a city is divided into districts, or zones. In these districts, certain land uses are allowed by right, and general restrictions on building height, bulk, and use are specified. The zoning regulations carry out the land allocations recommended in the comprehensive plan. Specific locations are given for different types of residences, industries, and businesses.

Specific numbers are given for allowable heights of buildings, coverage of a lot, and density. Allowable land uses are specified for each zone, including special conditions such as required off-street parking. Most

regulations are termed “matter-of-right”; if the specified requirements are met, a permit will be granted. Other regulations provide general standards with considerable flexibility in the mixture of building uses or the building design. These require more extensive review before approval.

Social, Economic and Environmental Policy

Although the physical appearance and functioning of the city are the traditional focus of town planning, the city’s population and economic resources are also an important concern. Thus, contemporary town planning continues to focus on physical design, but also addresses the many long-range social and economic decisions that must be made.

A city has social needs and economic capital. The city’s government acts as a purchasing agent for many services needed by residents and businesses—for example, education, water supply, police, fire protection, and recreation. The quality, character, and efficiency of these services require planning to fit needs and desires with funding, with technological change, and with objectives for physical development.

Moreover, town planning should be concerned with providing decent housing (and minimal economic aid) to residents who cannot afford this basic amenity. When local housing is deficient and economic resources permit its upgrading, the city planning department may survey housing conditions and coordinate funding to finance its development or rehabilitation.

The city’s economic development and redevelopment also fall within the scope of town planning. Economic development plans make use of a mixture of incentives, technical assistance, and marketing to create jobs, establish new industry and business, help existing enterprises to flourish, rehabilitate what is salvageable, and re-develop what cannot be saved. Economic development, however, must go beyond the enterprise and the facility to reach the workers. In a rapidly evolving technological environment with frequent global shifts in trade relations, skilled workers need new skills and unskilled people need some skills. Job training is a necessary part of development strategy, especially, for the city’s poor and unemployed citizens.

Capital improvement programming is the budgeting tool used by planners to schedule the construction and financing of public works. Capital projects—such as road improvements, street lighting, public parking facilities, and purchase of land for open spaces—must be sorted out and assigned priorities. A programme prepared each year sets the priorities for the next six years on projects needed to implement the comprehensive plan and replace the decrepit infrastructure. In rapidly growing regions, city planners are constantly faced with public facilities that have become inadequate for future development.

In declining areas, economic re-development is of prime importance. Before any new capital improvements are scheduled, the condition and viability of the neighbourhood must be assessed and strategies for remedy must be adopted. Some declining neighborhoods require vigorous public development; others should be left to available private development.

The movement for the development of the cities of the late 1970s and early 1980s was insensitive to the cyclical ebbs and flows of city neighbourhoods. From the 1980s through the 1990s, it was believed that if an economic function such as business or industry failed, all that was needed was to crop out the “decay” and clear the land for reuse. In many instances the redevelopment never appeared. The multiple forces that affect neighbourhood changes were ignored or improperly analysed. Town planners now understand that regional, interregional, national, and international economic forces affect a city. They also realise that the effectiveness of plans to bring about a city’s continued economic viability depends on the correct analysis and interpretation of these forces. These are the lessons of the shifts in suburban, non-metropolitan, and interregional economic patterns that took place in the late 1980s and the 1990s.

Town planners today are becoming ever more involved with their environment to meet objectives for clean air and water, removal of toxic and other wastes; recycling of resources; energy conservation; protection of wetlands, beaches, hillsides, farmlands, forests, and floodplains; and preservation of wildlife, natural reserves, and rivers. Historic preservation strives to keep important buildings and places as part of the permanent environment and uses them to finance the maintenance costs.

Although town planners may report to local government chairpersons, council officials, or other officials, their true clients are the people and business of the city. Their plans must reflect the interests and priorities of these two groups, and the programmes that are been implemented must, at the same time, help the city survive and maintain the quality of life that these groups desire. Political astuteness is required in order to ensure that neighbourhood programmes and priorities will be properly perceived by local, state, and federal officials and will stand a chance for implementation.

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this Study Session, we explored town planning, we discussed the history of planning in the world and that of Nigeria in particular. While discussing town planning in Nigeria, emphasis was paid on the 1917 Township Ordinance as well as the Nigeria Town and Country Planning Ordinance of 1946. The lecture further examined some issues relating to town planning in Nigeria such as the need for the comprehensive town planning policy, development controls and socio-economic and environmental policy.

