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Analysis of Development Prospect and Security Crisis in Nigeria

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Abstract
Elucidating development and security crisis in Sub-Sahara Africa with a bird eye view on Nigeria has been an issue worthy of consideration. This result from conflicts, insurgencies, and internal wars that characterise Nigeria as well as Post-Colonial African States. The study investigate development prospect and security crisis in Nigeria. The research paper affirms that the prevailing security challenges confronting the Nigerian state are structurally entrenched and deeply rooted in development crises. This vacuum has led to societal maladies such as economic disparities, ethno-religious divides, inequality, unemployment, poverty, and marginalisation, to mention a few thus, transcending into a national security problem, which now seems to threaten the unity of the State. Adopting the methodology of qualitative approach with the use of secondary data and content analysis, the research adopts the Political Instability Theory in analysing development prospect and security crises in Nigeria. The study finds that institutional corruption, economic disparities, ethno-religious divide are some of the factors enhancing development and security crises in Nigeria. The study concludes that the problems of development and security crises will persist in Nigeria so far security problems are treated differently from developmental challenges. The research paper recommends the tackling the problem of unemployment in Nigeria, collaboration with the international community as a means of litigating development problems and security crises in the Nigerian state.

Keywords: Development, Security, Sub-Sahara Africa, Nigeria, Corruption

Introduction

The search for stability, as well as development, is undoubtedly the holy-grail for Sub-Sahara African states; it is an endless, laborious, yet elusive quest for the circumstances that would allow these nations

to create the institutions and frameworks necessary to guarantee political stability, economic growth, equitable wealth distribution, and public accountability. Despite how difficult this may seem, it is nevertheless possible to make the case that all nations, both developing and non-developing alike, strive to reach a specific level. Each nation strives to have a strong and diverse economy, a cohesive internal society, and political stability for its people. It depends on a variety of circumstances, largely internal ones, how and to what extent these goals are realised. Resources, both natural and human, are important, to start. But the power to harness resources for the general good mostly falls under the purview of administrative competence, technological know-how, and political leadership. Consequently, a capable, strong leadership is required. These, particularly in Africa, are not plentiful in many nations. The issue of national security, as defined by these nations' capacity to protect their territorial integrity and, more crucially, as a means of ensuring internal peace and stability, is one that is closely tied.

However, in order to do this successfully, threats that can lead to insecurity for the state, such as unemployment, poverty, and disparity, both existing and potential, must be reduced. It goes without saying that this cannot be achieved without development that correctly and aggressively addresses these issues. So, caught in this unbreakable tango, security as defined by national development is the primary challenge facing third-world nations. For them, discussing internal security without corresponding thought to the issue of national development is pointless, like chasing a shadow.

This research paper's aim is to offer a basic framework for studying Sub-Sahara States' rising level of insecurity with a special reference to the Nigerian state in the past decade. The Nigerian state is selected as the research case study as a result of some significant factors. Firstly, Nigeria has the largest population in the continent of Africa (Ucha, 2010). As a result, other African states have a critical strategic stake in its security. Consequently, unlike, the Federal Republic of Cameroon, the collapse of the country's governmental structures will significantly impact sub-regional security for the entire continent. Secondly, many people continue to be perplexed by the Nigerian states' failure to grasp and use its vast materials and human resources successfully. Rich in both natural as well as human resources, Nigeria serves as a prime illustration of how a once-promising third-world state could go from the mantra of developing to under-developing and sadly to de-developing as a result of years of inefficacy and inefficiency, mismanagement, political corruption, and weak democratic institutions (Ogunleye-Adetona, 2010). The level of state’s growth and development ultimately influences the level of protection and security of a state at any given time, as this research work demonstrates in its construction of the framework by integrating the conceptions of security and development. This is demonstrated by the research work's premise that there is a relationship between the conceptions of national security and national development, and that a state's national security situation is determined by its level of inequality, poverty and unemployment. The research study begins with an overview of the conceptions of development and security, establishing the relationship between the two, and then moves on to an onthological investigation of the significant factors (variables) to Nigeria's underdevelopment and security challenges.

The variables is considerably more pressing and evident in many African nations as well. A growing population explosion and a corresponding decline in political accountability and economic productivity and; caused by many years of high levels of political corruption, poor leadership, weak institutions, and a lack of the ability to transform their human and material resources, turned these nations into veritable incubators for the emergence of violent anti-state groups whose ideology would lead them to commit acts of violence against the state (Stern and Ojendal, 2010). This philosophy has been largely fueled by the state's disregard of, or inability to change, its citizens' ambitions for a meaningful, purposeful, and high-quality life over the years. Due to this, many of them began to lose their legitimacy. On the one hand, tribal and/or religious loyalty clashes with state loyalty, while on the other, albeit crime, extreme anarchy, violence, and lawlessness threaten the state's continuous integrity, territorial integrity and stability.

Statement of Problem

Over the years, Sub-Sahara African states and indeed Nigeria have been plagued with numerous challenges that have hindered its development prospects and security efforts ranging from terrorism, insurgency, kidnapping, armed robbery to ethno-religious conflicts which has left it vulnerable to security threats. Despite concerted efforts by the government to address these issues through various policies and initiatives such as the establishment of security agencies and community policing programs, these problems still persist. Addressing these issues requires a comprehensive approach that involves tackling fundamental economic issues while implementing measures that promote peacebuilding and conflict prevention at all levels.

Objectives of the study

The research paper seeks to address the following objectives:

i. To elucidate the indices enhancing development and security crisis in Sub-Sahara African states with keen reference to the Nigerian state.
ii. To recommend substantial means of addressing national security problems, which eventually lead to developmental issues.

Literature Review

Conceptual Clarification of Development

Development is a subjective and frequently disputed idea (Kolade, 2012). However, there are some specific development benchmarks that can be reached and are generally accepted. For example, it is simple to make the case that every human community aspires to powerful, effective, and dynamic political and economic institutions that anticipate their citizens' needs and provide them rapid, appropriate attention. It is likewise feasible to claim that any society has minimal standards that all of its members must uphold which include having access to functioning healthcare services, access to clean

water, access to high-quality educational training for all people, and having an equal chance in the political sphere where competing based on meritocracy is preserved over other factors. These are all ideals that cut through cultural barriers. Therefore, if our perception of development is situational in any way, it may primarily depend on the viewpoints from which it is viewed. This explains why people frequently attempt to separate the components of national development into separate topics. As a result, one often hears of economic, social, political, religious, and cultural development as if it were possible to analyse development properly without incorporating these factors and using a holistic approach. According to Gopinath (2008, p. 91), who contends that the only way to evaluate development is monetarily; a developing state is one where "there is a large potential to enhance the per capita living standard" of its citizens. This is undoubtedly a legacy of the intellectual division that dominated developmental studies in the early 60s and late 1970s, when most of development frameworks got their theoretical base from mainstream economics. In that idea, economic expansion was seen as a necessary component of development and was broadly accepted as the primary goal of the decolonised states of Asia and Africa (Korbi, 2015).

Even in these isolated theories, a prevailing view suggests that a fundamental revolution occurs across time and distance due to a steady drip effect. As a result, development is nothing more than a characterisation of a particular state where an object's physical development and maturity advance in synchrony. When referring to human societies, development simply denotes a situation; or states that involves improvements in the quality and quantity of life for every community member. We refer to a situation as under-development when there is a comparable drop or retrogression in the standard of living for a sizable percentage of an entire population (Rodney, 1972). Development as well as underdevelopment, in essence, denote a relational condition in which one precisely reflects the lack of the other.

Development is conceptualised as qualitative improvement, quantitative growth, and enlargement in the capabilities, powers, and choices of individuals, communities, or institutions (Mirakhor and Askari, 2010). According to Mogilevsky (2010), development is defined as “the change of the biosphere as well as the application of man's financial, non-living and living resources to meet human wants and similarly enhance lives; quality of life.” A common theme across all views of development is the understanding that raising everyone's standard of living is both development's fundamental aim and its primary objective. The focus is very much on skill-building and empowering among society's people so they can improve their living circumstances. The most analytical and concise conceptualisation of development is still provided by Dudley Seers, who addresses essential political and socio-economic issues and attempts to connect them to human development. Seers (1972) claims;

…… "the inquiries to make in regards to a nation's development are... What is the current State of poverty? What is the current state of unemployment? What has inequality been up to lately? It is clear that there has been a period of development for the nation in question if all three of these have decreased

from greater levels. Even if per capita income doubled, it would be unusual to refer to the outcome as "development" if one or more of these issues have been getting worse, especially if all three have."

Thus, rather than emphasising economic growth based on abstract data, the emphasis is placed on the individual as a crucial component of society and the subject of any transformation. This study contends that this theory of development offers a superb analytical foundation from which a proper justification for the connection between security and development can be drawn. The three signs that Seers present serve as an instructive foundation for this paper's analysis.