Assessment



Assignment

1. Critically discuss the history of town planning.
2. Discuss various Ordinances of town planning in Nigeria.
3. What contemporary issues that must be taken into consideration in Nigeria when discussing modern town planning with specific examples.

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Study Session 14

Urban Public Transportation Policy

Introduction

In this lecture, discussion shall be on issues relating to urban transportation policy with special reference to Nigeria. To do this effectively, I shall begin by examining the concept of urban transportation, and then move to discuss the history of transportation, types of public transportation as well as development of public transportation policy in Nigeria.

Learning Outcomes



Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 1.1 ..
- 2 discuss the history of transportation in urban centres;
- 3 examine various types of public transportation;
- 4 discuss the development of public transportation in Nigeria; and
- 5 highlight the issues that should guide legislation on public transportation in Nigeria

14.1 Overview of Transportation

Transportation is one of the most essential social services in any country, and that explains why various countries have adopted policies and legislation to guide it. Transportation policy means many various things to different people. It may mean a continuous search for the elusive balanced transportation concept. Transportation policy may also mean seeing to it that highways and roads keep on getting the largest share of federal, state, and local government funds available for transportation improvements. Transportation policy may also mean traffic engineering and improved public transportation facilities that will revitalise a given area and help business to pick up. Also those who use public transportation have a different perspective about urban transportation policy. For them, transportation policy is likely to mean not a policy, but a confusing mix of incompatible bureaucratic statements activities and behaviours that have led to high fares, poor service, decrepit equipment, to mention a few. They may feel that no one really cares about the public transportation consumers and the problem they face.

In Nigeria, the confusing nature of transportation policy is highlighted by the fact that each of the definitions that we have attempted is partly

correct. The conflict that arises out of these definitions shows the very low status of public transportation in Nigeria not only in unattractiveness and efficiency but also in terms of the level of use. Public transportation in Nigeria is beset by myriad problems and shortcomings that arise out of controversies and crises over service delivery. Beyond this, the transportation industry contains a unique mix or blend of interests, actors, issues and problems that make public transportation in Nigeria an interesting case study. In this chapter, we will use the issue of public transportation (both the making of policy and the delivery of services) to illustrate many of the themes we have already developed. But first, let us look at urban public transportation.

Urban public Transportation can be defined as transportation service that is available to the general public and that carries passengers to destinations for a fee. Public transportation is also known as mass transportation or mass transit, since many people use it to travel to common destinations. Although many different types of public transportation system exist, they can be classified into two: common carriers and contract carriers.

Common carriers are usually operated by city or regional government agencies and are open to all members of the public willing to pay the posted fare. Common carrier systems include; transportation systems generally run along established routes within a city or metropolitan area, allowing people to travel without using an automobile or other mode of personal transportation.

Contract carriers are privately run operations that people hire for a single trip to a given destination. Examples are taxicabs, rental cars, and chartered buses. Contract carriers, which are more expensive than common carriers, can travel to places where bus or subway service may not reach and can operate at times when common carrier service may not be scheduled.

Public transportation is usually found in large cities and in densely populated areas. Large cities maintain public transportation services because they often have more traffic congestion and fewer parking spaces than smaller towns have. Public transportation helps reduce the number of vehicles on the road, and it is a convenient option for people traveling relatively short distances. Public transportation systems are more widespread in older cities because these cities established systems before automobile use was common. Older cities tend to be more densely populated, making public transportation a more attractive option than using personal vehicles. Business districts with high concentrations of employment also use public transportation. Lagos, Ibadan, and Kaduna are all older cities with large business districts, and all these cities have extensive public transportation networks.

Public transportation provides an efficient and inexpensive means of transportation for millions of people, but it faces strong competition from the automobile, which offers more flexibility for travelers. Public transportation systems outside Nigeria tend to be more developed, because of the age of the cities, higher population densities, and the greater willingness of governments to spend money on them. Rail

systems, in particular, are more popular in Europe, Asia and the United States than in Nigeria.

14.2 History of Transportation

Modern public transportation systems originated in Europe during the 16th and 17th Centuries. Horse-drawn carriages provided for-hire transportation between major towns in Europe, but the service was erratic and slow. The hackney carriage, small horse-drawn coach, was used within large cities. It resembled the modern taxicab in terms of service and operation. Eventually, large wagons such as stagecoaches were used to carry passengers along established routes with a city, and in 1819 regular service routes were operational in Paris. A similar service began in New York City in 1827. The stagecoach was followed by the omnibus, a horse-drawn wagon designed for efficiently transporting several passengers over short distances. George Shilliber, an enterprising coach builder, built the first omnibus for use in Paris, and he eventually started an omnibus line in London in 1829.

In 1832, horse-drawn streetcars were introduced in New York City. These streetcars resembled omnibuses but ran on iron rails in the street rather than on wagon wheels. The rails reduced friction considerably, allowing horses to pull the rail cars more easily than regular wagons could be pulled. The more efficient streetcar gradually began to replace the omnibus in many cities. By the 1860s, most U.S. cities had horse- or mule-powered street railways franchised by the city.

Another type of propulsion for streetcars came from Andrew Hallidie, who devised a cable system that ran along the length of track. Streetcars, gripping the cable, were pulled along. The first successful cable car system was opened in San Francisco in 1873. Cable cars could reach speeds of 21km/h (13 mph) and did not require the use of horses. Horses were reliable, but they produced large amounts of waste, which usually lay in the street, and the horses were often subject to diseases. Cable cars and cable car system, were popular, both because of the tourist appeal of this system and because of its ability to operate on steep grades.

Modern methods of transportation were introduced into Nigeria by the British colonialists. Before the encounter of the natives with the Europeans, transportation on land was achieved on the backs of certain beasts of burden (horses, camels, and donkeys). These means were extremely slow and difficult to maintain, and typically, only the rich could afford to own these. Thus the majority of people who had not the means to acquire or maintain these animals, commuted solely on foot. The first modern means of transportation introduced in Nigeria was the bicycle which natives at that time called “iron horse.” However, with significant development in the automobile industry in Europe and America, cars, buses, and trains were introduced, and these have remained with us till date.

Nigeria has 194,394km (120, 79 m) of roads. Most Nigerians travel by bus or taxi both between and within cities. During the 1970s and 1980s, federal and state governments built and upgraded numerous expressways and trans-regional trunk roads. State governments also upgraded smaller

roads, which helped open rural areas to development. However, by the mid- 1990s, lack of investment had left most of the roads to deteriorate.

Nigeria has 3,505 km (2,178 mi) of operated railway track. The main line, completed in 1911, links Lagos to Kano, with extensions from Kano to Nguru, from Zaria to Kaura Namoda, and from Minna to Baro. The use of railways, both for passengers and freight traffic, has declined due to competition from the road network.

Nigeria's largest ocean ports are at Lagos (Apapa and Tin Can Island), Port Harcourt, Calabar, Sapele, and Warri. The main petroleum exporting facilities are at Bonny and Burutu. Transportation along inland waterways, especially the Niger and Benue rivers, was very important during the colonial era. In the late 1980s the government upgraded river ports at Onitsha, Ajaokuta, Lokoja, Baro, Jebba, and Yelwa. Locks have been constructed at Kainji Dam to facilitate navigation. River transport is used mainly for shipping goods.

Nigeria has two major international airports, one in the Lagos suburb of Ikeja and the other in Kano. Internal flight serves the majority of state capitals, of which Kaduna, Port Harcourt, and Enugu are the busiest. Nigeria Airways, the national carrier, offers both domestic and international flights. Several small regional carriers also compete for domestic traffic.

14.3 Types of Public Transportation

Public transportation system differs in the type of right-of-way each system has and the technology each uses. These factors help determine the speed of a system, where it is able to operate, and how often vehicles in the system travel along various routes.

Right-of-way refers in the physical path that a transportation system follows. If a system has a fully controlled right-of-way, then the system does not have to yield to other transportation systems and can move more rapidly. Subways have a fully controlled right-of-way because they run on rails dedicated solely to subway use. Therefore, subways can operate safely at high speeds. Buses must share the right-of-way with other motor vehicles on the road, and, consequently, buses move more slowly. Some rail systems, such as light rail, may have a semi-exclusive right-of-way. They may share the right-of-way with motor-vehicle traffic for part of the journey, then shift to a fully controlled right-of-way, such as an elevated rail track or a tunnel, for the remainder of the trip. A fully controlled right-of-way provides the best performance for a transportation system but this is also financially costly to construct. Sharing the right-of-way with other systems is cheaper, but service can suffer because of traffic or other problems.