The Concept of Security

Political scientists and other security scholars have never responded satisfactorily to the question of what security in contemporary times actually entails. This is because, its perception changes over time. For example, most publications in the mainstream study of security until recently explicitly conceptualise State's capacity to protect its national sovereignty from threats, either real or imagined and other prospective adversaries. States construct and outfit their armed forces to accomplish this. This conception's central tenet is that threats and hostility of force are successfully deterred by a state's ability to use violence against an adversary (Akinbi**,** 2015). On a national level, there is a misconception that all that is needed to safeguard a state is its national law enforcement and other domestic intelligence tools.

But in the post-Cold War age, there is a clear shift in what security means. There is currently an effort to widen it to include more pertinent, if not essential, components within this conceptualisation. Today, issues like economic growth and development, political equality, good governance and accountability are necessary to any thorough analysis and assessment of the security concern. Perhaps this is due to the customary militaristic view of security that predominated Cold War discourse, which proved ineffective and utterly unable to satisfy security aspirations among many states. This new idea places a priority on human development. As a result, we observe in this change a new and expanded notion of security, which refers to a state's ability to protect itself against external dangers using all available means and challenges by ensuring the general socio-economic welfare of its citizens and populace (Enobi, 2016). Here, there exists a clearer understanding of the significance of additional issues, such as environmental, political, social and economic concerns, as essential elements of any nation's security (Buzan and Hansen, 2009).

According to Enobi (2016), security is a reasonable degree of certainty at many levels within the social system, from local communities to the international level. Here, it is understood that there is an existence of order at the international level that depends on the predictability of the actions of other system participants. Thus, security at the local level comprises the state's capacity to foresee the foreseeable effects of any given circumstance on its residents. The ability of the state to maintain law and order, though that may be significant, does not hold the key to success; rather, it is in the creation of the required socio-economic conditions that ensure a reasonable degree of predictability on the behaviour of its residents. For our purposes, security is a condition of diminished or contained tension

and dangers in which the stability of a given state is not immediately threatened from both the inside and the outside. Here, stability is defined as the pattern, order, and regularity that, over a long period of time, typified the State's position.

Security and Development Challenges in the Nigerian state: The Three Indices

From the national or domestic security standpoint, several conclusions may be drawn from Nigerian state threat analysis over the past ten years. One, unlike, for example, South and North Korea, Pakistan and India, or Kuwait and Iraq prior to the start of the Gulf War, Nigeria does not face an imminent threat from its neighbours. The Nigerian state rises way above all of its neighbours in terms of its economic as well as its military prowess, making it nearly impossible for any of the sub-Saharan states to declare open enmity. Despite maintaining a love-hate relationship with Cameroon on the eastern side for several years over a disputed region, the (ICJ) International Court of Justice in The Hague eventually settled the conflict. Second, the Nigerian state has never engaged in open conflict with any superpower powerful enough to attack it, except the Murtala and Abacha administrations. However, even those conflicts between the United States under Murtala and Abacha were, in the researcher's perspective, State's efforts to cement its sovereignty and rule over the African continent. Therefore, the research might characterise them as a struggle for hegemony and domination in African political affairs between an existing global superpower and an aspiring continental superpower. Third, it would be impossible and immoral for Nigerian state to attack another nation in the continent due to its status as 'big brother' and the prestige it commands in the continent of Africa. International law approved every one of its military incursions, which were numerous in other countries. All of these support the strong claim that Nigeria's key security risks will almost entirely come from inside and be based on socio-economic and political inequalities. These fundamental problems have been ingrained over many years in Nigeria's sociopolitical and economic systems. A single-line economy and problems like extreme poverty, tribalism, major corruption, bad government, and almost no industrial foundation are frequently referred to be traits of developing nations. While this may be the case, it is crucial to note that in the case of the Nigerian state, these traits have persisted for a very long time, making it difficult for any deliberate effort to promote national growth. By the turn of the 20th century, all vestige of political responsibility and people-centered leadership had been gone due to decades of military control combined with an inefficient and corrupt bureaucracy.

After 1999, Nigerians had a resurgence of optimism and hope that the socio-economic and political development difficulties impeding the State's development and progress would be resolved. The election of a new democratic government administration, first of its kind in about twenty years, was a significant factor in this confidence (Okeyim, 2013). Six general elections as well as twenty-three years after the initial change later, Nigeria's situation could be characterised as a precipitous decline into worsening (Aniekwe & Kushie, 2011). The country is currently on the verge of collapse as it faces the

harsh realities of a failing state. These hopes, optimism, and longings that came with democracy have now been replaced with disillusionment and dissatisfaction. The violent conflicts, armed group interactions with the State on an intra-tribal, tribal, and religious level, the prevalence of urban crime, and the sense of insecurity all serve as outlets for this rage and frustration.

In addition, it would not be overstating things to argue that gradually over the past ten years, the State has lost its exclusive right to use force. Nigeria has earned the reputation of a failing, if not failed, State in this millennium, thanks to organisations like the Bandits, Boko-Haram, Herdsmen in the Northern part of the country, IPOB in the East, Odua People's Congress (OPC) in the Western part of the country, kidnapping and armed robbery roaming the highways in the Southern part of the country. Reviewing the story of the nation's economic development and growth over the past 50 years is essential to understanding how the nation has been reduced to this depressing display. This will give us a foundation for understanding how various internal security threats have evolved over time.

According to Nwagboso (2021), the most pitiful aspect of the Nigerian state is that the bulk of its citizens live in a condition of deprivation while the other fairly minority; are thriving in wealth and prosperity. The fact that the Nigerian state has not had any appreciable economic growth and progress in its six-two years as a sovereign state is economically significant. A good example of this is the pace of economic growth from 1966 and 1997, which varied between 0.1% and $790 per capita on average, well below the $1,060 overall mean for West African States (Nwagboso**,** 2021). Nigeria is richly blessed with a vast amount of material and human resources, but it has repeatedly shown that it is unable, or most likely not ready, to use these plentiful resources for its growth. One of the top eight crude oil producers, its economy is a conventional single centered because royalties and rent from oil exports provide virtually all of its industrial base. Oil and agricultural profits made up 2.7% and 89%, respectively, of all foreign revenues in the years immediately after the country gained independence. Currently, there's a reversal of role where the agricultural industry, which was once the foundation of rural economies, has all but disappeared, and exports of crude oil make up more than 90% of all foreign revenues as of the turn of the last century (Nwagboso**,** 2021). This has a very evident consequence. Since most rural residents who are under, or unemployed move to metropolitan areas in pursuit of white-collar jobs, creating a rich pool of incompetent workforce, it causes a huge increase in urban impoverishment (Nwagboso**,** 2021). The Nigerian state's socio-economic conditions are ssummarised by Meredith, (2006) as;

> *Amid a $280 billion oil fortune, the economy was in disarray, public services were consistently ineffective, hospitals and schools were falling apart, higher education had all but collapsed, the roads were littered with potholes, and the communication network hardly worked. Power outages were common, as well as domestic gasoline supply difficulties. Nigeria citizens were, in general impoverished in 2020 more than they were in the early 1970s, at the beginning of the oil boom. At $310, the income per head was less than one-third of what it was in 1980. The vast majority of people had no access to clean water and survived on less than 50 cents per day. Approximately half of younger children*

> *were stunted due to inadequate nutrition, and nearly one-fifth of toddlers died before turning five. Without access to basic facilities, lots of its citizens resides in slums surrounded by decaying piles of trash.*

Nigeria was placed by the World Bank at the bottom of twenty-five of nations in terms of human development indices in 2009, with states like Ghana, Zambia, and Kenya ranking higher. These indicators measure literacy levels, accessibility to health facilities and clean water, human nutrition, mortality rates, and rates of malnutrition (Khalid, 2009). Over 100 million Nigerians, according to a similar National Bureau of Statistics survey from 2010, are in extreme poverty leaving on less than $1 per day (BBC, 2012). These statistics are noteworthy because they were acquired during the surges of economic and institutional reforms that the Obasanjo's government initiated in late 1999 and early 2000. One could speculate on the numbers if the reforms were not implemented at all. For instance, employment indices in the Nigerian state rose from 163 in 2000 to 1,867 in 2004 (Akinbi, 2015). The impact this unfavourable trend has on the citizens is best understood in the context of the current degree of insecurity in the nation, arguably due to inefficient economic resource management.

The study has highlighted that both economic and political factors might be used to explain this underdevelopment in Nigeria, while it also observed how inadequate economic progress produces a category of poor and dissatisfied majorities in the State. The only thing left for us to do is to look at this dilemma's political aspect. For a thorough analysis of law, order, and development in a third-world country, political action—defined in terms of political accountability and strong, effective public institutions—is essential. This is so because there is an unbreakable connection between political progress a human development. Democratic culture and values must control all decision-making and fundamental governance processes where political growth and accountability and openness are significantly mature.

This is very important in heterogeneous societies like the Nigerian state because it creates the conditions for the peaceful resolution of various religious and sociocultural problems. As a result, the level of security in the nation strongly correlates with the character of the political institutions and leadership, as well as their understanding of social challenges, dynamism, and response to the desires of the people. If the political establishment is found to be dishonest and unaccountable, the democratic ideals and ambitions of the populace will be suppressed. In this situation, the ruling class's personal political objectives took and priced the public interest. In the end, this invariably creates an atmosphere of mistrust, suspicion, dread, and alienation, where the rage that has been suppressed finds a violent outlet.

Since the country's independence, political developments in the Nigerian state have generally followed the typical African tendency, in which the civilian political establishment and military elites alternately control the majority of African governments. This makes it simple to draw a few conclusions about the structure of the acquisition of power and its abuse in different states. In general, elite 'power' politics determine public events at every given moment, and as a result, the mindset of the ruling elites determines how national politics act at any given time. But in contrast to a call to nation-building based

on the values of equality, tolerance, constitutionalism and the rule of law, the prevalent practice defines politics as a zero-sum game in which the winner takes all (Tar and Shettima, 2010). In actuality, constitutionalism never goes further than the mindset that it is a rule that can be broken without repercussions for the typical African and particularly the Nigerian state political class. Because of this, implementing democratic practices is famously challenging.

In the Nigerian state, the return to a democratic dispensation in 1999 succeeded in creating an impunity culture among the power elite in all levels of governmental structure, where corruption, absolute stealing of the state purse, gross abuse of constitutional norms, provisions and principles, and violent, competitive pressure for political supremacy maintains control. This level of success was unprecedented in the country's political history (Iyekekpolo**,** 2020)**.** The most significant effect of this scenario, which the political elites create, is that they not only encourage corruption, mediocrity, and nepotism but also undermine democracy, commit electoral fraud, encourage religious divisions and ethnic sentiments in the Nigeria state for their selfish political gains, and generally create a sense of confusion and hopelessness about the precise direction the nation is going. By focusing on corruption, the political elite inadvertently creates the conditions that ultimately lead to the State's present security problems.

Theoretical Framework

Political Instability Theory

The theory of Political Instability is adopted for this research paper. The Political Instability Theory is a school of thought in international relations that seeks to explain the causes and consequences of development and security crises in countries (Lipscy, 2020). According to this theory, development challenges and security crisis arise when there is a mismatch between the expectations of the people and the ability of the government to meet those expectations (Lipscy, 2020). From this perspective, static development and security crises can be seen as a result of either a lack of legitimacy or capacity on the part of the government. If the government is perceived as illegitimate by its citizens, it may engage in protests, riots, or even violent uprisings to remove it from power. On the other hand, citizens may become frustrated and disillusioned with their leaders if the government lacks the capacity to provide basic services such as security, infrastructure, education and healthcare.

The consequences of political instability are often dire for both domestic and foreign actors. In many cases, it leads to economic decline, social unrest and an increase in violence which ultimately destabilises both national and regional security (Lipscy, 2020). Additionally, political instability can lead to refugee flows across borders, creating further tensions for neighbouring countries. Therefore, Political Instability Theory provides us with an important framework for understanding how challenges to development, security crisis and how governance can lead to crises that have far-reaching implications for regional stability and global security.

Methodology

The methodology adopted for this study is the qualitative research design. The qualitative research design focuses on understanding and interpreting perspectives and experiences through the collection and analysis of non-numerical data, such as interviews, observations, and documents. Similarly, the research relies mainly on secondary data of data collection. This include; published (and un-published) materials, such as: books, journals, and newspapers. Documentations on the subject matter from Libraries, lecture notes, internet etc. furthermore, data collected is analysed via content analysis. Content analysis is a research method used to study written, oral, or visual communication. It involves systematically categorizing and interpreting the content of messages using predefined criteria. The goal of content analysis is to identify patterns and themes within the data that can be used to draw conclusions about the meaning and use of language in a particular context.

Discussion of Findings

Ethnic and Religious Conflict as an Indices Enhancing Development and Security Crises in Nigeria

Ethnic and religious conflicts have proven to have a significant impact on the development and security crisis in Nigeria (Bamidele, 2020). Ethnic conflicts in Nigeria often result in the displacement of people, destruction of infrastructure, and disruption of economic activities. When different ethnic groups clash over land ownership or political power, it leads to violence that hampers development efforts. Displaced populations become vulnerable to poverty and malnutrition, as they are forced to abandon their homes and livelihoods. This hinders the overall socio-economic progress of affected regions. Also, religious conflicts further exacerbate the development challenges by dividing communities along religious lines (Gentile, 2019). Nigeria is a diverse country with a significant Muslim population in the north and a substantial Christian population in the south. Competition for resources or political dominance can be manipulated along religious lines, leading to violence between Muslims and Christians. Such conflicts not only hinder social cohesion but also damage critical infrastructure like schools, hospitals, and markets (Gentile, 2019).

In addition to impeding development, ethnic and religious conflicts pose severe threats to national security (Bamidele, 2020). They create an environment that habours to extremism and terrorism. Radical groups exploit existing fault lines within society to recruit members who feel marginalized or disenfranchised due to ethnic or religious differences. These groups engage in acts of violence that destabilize regions and undermine government authority. Furthermore, ethnic tensions in Nigeria often lead to political instability when politicians manipulate ethnicity for personal gain (Seife, 2022). Politicians often appeal to sentiments based on tribal affiliations during elections or when vying for power. This practice fuels animosity between different ethnic groups as they perceive themselves as fighting for their own survival within the political landscape. Consequently, this undermines

democratic processes by eroding trust in the political system and sowing the seeds of division. The security crises resulting from ethnic and religious conflicts also have economic consequences. Ongoing insecurity deters Foreign Direct Investment, limits trade, and disrupts business activities (Seife, 2022). In a country like Nigeria, heavily reliant on oil revenues, this can have devastating effects on the national economy. The diversion of resources towards security operations further drains funds that could have been allocated to development projects such as education, healthcare, and infrastructure. Thus, ethnic and religious conflicts in Nigeria pose significant challenges to both development and security. These conflicts hinder socio-economic progress, promote extremism, undermine political stability, damage critical infrastructure, impede foreign investment, and drain government resources.

Economic Disparity as an Indices Enhancing Development and Security Crises in Nigeria

Economic disparities play a significant role in exacerbating development and security crises in Nigeria. The country, with its abundant natural resources and potential for growth, continues to face challenges due to the unequal distribution of wealth and opportunities. Economic disparities hinder development by perpetuating poverty. Nigeria is home to one of the largest populations living below the poverty line in Sub-Saharan Africa (Akinyetun and Ambrose, 2021). The concentration of wealth among a small percentage of the population leaves a vast majority struggling to meet their basic needs. This inequality limits access to quality education, healthcare, and infrastructure, preventing individuals from reaching their full potential (Akinyetun and Ambrose, 2021). Consequently, the lack of opportunities for upward mobility contributes to social unrest and instability.

Furthermore, economic disparities exacerbate security crises in Nigeria. High levels of unemployment among young people, especially in urban areas, create fertile ground for criminal activities such as armed robbery and drug trafficking. The absence of alternative means to sustain livelihoods compels many individuals into illegal activities as a desperate measure to survive. Additionally, instances of kidnapping for ransom have increased due to socioeconomic inequalities. These security challenges not only endanger citizens' lives but also deter foreign investment and impede overall economic growth. Moreover, economic disparities deepen ethnic and religious divisions within Nigeria. Resource-rich regions often experience marginalization as their wealth flows primarily to other parts of the country. This creates resentment and grievances that fuel conflicts between different ethnic or religious groups seeking control over resources or political power. Such tensions have led to violence and instability in various parts of Nigeria over the years.

Corruption as an Indices Enhancing Development and Security Crises in Nigeria

Corruption is a multifaceted and pervasive social phenomenon that involves the abuse of entrusted power for personal gain or advantage (Basabose, 2019). It encompasses a broad range of unethical and illegal activities, characterized by dishonesty, bribery, nepotism, embezzlement, favouritism, extortion,

and other forms of misconduct. At its core, corruption undermines the principles of fairness, transparency, accountability, and justice within societies. It distorts the functioning of public institutions and hampers socio-economic development by diverting resources away from their intended purposes. Corruption has plagued Nigeria for decades and remains one of the biggest obstacles to its development and one of the factors enhancing security crises in the polity. It permeates every sector of society, including politics, business, judiciary, and public administration (Basabose, 2019). This widespread corruption erodes trust in government institutions, undermines public services delivery, hampers economic growth, and perpetuates poverty.