The mechanical feature of the vehicle and the riding surface of a public transportation system constitute the technology of the system. Technologies differ in cost, flexibility, and speed of travel. For instance, buses generally use diesel fuel and travel on the same streets as cars and trucks do. Rail system may use electric motors or diesel locomotives for propulsion but are limited to traveling on steel tracks rails. Bus

technology is more flexible than rail systems, and bus routes can be easily changed to accommodate changing ridership. Rail technology is generally faster than motor-vehicle technology but is also more expensive to purchase and operate.

The most common types of public transportation are bus, paratransit, streetcar, light rail, commuter rail, automated guided transit, and ferry.

1. Buses

Bus service operates diesel or electric buses along defined routes and according to published schedules. Buses vary in size from minibuses (“tuke-tuke” or “danfo”), which can carry up to 14 passengers, and this is more common in Nigeria cities, up to multi-section articulated buses, which have an extra passenger unit attached by means of a flexible joint. Articulated buses can carry as many as 130 passengers, and are common in the advanced societies of Europe and America. Buses operate on both city streets and highways. Some streets and highways have special lanes reserved only for buses transit, thus increasing the speed and efficiency of bus travel. Trolley buses are electrically powered buses that use electricity from overhead wires mounted along city streets. The use of electric power reduces pollution, noise, and the need for refueling but this also limits the route trolley buses can take.

2. Paratransit

Paratransit includes taxicabs, jitneys, and dial-a-ride services. It provides short-distance transportation for small groups of passengers. A taxicab is an automobile operated by a driver and hired by users for an individual trip. Taxicabs have the highest out-of pocket cost of all types of public transportation, but taxicab service is closest in convenience to the private automobile. Taxicabs are the more common transport vehicle available in Nigerian cities. Jitneys are privately owned large cars or vans that usually operate on fixed routes but without fixed schedules. Jitneys are a flexible means of public transportation, although they also tend to add to traffic congestion. Dial-a-ride services consist of minibuses or vans that are directed from a central dispatching office as the service is requested. The dispatcher plans the routes so that as many passengers as possible are served on a single trip. Dial-a-ride services are slower and less direct than taxicabs but generally are cheaper as well.

3. Streetcars

Streetcars, also known as tramways or trolleys, are electrically powered vehicles that run on steel tracks embedded within city streets. Power for these electric vehicles is received from overhead wire, as in the case of trolley buses. Streetcars can operate as single units or in short trains of two or three cars. Streetcars often have to contend with traffic, usually resulting in slow service. A cable car is a type of streetcar that is pulled along by a cable running under the street. The only remaining cable car system in operation in the United State is in San Francisco, California.

4. Light-rail transit

Light-rail transit is an electric rail way system that evolved from street car systems. Like streetcars, light-rail cars operate as single units or as short trains of two or three cars. Light rail is designed to use a variety of

rights-of-way, providing more flexibility than the streetcar. In some cities, light-rail systems operate like streetcar in downtown areas but then moved to reserved lanes of traffic service outer neighbourhoods. Light-rail systems may also operate in tunnels under congested areas or on elevated tracks mounted over city streets. Light rail is popular in Europe and is in use in several U.S. cities, including Portland, Oregon; San Diego, California; and Baltimore, Maryland. Light rail is a cheaper and more versatile alternative to older rail systems.

5. Heavy-rail Transit

Heavily-rail systems are also commonly referred to as rapid transit. Subways (often called metros) are common examples, although rail rapid-transit system may also operate above ground, as part of the New York City and Chicago, Illinois, subway systems do. Heavy-rail systems typically consist of large four-axle rail vehicles operating in trains of two to ten cars. Rail rapid-transit systems operate on tracks reserved solely for the rail cars, and so the trains are able to travel at high speeds. Some rail rapid-transit systems, such as BART (Bay Area Rapid Transit) in the U.S. for example, are highly automated. Power for rail rapid-transit vehicles is usually supplied by an electrified third rail mounted alongside the train tracks. Some heavy-rail system use rubber tyres rather than steel wheels. These tyres produce a quieter ride but create more friction, which reduces efficiency. A monorail is a special type of heavy-rail system that uses a single rail to support and guide the vehicles. A monorail that was built for the 1962 World's Fair in Seattle, Washington, connects the downtown to the nearby fairgrounds and is still in use. Monorails have also been built for circular routes around airports or at amusement parks, such as Walt Disney World, but they have not been widely used for urban transportation.