Corruption and Development Challenges

Corruption intertwines with development challenges in Nigeria. The misappropriation of funds intended for developmental projects limits the country's ability to invest in critical infrastructure such as roads, electricity grids, water supply systems, and healthcare facilities. This shortfall impedes economic growth by hindering trade activities and discouraging foreign investment. Additionally, corruption undermines educational institutions by compromising academic standards through fraudulent practices like examination malpractices or "sorting" – where students bribe teachers for better grades. This erodes the quality of education provided to Nigerian youths who represent the future workforce. Inadequate access to quality education exacerbates unemployment rates among young people, creating a fertile ground for social unrest and insecurity. The development of human capital is vital for economic progress, and without proper investment in education and skills training, Nigeria's potential remains untapped.

Corruption and Security Crises

The security crises in Nigeria are multidimensional, with factors such as terrorism, ethno-religious conflicts, armed banditry, and secessionist movements contributing to instability across the nation. These issues are often rooted in socio-economic disparities, political marginalization, corruption, and weak governance. Boko Haram, an extremist group that seeks to establish an Islamic state in Nigeria, has been responsible for numerous attacks resulting in the loss of thousands of lives and displacement of millions. The group exploits grievances stemming from poverty, rampant corruption, and lack of inclusion to recruit new members. Ethno-religious conflicts fueled by competition over resources and political power have also led to violence in various regions of Nigeria. Inadequate responses from security agencies further exacerbate these tensions. Furthermore, armed banditry and kidnapping for ransom have become prevalent challenges particularly in the northern part of the country. These criminal activities not only pose a threat to individuals but also hamper economic activities as businesses struggle to operate under heightened insecurity.

Diplomacy as a Substantial Means of Addressing National Security Problems in Nigeria

Diplomacy plays a crucial role in addressing national security problems in Nigeria. As a complex and diverse nation, Nigeria faces various security challenges, ranging from terrorism and insurgency to ethno-religious conflicts and resource-based disputes. In such a context, diplomacy serves as an effective tool for resolving conflicts, fostering cooperation, and promoting stability (Muniruzzaman, 2020). Firstly, diplomacy helps in preventing conflicts by facilitating negotiations between different parties. Through diplomatic channels, countries can engage in dialogue to find common ground and resolve their differences peacefully. In the case of Nigeria, diplomatic efforts have been instrumental in managing ethno-religious conflicts that have threatened national security. Diplomatic initiatives such as interfaith dialogues and peace conferences have helped build trust between communities and bridge divides. By promoting understanding and tolerance, diplomacy contributes to reducing the tensions that often lead to violence.

Secondly, diplomacy enables countries to cooperate on matters of mutual interest, thereby enhancing regional and international security (Muniruzzaman, 2020). In Nigeria's case, diplomatic engagement with neighbouring countries is crucial for addressing transnational security challenges like terrorism and cross-border crimes. Cooperation through joint operations, intelligence sharing, and capacity building programs can significantly strengthen the collective response against these threats. Effective diplomatic relations also promote economic integration and development, which can contribute to long-term stability by addressing underlying grievances that fuel insecurity. Furthermore, diplomacy plays a vital role in mediating conflicts within the country. In Nigeria's diverse society where different ethnic groups coexist, tensions can arise over issues such as resource allocation or political power-sharing. Diplomatic processes like mediation and negotiation help bring conflicting parties together to find mutually acceptable solutions. The example of Niger Delta conflict illustrates how diplomacy has been employed successfully to mitigate tensions arising from disputes over oil resources. By engaging stakeholders through dialogue facilitated by diplomats or third-party mediators, peaceful resolutions can be achieved, thus reducing the potential for violence.

Moreover, diplomacy helps in strengthening international alliances and partnerships that enhance national security. As a member of various regional and international organizations such as the African Union and the United Nations, the Nigerian state can utilise diplomatic channels to build strategic relationships with other nations. These alliances will provide Nigeria with access to resources, expertise, and support that can bolster its security capabilities. Additionally, diplomatic efforts contribute to shaping international norms and policies that address global security challenges. By actively participating in multilateral forums, Nigeria can promote its interests while contributing to global peace and stability. Lastly, diplomacy promotes soft power strategies that complement traditional security approaches. Soft power involves influencing others through cultural exchange programs, educational initiatives, and public diplomacy campaigns (Zaharna, 2021). By engaging with other nations on cultural platforms, Nigeria can showcase its rich heritage, diversity, and potential as a

nation. This not only enhances Nigeria's image but also fosters goodwill among nations. Furthermore, diplomatic engagement can enables the state to advocate for issues of national importance such as human rights or sustainable development in multilateral forums (Zaharna, 2021). Such efforts will strengthen Nigeria's influence on the global stage and contribute to long-term peacebuilding. Thus, diplomacy serves as a valuable means of addressing national security problems in Nigeria. Through negotiations, cooperation, mediation, alliance-building, and soft power strategies like cultural exchanges, diplomacy plays a crucial role in preventing conflicts and resolving existing ones. By harnessing the power of dialogue and engagement at various levels - local, regional, continental, and global-Nigeria can effectively tackle its security challenges while promoting stability within its borders and beyond.

Conclusion

This paper conclude that the problem of insecurity will persist and continue to afflict the Nigerian state as long as the issue of national security is treated differently from the point of national development, and do not take proactive steps to address the problems of economic disparity, corruption and as well as social exclusion based on religion and tribe. This holds for other emerging states dealing with the difficulties of economic development, democratisation, and political reform, particularly those in the continent of Africa. Despite being created with the Nigerian state in mind, this framework acknowledged the similarities of the problems most Sub-Saharan African Nations confront presently. Widespread and systemic poverty, societal injustice and inequality, slow development and economic growth, shoddy democratization efforts, and corrupt and autocratic leadership continue to be some of the most prominent issues for most African nations. As a result, wars, social unrest, and young restlessness have persisted in these areas.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are made from the finding;

1. Seeing national security and national development as separate issues is counterproductive and dangerous, especially for emerging states like Nigeria. As a result, decision-makers must recognise the significance of this truth and begin developing the institutions and measures that will effectively assure development, accountability, and justice in their nations. Otherwise, all efforts to combat insecurity will remain fruitless.
2. The international community cannot afford to ignore problems associated with social fairness, democracy, political reforms, and good governance in developing states. The engagement of the developed states in all domains that promote these issues in the developing states is very vital. These contribute significantly to sustainable development, progress, and peace, by extension, world peace. No one benefits when major world powers, for tactical reasons, choose to ignore flagrant abuses of human rights, poor governance, corruption, social injustice, and inequality among their

partners in developing states. Because in the end, it feeds the factors that put the world's peace in peril. Therefore, it is the responsibility of the entire international community to support emerging countries like Nigeria by insisting on good governance, a sincere democratic process, and credible leadership on the part of their leaders.

3. The challenges of unemployment should be addressed promptly as evidence has shown that unemployment breeds conflict in form of social disorder. Disorder in the polity breeds security crises while security challenges enhance the problems of development.

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Entrepreneurship, Information and Communication Technology Education for Sustainable Development in Nigeria

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Abstract

The path to global prosperity, as declared by the world leaders is Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) for tackling the problems of rapid destruction of natural resources, envitonmental pollution and climate change. This paper considered Entrepreneurship, Information and Communication Technology Education by looking at the challenges and opportunities of entrepreneurship education. The objective of this paper is to find out the significance of ICT to entrepreneurship education for sustainable development in Nigeria. The paper, however, discussed the concepts of entrepreneurship, entrepreneurship education and entrepreneur with the associated characteristics. The evolution and development of entrepreneurship education in Nigeria were delved into. Entrepreneurship education was discussed in relevance to sustainable development. The interaction with some entrepreneurs in Lagos, Ogun and Oyo States revealed that small scale business entrepreneurs are encouraged by using computer-related machines for their business operation. However, the paper concluded that workforce preparation is being slowed down and that entrepreneurship education, as a functional training, can energise the youths for the changing globalisation features. The usefulness of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) to entrepreneurs was discussed. This paper recommended that more entrepreneurs should embrace ICT in order to facilitate the operation of their businesses and that government should provide an enabling entrepreneurial environment where emerging entrepreneurs can thrive and innovate for sustainability.

Keywords: Entrepreneurship Education, ICT Education, Sustainable development

Introduction

Unemployment is an economic condition in which individuals seeking jobs remain un-hired. It seems to be increasing among the youths and is causing a lot of unrest among them. The implication of

unemployment is in the forms of kidnapping, banditry, prostitution, cybercrime among others (Efido and Ogbu, 2020). This issue of unemployment, in the past, had been tackled by subsequent governments. Still, the administration of General Olusegun Obasanjo brought about the implementation of entrepreneurship education as a compulsory course in all tertiary institutions, irrespective of course of study, with the main goal of empowering the undergraduates with skill acquisition as an alternative education. This intention continued after graduation at the orientation camp for three weeks, where the Youth Service Corps members were asked to choose a skill to undergo during the camping period. Entrepreneurship education is a functional education, empowering beneficiaries with knowledge, skills and competence in venture creation.

The dearth of 'paid jobs' in Nigeria triggers off the ingenuity in man to create something new, take a risk, constantly fine-tune his products to meet the demands of consumers and maximise profits to become independent. This innate ability brings about entrepreneurial actions (Ayeni, Olufemi and Adesola, 2018). Entrepreneurship is a process engaged in by a creative individual towards contributing to the growth of the economy while creating wealth for self and causing a change to societal problems.

In Nigeria, the term 'entrepreneurship' describes self-employment, that is, people who employ themselves rather than seeking paid employment from the government or other sources (Ugoani and Ibeenwo, 2015). It is the capacity and willingness to develop, organise and manage a business venture and its risks to make a profit (Afolabi, Kareem, Okunbanjo, Ogunbanjo and Aninkan, 2017). It is, therefore, seen as identifying and evaluating economically viable business opportunities, gathering necessary resources to take advantage of them and initiating appropriate managerial skills to ensure success. It is a creative and innovative response to one's situation by doing a new thing or doing an old thing in a new and spectacular way (Oviame, 2010 in Abari and Ayeni, 2017). Entrepreneurship, as opined by Ekwale (2014), is a process of value creation by combining the necessary resources and skills in certain ways and, in so doing, placing products and services on the market at risk and pursuing a profit, thereby benefiting society. These activities, aligned with entrepreneurship are in form of idea generation, creativity and innovation, identification of opportunities, leadership spirit, financial literacy, consistency and perseverance.

To succeed in an entrepreneurship venture, one must go through entrepreneurship education to gain the right skills, knowledge and attitudes (Efido and Ogbu, 2020). This special education is a learning process that seeks to provide learners with the attitude, knowledge, skills and competento encourage entrepreneurial success in various schooling from basic to secondary schools through graduate university programmes (Anaele, Amadi and Obed, 2016). The core of entrepreneurship education is turning ideas into action and developing a sense of initiative, making it important and pivotal (Bolatito and Nakazelle, 2017). Creative education embraces conception, actualisation, financing, data collection, career formulation, policy promulgation, staff recruitment and orientation

(Ayeni, Olufemi and Adesola, 2018).

It could be said that the training empowers the beneficiaries with long-life skills that enable them to maximise profits to become independent. Entrepreneurship education plays a key role in developing a business environment by creating new ventures, encouraging entrepreneurial orientation and acquiring business skills (the Republic of Rwanda in Abari and Ayeni, 2017).

The process of entrepreneurship is driven by someone known as an 'entrepreneur'. As such, he/she is the centre of the process and the education.

An entrepreneur sets up a business, taking on financial risks in the hope of profit. This business may be farming, manufacturing, retailing or in the service sector.

This is an independent individual who sees an opportunity, utilises it and bears the risks of uncertainties with the mindset to succeed. That is why Kumar (2011) positions an entrepreneur as an individual who has or operates a business venture where profits and revenues are obtained. Also, Bolton and Thompson (2000) see an entrepreneur as someone who consistently produces and invents a product that has recognisable value to his surroundings and the society at large to meet perceived opportunities. He/she utilises the opportunities of instability, turbulence, and lack and wants to produce something new or modify an existing for-profit motive (Bagby, 2008). An entrepreneur is a person that has some comparative advantages in the decision-making process either because of information or different perception of events or opportunities that persist. It was opined by Oseni (2017) that an entrepreneur is an individual who establishes a new business in the face of risks and uncertainties to achieve profit and growth by recognising opportunities and gathering the necessary resources to capitalise on them.

Aja, Onoh and Igwe (2018) quoted entrepreneurs as gurus of entrepreneurship at the Wharton School who behaved like possessed men and women once they experienced a flash of ideas known as entrepreneurship insight. Examples of entrepreneurs start with those youngsters who use their skills of vocation such as hairdressing, fashion designing, bead making, bag making, stove thread making, event decoration, and catering services to big-time entrepreneurs such as Olsen, who made IBM machines, Bill Gates who developed Microsoft wares, Akanni Okoya Thomas, founder of Eleganza Group of Companies, Aliko Dangote, founder of Dangote Group of Companies and so on. All these people play vital roles as catalysts in the nation's economy. Entrepreneurs are characterised by ingenuity, creativity and innovation.

As laudable as this programme is, it seems the main goal, which is to empower young graduates with skills capable of employability for them, is not fully achieved. This paper is looking at the Evaluation of Entrepreneurship Education Programme vis-à-vis its challenges and opportunities.

Every business is an adventure, hence, the ability and possibility for the venture to succeed or fail depend on the capacity of the entrepreneur to employ his/her positive attributes while retraining their negative attributes effectively. According to Onyido and Duru (2019), entrepreneurs possess characteristics such as self-confidence which can be seen as one of the essential attributes an

entrepreneur must possess. Entrepreneur must believe in his/herself and the project they intend to embark on. Entrepreneurs should be able to see the obstacles or difficulties in achieving their goals as challenges which must be faced squarely and conquered. He/she must maintain high emotional stability in the face of difficulties. Another skill an entrepreneur needs is an ability to take risk. He/she must take starategic decisions before embarking on any project. He/she must be result-oriented and set achievable goal and objectives. He/she needs to show a high level of drive by putting in a serious amount of physical and mental energy. An entrepreneur needs to also have the skill of leadership in order to encourage and guide individuals towards achieving organizational goals and objectives.

Objective of the study

This paper seeks to find out the usefulness of Information and Communication Technology to entrepreneurs for Sustainable Development in Nigeria.

Conceptual Review

Entrepreneurship

The term "Entrepreneurship" was obtained from the French word *"Entreprendre"* which literally means "to undertake". This term suggests that entrepreneurship can be regarded as the practice of engaging in activities that are detailed to identify and exploit opportunities for business and the inherent risk involved (Ahmad and Seymour, 2008). Entrepreneurship is commonly regarded as the process of creating new ideas towards self-reliance. It encompasses using individual abilities, money and other assets to achieve profitability and sustainability of the business venture (Okereke, and Okoroafor, 2011). Entrepreneurship can, thus, be said to be a person's capability and willingness to seek and utilise investment opportunities which gradually grow to a large scale. Developing new ideas to develop existing products and generating new ones is known as innovation. The progression of our social existence resulted from the invention of new technologies and ways of doing things.

According to Schumpeter, an Australian economist, as recorded in Ezuka (2012), the single function of entrepreneurship is innovation, such as in getting new product, applying new production method, exploring new market and establishing new forms of organization.

There is a need to note that wealth is created when such innovation results in new demand. Succinctly, entrepreneurship is a process of value creation by combining the necessary resources and skills in certain ways and, in so doing, placing products and services on the market at risk in pursuance of a profit (Ekwale, 2014).

The environment where an entrepreneur exploits opportunities is rather greater than people with brilliance in isolation. Therefore, the time and space of an entrepreneur is important. The concept of entrepreneurship has been refined from being a personal perspective to a kind of behaviour of an

entrepreneur in his/her ability to initiate ideas, perceive opportunity, turn the available resources to exploits profitably and accept risk in times of uncertainty.

Entrepreneurship is also seen as identifying and evaluating economically viable business opportunities, gathering necessary resources to take advantage of them and initiating appropriate managerial skills to ensure success (Nelson, 2010). It is creative and innovative responses to one's situation by doing a new thing or an old thing in a new spectacular way (Oviame, 2010).

In the Nigerian economy, Alhaji Dangote can be compared to or referred to as an entrepreneur who has revolutionised the Nigerian economic space. Starting from a small business and becoming a large business enterprise, he broke new ground, took the risks and explored the opportunities available to him. He is a wealth creator and an employer of labour in the country.

Evolution and Development of Entrepreneurship Education in Nigeria

Indegenous Entrepreneurship started when people produced more goods than they needed and as such, they had to exchange those surpluses. Through this exchange of produce, entrepreneurship started. Hence, early entrepreneurship started with trade by barter, exchanging goods for goods before any form of money. The historical evolution started from expansion through innovation and inventions (Nzewi, 2017). The period brought about the perception of entrepreneurs to the identification of opportunities and exploitation of new ideas into inventions which were commercialised and thus improved the standard of living of the citizenry. The dramatic change ushered in the use of automobiles, touch lights, computers, mobile phones and so on.