6. Commuter Rail Transit

Commuter rail transit uses traditional freight railroad technology, including diesel or electric locomotives, to operate trains for passenger service. Commuter rail systems generally operate only during peak hours, transporting workers between down areas of major cities and nearby suburbs. The rail lines used by a commuter rail system may have been abandoned for freight service or may be operated for freight use during non-commuter times.

7. Automated Guided Transit

Automated guided transit systems, also known as people movers, are fully automated transit systems, which operate with no crew. These systems vary widely in design and are less common than bus and rail systems. Automated guided transit is a popular method at large airport for transporting passengers' short distances between terminals. Some designs are essentially automated buses running on guided routes while some other systems run on rails. The vehicles may be operated individually or in small trains.

8. Ferries

Ferries are often used in cities with rivers, lakes, or other bodies of water that pose obstacles to transportation. Ferry technology includes ferry boats

and to a lesser extent, hovercraft and hydrofoils. Ferry buses are used to carry people, and often motor vehicles, over short distances. Sizes of ferry buses vary from small boats that can hold a few passengers to large vessels that can carry as many as 200 automobiles and 2,500 passengers. A hovercraft rides on a cushion of air created by air pressure underneath a specially designed skirt. Large hovercrafts are popular means of crossing the English Channel between France and England. Hydrofoils are large boats with submerged fins or foils. As the speed of a hydrofoil increases, its hull rises out of the water and the boat ride on the foils. Because less of the vessel is in the water, resulting in less resistance to the motion of the hydrofoil, it can reach much higher speeds than a regular boat.

14.3 Development of Public Transportation in Nigeria

Public transportation in Nigeria evolved gradually, and general control of these systems has alternated over time between private and government. Soon after independence, the government operated most public transportation systems in Nigeria. The government also provided and enforced regulations relating to transportation. The government would also award exclusive operating franchises to streetcar and bus companies. In return, these monopolies would commit to maintain service and fare levels. This arrangement changed shortly after in response to a number of factors. Automobile ownership grew steadily throughout the early part of the century and provided strong competition to public transportation. In the late 1960s and 1970s, the Civil war and the economic difficulties experienced as a result of governmental irresponsibility, wastages and corruption and military dictatorships created problems. Transport companies began to lose money. Service on many routes was eliminated, and eventually, the companies gave up their financial participation. In the 1980s, a period of expanded automobile ownership combined with the rapid growth of suburban communities prompted another decline in public transportation use. To counter this decline and salvage the existing public transportation shifted to the federal, state, and local government, as well as to special governmental agencies such as the labour mass transit authorities. They increased costs as well as public subsidies in order to maintain the transit systems. Government support continues to be an important source of funds for public transportation. By the end of the 1990s, over half of the funding for public transportation systems operating in Nigeria was being supplied by the federal government. Public transportation agencies raised about a quarter of the needed money from taxes, tolls, and state and local governments provided the rest.

Public transportation planning is a complicated task, especially, since over the years many systems have evolved and grown beyond their original designs. New additions to transportation systems are expensive, and building these additions is often disruptive to existing roads or city structures. Each new system must be carefully planned. Population, employment density, prospects for growth, per capita income, car

ownership, and ultimate costs are just some of the factors that must be considered when planning public transportation systems.

Planners of bus service for example, must take into account numerous factors, such as past operating practices and procedures, coverage of the current system, local fare prices, land use, population density, employment density, street patterns, and availability of off-street rail transit. Planning of rail transit is more complex because of the large number of options and the higher costs involved. Key factors include maximisation of ridership, efficiency of operations, potential to foster new residential and commercial developments, and cost of construction. No simple formula can determine where a system should be built.

Issue of National Transportation Policy in Nigeria

Proponents of mass transportation have consistently emphasized the absence, at the federal level, of any comprehensive, consistent, and coherent statement concerning what the Nigerian posture towards urban mass transit is or ought to be. Many of these proponents accuse government of adopting a piecemeal approach to the issue of urban public transportation. They accuse the government of playing politics with the issue of transportation and a general lack of prioritisation of policy that continues to undermine our development. If what these advocates are seeking is a simple, relatively fixed statement or set of decisions that will once and for all define the goals and objectives of urban transportation in Nigeria, then they are bound to be disappointed. Such a simple statement in whatever form, is never likely to emerge from government.