Modern entrepreneurship began with the entrance of the colonial masters who made Nigerians the middlemen for their wares. In 1700 B.C., the merchants from New Guinea came to Nigeria when our fore-parents exchanged a black volcanic glass used to make hunting arrowheads for other goods (Buame, 1996). In this way, modern entrepreneurship emerged. Nigerians started buying and selling on a small scale and later grew to a large-scale business. Presently, there are diversified businesses in production, technologically induced and supported businesses such as assembly plants of vehicles, information technology communication outfits and so on. This is how entrepreneurship thrived and many Nigerians were making profits from buying and selling, hence, becoming recognised traders. The inability of the government to employ most school leavers and the encouragement to go into a private business through the introduction of entrepreneurship education into the curriculum of tertiary institutions and the vocational programme in Basic and Post-Basic Schools, have made the entrepreneurial mindset of the beneficiaries to be quickened.

Entrepreneurship Education in Perspective

The seeming initial absence of entrepreneurship education has brought Nigeria to where it is today: the unemployment of her youths, especially young graduates. This is partly a result of the ignorance of

parents and the community of the usefulness of vocational and technical skills (Okocha, 2009). There is a need to balance the three domains of learning, which are cognitive, affective and psychomotor, to have a complete education and sustainable development.

Hence, the government should provide skills that have been transformed into entrepreneurship education by including them in the curriculum from the Middle Basic Class to tertiary institutions. The NYSC Scheme has also created a space for skills acquisition programmes during the orientation weeks. There is now a significant difference in the lives of learners that participated in skills acquisition programmes and those who did not. The Director General, Sulaiman Kazaure, said at the NYSC Permanent Orientation camp that NYSC has produced successful entrepreneurs through its Skills Acquisition Entrepreneurship Development (SAED) programme. For instance, an NYSC graduate that learnt the skill of sweater weaving ended up translating such skill into a registered business venture which she is prospering on now.

Entrepreneurship and Technology

Entrepreneurship is the creative and innovative industrial skill which brings into existence what was previously available and improvement on the existing ones. The impact of technology on daily life has grown tremendously over the years. It has helped connect the worlds around and acts as a portal to greater knowledge, whether, through the use of laptops, cell phones or any other electronic devices (Garba, 2010). Technology is a must for an entrepreneur to facilitate business operations. Gek (2014) regarded technology as a practical way to meet and satisfy human needs and comforts. The word 'technology' can also be called a collection of techniques. It is the current state of humanity's knowledge of combining resources to produce desired products to solve problems, fulfil needs or satisfy wants. It includes technical methods, skills, processes, techniques, tools and raw materials (Omoriode, Igbunu, Uhwubetine and Obenebe, 2019). However, the importance of entrepreneurship education cannot be overemphasised. They are diligently highlighted below:

(a) Promotion of creative thinkers who creates something out of nothing and attracts others to identify spheres of opportunities.
(b) Entrepreneurs develop new markets by introducing new and improved products, services and technology.
(c) Entrepreneurs promote innovation through involvement in research and developing new innovation, which opens the door to new ventures, markets, products and technology.
(d) Entrepreneurs reduce dependency on old and obsolete methods, systems, culture and technology. They are the pioneers of bringing new technologies and systems that bring about changes because entrepreneurs are change agents and problem solvers. The mandate initiative is at the social change, which is creating a transformational environment in pursuance of

innovative solutions to the country's most pressing problems that boosts diversification and sustainable economic development.

(e) Entrepreneurial activities bring about an increase in taxation that boost the savings and earnings of the government, enabling the provision of basic amenities such as road, rail, and housing for the populace.

The Roles of Technology in Entrepreneurship

Technology in Entrepreneurship is a process whereby entrepreneurs use resources and technology systems through collaborative exploration to pursue profit opportunities. This helps increase entrepreneurs' intention and motivation to establish and manage sustainable new venture development. Technology which entails Information and Communication Technologies (ICT), is a vital factor in economic development and social change which makes for continuous innovation and commercialisation of the process by entrepreneurs.

ICT includes all digital technology that assists entrepreneurs in using information and internet facilities. It covers all electronic products that deal with information in a digital form. ICT, therefore, is all digital storage, retrieval and transmission. It makes business more efficient, effective and promptly responds to customers' needs. An entrepreneur cannot do without ICT, especially in this digital information age. It assists business activities, including design, manufacturing, research and development, marketing and feedback.

ICT can effectively and efficiently handle The promotion and urbanisation that has been the norm of the 21st Century with its challenges for economic development. The following are the basic importance of ICT to entrepreneurship:

(i) better work efficiency and data tracking.
(ii) greater accessibility and collaboration through cloud computing.
(iii) consistent software upgrades.
(iv) data safety, cyber security and important data backups in case of physical damage.
(v) greater ease of access and customer satisfaction.
(vi) timely, better and cheaper access to knowledge and information.
(vii) provision of opportunities for human beings to interact with one another in new and easiest ways.
(viii) it reduces distance issues in transactions and dealings.
(ix) ICT offers learning opportunities.
(x) ICT helps to develop and enhance communication and social networks.
(xi) It is cost-effective in the sense that it gives way for more effective budgeting.
(xii) It creates new job opportunities.

(xiii) It broadens the reach of technologies such as high-speed internet, mobile broadband and computing.

(xiv) It helps to generate the maximum possible productivity.

(xv) ICT provides quick access to affordable and better means of communication, leading to an entrepreneur's productivity and profit ability.

Education is the most powerful weapon to change the world (Mandela, 2003). Entrepreneurship education, therefore, is the sound and functional education that serves as the most powerful weapon to change the world in view of all its embedded opportunities.

To access the opportunities of entrepreneurship education, the entrepreneur must be enterprising. The virtues such as being energetic and acquiring the skills of achievement orientation, efficiency, effectiveness, resourcefulness, innovation, an ability to take a risk, plan ahead, engagement in skilful activities and consistency with perseverance must be inherent in the entrepreneur of high repute. Entrepreneurship education opportunities include but are not limited to new market opportunities such as affiliate marketing, distributorship, franchising, technology opportunity, niche opportunity, business opportunities from home such as web design, freelance writing, online business opportunity such as drop shipping, digital marketing, content creation; licensing, competitive opportunity, business to business, electronic commerce, business to customers, mobile businesses, online education or electronic learning business.

Advantages of Entrepreneurship Education

The followings are the advantages of entrepreneurship education:

1. Increased productivity through innovation.
2. Venture creation ability is on the increase.
3. More youths are involved in the creation of small-scale businesses.
4. Enhancement of the transfer of technology-based knowledge.
5. Reduction in the craving for a paid job.
6. Increase in the exportation rate of indigenous products.
7. International revenue is on the increase.
8. Migration of youths from rural areas is reduced.
9. An influx of venture creation brings about a reduction in the prices of goods and services.
10. Increase in the level of the dignity of labour.
11. Reduction in poverty level.
12. Reduction in negative behaviours in the society.
13. Enhancement of sustainable economic development.
14. Improvement in standard of living.

There are many business opportunities worldwide, specifically in Nigeria, based on diverse markets and demographics. However, one must identify the business opportunity suitable for the desired intention. Some ways of identifying business opportunities include environmental scanning, SWOT Analysis, innovation brainstorming, market research, social listening and monitoring.

Despite all the opportunities available in implementing entrepreneurship education, many challenges constrained the implementation of sustainable development. They include corruption, insecurity, road networks, epileptic power supply, inadequate water supply, inaccessible communication networks and support systems for entrepreneurs, manpower problems, financial barriers, illiteracy, poor planning control, competition issues, political instability and many more challenges.

ICT and Entrepreneurship Development

ICT is a diverse set of technological tools and resources used to transmit, store, create, share or exchange information. These technological tools and resources include computers, the internet (websites, blogs and emails), live broadcasting technologies (radio, television and webcasting), recorded broadcasting technologies (podcasting, audio and video players and storage devices) and telephony (fixed or mobile, satellite, video-conferencing, among others UNESCO Portal). Entrepreneurship development enhances entrepreneurial skills and knowledge through structured training and institution-building programmes. It aims to enlarge the base of entrepreneurs to speed up the pace at which new ventures are created.

The emergence of digital knowledge and its application has boosted and is still boosting business. This is why a successful entrepreneur cannot do without ICT in this 21st Century, as it is a strong tool for sustainable development. ICT helps an entrepreneur save costs, enhance administrative effectiveness, promote increased productivity, allow operation across borders, and enable him or her to follow trending issues, culminating in his or her ability to satisfy customers and hence, breaking even in his business for bottom-line achievements. ICT also motivates an entrepreneur to be technologically inclined with a mindset of widening his or her scope by building capacity to generate more employment opportunities, thereby solving unemployment problems and promoting sustainable development in Nigeria.

Sustainable Development

Development is a process that brings about growth, progress, and a positive change from physical, economic, environmental, social and demographic components. This study is all-encompassing because it is about the people and the country in its entirety.

Sustainable development is economic development that is conducted without depletion of natural resources. Hence, it is an organising principle for meeting human development goals while also sustaining the ability of natural systems to provide the natural resources and ecosystem services on which the economy and society depend. The desired result is a state of society where living conditions

and resources are used to meet human needs without undermining the integrity and stability of the natural system. It is meeting the needs of the present generation without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs in Brundtland Report WCED, 1987 and referenced in University of Cambridge, 2005; Obadimu, 2022.

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) are a collection of 17 interlinked global goals designed to be a "shared blueprint for peace and prosperity for people and planet, now and into the future"). The SDGs were set up in 2015 by the United Nations General Assembly (UN-GA) and are intended to be achieved by 2030. They are included in UN-GA Resolution called the 2030 Agenda the SDGs were developed in the Post-2015 Development Agenda as the future global development framework to succeed the Millennium Development Goals which were ended in 2015. The SDGs emphasise sustainable development's interconnected environmental, social and economic aspects by putting sustainability at their centre.

The 17 SDGs are: No poverty, Zero hunger, Good health and well-being, Quality education, Gender equality, Clean water and sanitation, Affordable and clean energy, Decent Work and Economic Growth, Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure, Reduced inequality, Sustainable Cities and Communities, Responsible Consumption and Production, Climate Action, Life Below Water, Life on Land, Peace and Justice Strong Institutions: Partnerships for the Goals
Source: (Obadimu, Clement, 2022)

Though the goals are broad and interdependent, two years later (6th July 2017), the SDGs were made more "actionable" by a UN Resolution adopted by the General Assembly. The resolution identifies specific targets for each goal and indicators used to measure progress toward each target. The year by which the target is meant to be achieved is usually between 2020 and 2030. For some of the targets, no end date is given.

Education for Sustainable Development

Education for sustainable development (ESD) is a term used by the United Nations. It is defined as education that encourages changes in knowledge, skills, values and attitudes to enable a more sustainable and just society for all. ESD aims to empower and equip current and future generations to meet their needs using a balanced and integrated approach to the economic, social and environmental dimensions of sustainable development. In this study, entrepreneurship education is the education for sustainable development because it has the features mentioned above. Entrepreneurship education can empower the current and future generations with profitability and societal values, aligning with Sustainable Development Goal Four (SDG4), quality education that promotes lifelong learning opportunities for all.

Thus, the goal of wealth creation, poverty reduction and value orientation can only be attained and sustained through an efficient education system which impacts learners the relevant skills, knowledge capacities, attitudes and values, which is entrepreneurship education (Agi and Yellowe,

2013). President Mohammadu Buhari, during one of his campaigns in 2015, said that the answers to Nigeria's problems are beyond them and that they are in the hearts and minds of the entrepreneurs.

Conclusion

The paper has highlighted the inherent problems in the nation, among which is the unemployment of our young graduates. It is apparent that the country is slowing down the preparation of the workforce, which are majorly the youths for changing globalisation. Sustainable global economic development is known to be anchored on strong entrepreneurship and ICT education, which most developed countries have keyed into, and Nigeria cannot do less.

Recommendations

The paper, however, recommended the following for effective and efficient entrepreneurship education with entrepreneurial orientation for ventures creation that will lead to sustainable economic development:

1. The entrepreneurship education curriculum should be relevant to global standard's practice.
2. The government should provide a relevant support system for entrepreneurs to encourage their continuing emergence and performance.
3. Government should provide infrastructure, social amenities, friendly and enduring policies and educational platforms that promote entrepreneurship and empower the citizens.
4. Government should create suitable conditions for new businesses to start and thrive while enabling the existing firms to grow by developing new products and services in new markets through appropriate tax policies, supportive physical infrastructure, providing training and information, and promoting incubation and development facilities.
5. Government policies must be structured to nurture an entrepreneurial environment and allow effective opportunities for growth towards sustainable national economic development.
6. Since small and medium-scale industries account for major employability globally, Nigerian governmental policies should protect and preserve emerging entrepreneurs for continuity.
7. ICT should be included in the curriculum of entrepreneurship education to enhance its relevance to global best practices.
8. More small scale entrepreneurs should start using ICT for their business operations.

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E-governance and Green Public Management for Sustainable Development in Selected Agencies in Southwest Nigeria

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Abstract
Like many other developing countries, Nigeria is beset with environmental problems; these problems emanate mainly from human activities created to achieve a higher level of development. The implication is that sufficient precautions have not been taken to balance development objectives against the need to maintain desirable environmental quality for sustainable development by buying into responsive and simplified bureaucratic processes in dealing with citizens and businesses. This study aims to investigate E-governance and Green Public Management for Sustainable Development in selected agencies in Southwest Nigeria. This study made use of primary data and adopted a descriptive research design. The population of the study was 340. The study used a multistage sampling technique. Data generated were analysed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 24 (for the descriptive statistics) and SmartPLS version 3.3.9 (for the inferential statistics). A response rate of 97.4% was achieved for the selected employees. Findings revealed that E-governance implementation significantly and substantially affects sustainable development with sufficient predictive quality (Adj R^2=0.475, p=0.000, Q^2 =0.195). Green Public Management significantly and substantially affects sustainable development with predictive quality (Adj R^2 =0.461, p=0.000, Q^2 =0.207). E-governance and green public management have significant and substantial joint effects on sustainable development with sufficient predictive quality (Adj R^2 =0.542, p=0.000, Q^2 = 0.244) in the selected agencies, Southwest, Nigeria. This study concluded that e-governance and green public management affect sustainable development in the selected agencies in Southwest Nigeria. The study recommended that government agencies build institutional linkages that promote interconnectedness and strengthen e-governance and eco-friendly environment in public agencies.

Keywords: E-governance, Green Public Management, Sustainable Development, Agencies

Introduction

Societies worldwide yearn for one form of development or the other. Development is part of every society in the world, and it can be economic, social or environmental. With the increasing rate of environmental problems, the effect of globalisation worldwide, particularly in Nigeria, is generating a

significant concern for the sustainability of the environment and how it can be sustained for future generations. Brundtland report (our common future), defined sustainable development as the human ability to meet the needs of the present without compromising the ability of the future generations to meet their own needs (WCED, 1987). It has three components; economic, social and environmental. The foremost concern of public institutions around the world is to find practical and efficient means of delivering public services to the citizens by buying into the idea of responsive and simplified bureaucratic processes in dealing with citizens and businesses by adopting digital and eco-friendly policies to enhance efficient and effective public services delivery for sustainable development.

E-governance has become an essential tool to be used in the day-to-day workings of government both within the government agencies, in dealing with the citizens and in doing business, as was witnessed during the Covid-19 pandemic (Yang et al., 2020).

It is evident that achieving sustainable development, especially SDGs goals number nine and twelve; (Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure and responsible consumption and production patterns), might be difficult in Nigeria without conscious effort of public authorities in the adoption of e-governance and green public management policies to deliver efficient and effective public service to the citizenry.

However, a new phase has emerged about creating a green economy through governance and how it can be achieved via e-governance. Initially, e-government strategies were targeted at re-engineering public processes to produce a cost-effective public sector and eliminating bureaucracy, New Public Management (NPM), that demands governmental bodies be modernised and marketised for effective and efficient service delivery (Hage, 2016). Even though economic burdens, under such phenomenon, and cost reduction remains a critical dimension, a new dimension has evolved, which speaks of the transformation of the society and the public sector into a digital, green and eco-friendly system through green public management (Amodu, 2020).

Statement of the Problem

Nigeria, like many other developing countries, is beset with such environmental problems as desertification, deterioration of urban physical quality, land degradation, deforestation, soil erosion, flooding, pollution, global warming, overpopulation, indiscriminate waste disposal, ocean acidification, loss of biodiversity, ozone layer depletion, public health issues and many others, these problems are associated with sustainable development. These problems emanate mainly from human activities created to achieve a higher level of development (Ogunkan, 2022).

The implication is that sufficient precautions have not been taken to balance development objectives against the need to maintain desirable environmental quality for sustainable development (Wonah, 2017). In the Nigerian context, these problems are not unconnected to the inefficiency and ineffectiveness of public service policy implementation. Most often than not, public officers saddled

with the implementation of public policies have been described as showing negative attitudes and traits such as insensitivity towards implementation, poor organisation, lack of planning, unbridled corruption, lack of accountability and transparency, indiscipline, unnecessary delay and red-tapism. Though many scholars have reported these problems, such scholars have largely overlooked the role of e-governance and green public management in achieving sustainable deployment (Meuleman, 2021). Against this background, this study examined the influence of e-governance and green public management on sustainable development in selected agencies in Southwest, Nigeria.