The preference of our governments (past and present) is an amalgam of approaches that attempt to respond to a given set of pressures or crises that often work at cross-purposes. The government frequently makes decisions, takes actions, spends money, builds roads, bridges and systems without first determining exactly what the purpose of an urban transportation system ought to be. The federal effort consists of a long and expensive series of programmes (construction of interstate highways, federal ministries of works and housing and transportation sponsored researches, development, demonstration and technical studies etc). The net result is that there is no policy but a set of compartmentalised and haphazard policies developed at different times, at various levels of public responsibility, by different interests and actors, concerned with different issues and outcomes, interested in different modes of travel, and administered by different techniques.

In spite of the billions of naira spent on public transportation in the military years, only about two percent of daily trips in Nigeria are made by public transportation. This two percent includes interstate and intercity transportation. If these journeys were excluded from the calculation, public transportation would be less than two percent of the daily travel of Nigeria citizens.

In conclusion, even if the government decides to spend more money on public transportation, the future of public transportation remains clouded. The absence of a dependable and goal oriented government policy on

public transportation has sprung wide-scale social disaffection among the people. Most people do see public transportation as non-functional. Also, because of the general lack of a maintenance culture, the available public transportations are dilapidated. Consequently, many people who otherwise, would have used public transportation do not believe that they are dependable, comfortable, or attractive. When the public buses are available at all, they are likely to come late, may not have fixed roots, and may be overcrowded, forcing many commuters to stand or sit on attached seats for all or part of their journey. In addition, the seating among even in these buses is uncomfortable because it is not very spacious. Consequently, for most commuters, public transportation should be avoided like hell.

Because of the problems of public transportation in Nigeria, which are themselves occasioned by a lack of a comprehensive national policy on transportation, public transportation has become unattractive for most passengers. Because of the hazards (health and otherwise) of public transportation, people willingly wait and save for years to get their own cars. They enthusiastically flock to the expressways at an average of five or six passengers per automobile and patiently wait at fuel stations for hours or pay high black market prices to get fuel in fuel scarce Nigeria, at any rate. They willingly and regularly endure commuter traffic problems and very bad stretches of road. But they are unwilling to take public transportation that frequently experience breakdowns or experience being transferred from one bus to another to complete their journey or accept any of the inconveniences associated with using mass transportation.

The transportation policy that exists today is a patchwork of decades of arbitrary decisions that the biases and values of those who occupy government positions in Nigeria influences. The net effect has been a consistent policy that favours the movement of vehicles or automobiles over the movement of people and goods with the result that Nigerians must provide their own means of transportation most of the time. For the wealthy Nigerian family that has an average of three automobiles at its disposal, such transportation policy has a little impact on them. However, for many Nigerians that cannot afford to purchase a single car, such transportation policy is disheartening.

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this Study Session, we have discussed issues relating to urban transportation policy with special reference to Nigeria. This lecture discussed the concept of urban transportation as well as its history. Furthermore, in discussing types of public transportation special attention was paid to bus services, paratransit, streetcars, light-rail transit, heavy-rail transit, commuter rail-transit, automated guided transit and ferries. We also examined issue of the development of public transportation policy in Nigeria as well as critical matters involved.

Assessment



Assignment

- 1 Discuss the evolution of transportation.
- 2 Discuss various types of public transportation.
- 3 Discuss the development of public transportation in Nigeria.
2. Discuss the development of public transportation you know of.
3. Identify and examine the issues that should guide the formulation legislation on public transportation in Nigeria.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Population Policy in Nigeria

Existing studies on population in Nigeria have laid extensive emphasis on fertility. Estimates of fertility levels have generally portrayed Nigeria as one of the most fertile countries in Africa, south of the Sahara, with an estimated crude birth rate of 47-51 per 1000 population in 1974 and 48-52 in 1982. Nigeria has therefore been experiencing persistent high fertility that has led to its increasing population from 63 million in 1963 to 88 million in 1991 and over 140million in 2006 (Nigeria Census, 1963;1992, 2006).

Awareness of the population growth in Nigeria led to her first national population policy in February, 1988 (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1988). The 1988 National Population Policy amongst other things stressed the importance of reducing population growth through effective family planning and efficient contraceptive use. The urgency to implement such a policy cannot be over-emphasized in light of the decreasing child mortality arising from the Expanded Programme on Immunization (EPI) and Oral Rehydration Therapy (ORT) programmes that have gained extensive support from government, national and international agencies, such as UNICEF, UNDP etc.

An important factor in controlling the rapid population growth in Nigeria is the low rate of contraception (World Bank, 1989) and inefficient use of contraceptive among the few users. According to the 1981/82 Nigerian Fertility Survey, 66.3 per cent of 8,448 respondents, say they never heard of any method as opposed to 84.9 per cent who say, they have used a method, 12.5 per cent patronised the inefficient method (e.g. . douche, rhythm, coitus interruptus, charms etc) and only 2.6 per cent used the efficient method (e.g. Pills, IUD, Condom, etc). This picture is further worsened by the data on currently married women and non-pregnant women, which show that 6.2 percent are using some type of contraceptives as opposed to 93.8 per cent who are not patronising any method. The country's contraceptive prevalence rate (CPR) was estimated to be 5 per cent in 1987.

The implication of rapid population growth is becoming more glaring to the populace in light of the falling standing of living amongst the majority. The situation was further worsened with the implementation of a number of government programmes particularly the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP). Hence, the adopted national population policy of 1988 states that the targets of the policy of 1988 are as follows (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1988):

1. To reduce the proportion of women who got married before the age of 18years by 50 percent in 1995 and 80 percent by the year 2000.
2. To achieve birth spacing of a minimum of two or more years interval in at least 50 percent of married women of child-bearing age by 1995 and 80 percent by the year 2000.
3. To reduce pregnancy of mothers below 18 years and above 35 years of age by 50 percent by 1995 and 80 percent by the year 2000.
4. To exert the coverage of family planning service to 50 percent of women of child-bearing age by 1995 and 80 percent by the year 2000.
5. To reduce the proportion of women bearing more that four children by 50 percent by 1995 and 80 percent by the year 2000.

6. To direct a significant proportion of the family planning programmes in terms of family life, education and appropriate family planning service to all adult males by the year 2000.
7. To reduce number of children a woman is likely to have during her lifetime, now from over 6 to 4 per woman by the year 2000.
8. To reduce the present rate of population growth from about 3.3 percent per year to 2.5 percent by 1995 and 2.0 percent by the year 2000.

It is important to note that these targets were not met thereby necessitating the revision of the policy by setting new goals, objectives and targets in 2004. The goals of the this latest policy are;

- Achievement of sustained economic growth, poverty eradication, protection and preservation of the environment, and provision of quality social services.
- Achievement of the balance between the rate of population growth, available resources, and the social and economic development of the country.
- Progress towards a complete demographic transition to a reasonable growth in birth rates and low death rates.
- Improvement in the reproductive health of all Nigerians at every stage of the life cycle.
- Acceleration of strong and immediate response to the HIV/AIDS epidemic and other related infectious diseases.
- Progress in achieving balanced and integrated urban and rural development.

To achieve these goals, certain targets were set. In a nutshell, targets are useful tools to monitor and evaluate implementation of the National Policy on Population for Sustainable Development over time. The Government of Nigeria has set a goal of a 2 per cent population growth rate by 2015 or beyond in its National Economic Policy

The targets for reduction in the total fertility rate and increases in modern contraceptives prevalence indicated below are consistent with this goal. The following key targets have been set to guide policy, programme planning and implementation.

1. Achieve a reduction of the national population growth rate of 2 percent or lower by the years 2015.
2. Achieve a reduction in the total fertility rate of at least 0.6 children every five years.
3. Increase the modern contraceptive prevalence rate by at least 2-percentage point per year.
4. Reduce the infant mortality rate to 35 per 1,000 live births by 2015.
5. Reduce the child mortality rate to 45 per 1,000 live births by 2015.
6. Reduce the maternal mortality rate to 125 per 100,000 live births by 2010 and to 75 by 2015.
7. Eliminate the gap between men and women in enrolment in secondary, tertiary, vocational and technical education and training by 2015.
8. Eliminate illiteracy by 2020.
9. Achieve a 25 percent reduction in HIV adult prevalence every.