Objectives of the Research

The broad objective of this research is to investigate e-governance and green public management for sustainable development in public establishments. The factors facilitating and impeding their implementations in public agencies in Nigeria will also be identified. However, the specific objectives of this research are as follows:

i. ascertain the influence of e-governance implementation on sustainable development in selected agencies in Southwest, Nigeria.
ii. examine the influence of e-governance and green public management on the sustainable development of selected agencies in Southwest Nigeria.
iii. determine various challenges confronting implementing e-governance for sustainable development in selected agencies in Southwest, Nigeria.

Research Questions

I. To what extent does e-governance implementation influence sustainable development in selected agencies in Southwest Nigeria?
ii. To what extent do e-governance and green public management significantly influence sustainable development in selected agencies in Southwest Nigeria?
iii. What are the various challenges confronting the implementation of e-governance for sustainable development in selected agencies in Southwest Nigeria?

Research Hypotheses

The research hypotheses for this study were tested at 0.05 level of significance.

i. Ho1: E-governance will not significantly influence the sustainable development of selected agencies
ii. Ho2: Green Public Management will not significantly influence the sustainable development of selected agencies
iii. Ho3: E-governance and Green Public Management will not jointly, significantly influence sustainable development

Scope of the Study

The study is centred on e-governance and green public management for sustainable development. The study used four (4) selected agencies in Oyo State, Southwest Nigeria, and covered ten years from 2011 to 2021. The study focused on implementing digital and eco-friendly policies and practices in governance in public service delivery in government agencies and institutions in Nigeria.

Review of Related Literature

Concept of Sustainable Development

The concept of sustainable development can be interpreted in many different ways, but at its core is an approach to development that looks to balance different, and often competing, needs against an awareness of the environmental, social and economic limitations we face as a society. Development is often driven by one particular need without fully considering the wider or future impacts. The longer we pursue unsustainable development, the more frequent and severe its consequences are likely to become, hence the need to presently take action.

The three basic components of sustainable development are economic, social and environmental, often called the Triple Bottom Line (TBL). The three components are interrelated. Economic sustainability is a guiding principle that demands that societies seek growth trajectories that create an optimal flow of income while preserving their basic stock of manmade, human, and natural capital. Environmental costs linked with manufacturing and consumption must also be internalised for economic viability. The social aspect of sustainable development is founded on the twin tenets of justice and equality (UNCED, 1992).

Concept of E-governance

Electronic governance is a two-way communication process that deals with the use of information and communication technology to supply government services and ensure the accessibility of such services for citizens. Available evidence in the literature points to the fact that an increasing number of governments around the world are implementing e-governance platforms to improve citizens' participation, monitor government's initiatives, ensure accountability, and circulate information between sectors (Hovik, et al. 2022; Shakya, 2017). In general, the motive behind implementing e-governance platforms can be discussed under three broad categories: E-administration aims to improve government operations, particularly in the public sector. E-services are an effort to improve the delivery of public services, such as delivering public papers online like birth and so on. E-democracy aims to increase public participation in a country's government decision-making process through electoral processes and e-voting mechanisms, among other means (Tejedo-Romero, et al., 2022).

Measuring E-governance

The level of E-governance implementation has now become a yardstick with which people can evaluate the current condition and type of e-governance in countries worldwide. E-governance surveys conducted by the United Nations have adopted a comprehensive approach to measuring the quality of the nation's e-governance infrastructure, online service availability, and human capital index since its founding (UNDESA, 2003).

According to the United Nations (UN), a five-stage paradigm for e-government development can be used to examine the online service delivery index. Emerging, enhanced, interactive and transactional stages are all included in this list.

According to some experts, determining the degree to which a country's telecommunications infrastructure meets the six basic criteria for an ICT-enabled economy is part of measuring that country's overall development. Personal computers, internet users, phone lines, online users, mobile phones, and televisions all fall under this category. The basis of a nation's state of e-government readiness is a product of the country's economic, technological, and human resource development (United Nations E-government Survey, 2008). E-government progress in Africa is unequal and slow, according to the United Nations e-government report of 2014. E-government development index ranks Nigeria as the 19th best African country, ahead of only Egypt and South.

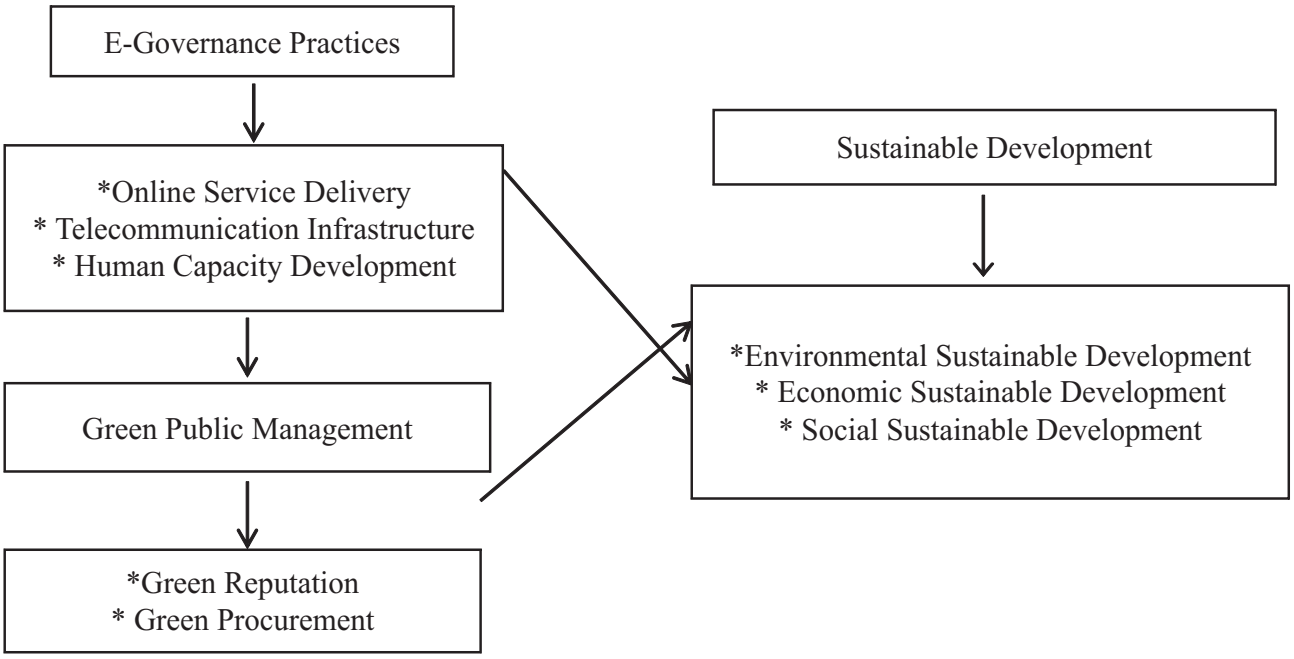
Concept of Green Public Management

Organisations are increasingly finding it challenging to balance economic and environmental performance, particularly those that face competitive, regulatory and community pressure. With the increasing pressure for environmental sustainability, ecological principles have to become new state management rules (Pogodina et al., 2019). Many government organisations have enacted policies to lessen the environmental impact of their operations. Even in the absence of formal policies, however, public employees might engage in several discretionary pro-environmental behaviours like eco-friendly initiatives (Egawat, 2020). From the theoretically based literatures concerning green management, green public management is the process of applying innovation to achieve sustainability, waste reduction, social responsibility, and competitive advantage via continuous learning and development and by embracing environmental goals and strategies that are fully integrated with the goals and strategies of the organisation (UNEP, 2011, Shan et al., 2021). Green management is all about sustainability for business without compromising the future need. Sustainability concerning corporate plans implies the opportunity for businesses to provide a long-term solution, such need to enhance the quality of the workplace and natural environment (UNEP, 2011).

Components of green public management; green reputation is a set of perceptions of people inside and outside the company and agencies on meeting the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. Corporate reputation is the set of perceptions of

people inside and outside the company. A corporate reputation is based on a company's ability to produce and deliver products and services (Abraham, & P. Pingali, 2020, Nassani, 2019). It helps to save costs, reduce waste and improve productivity. Green procurement is purchasing products and services that cause minimal adverse environmental impacts. It incorporates human health and environmental concerns into the search for high-quality products and services at competitive prices. It is defined as the acquisition of goods, works, services or consultancies whose results have the least possible harmful effects on environment, human health and safety compared to other competing and similar acquisitions, or those that positively impact the environment. Green procurement can play a leading role in resource waste reduction, helping you better manage your resources and improve efficiency (Poplawshi, L, et al., (2021).

Conceptual Model



Theoretical Framework

Passet Theory of Sustainable Development

Rene Passet's 1987 theory of sustainable development suggests that the economic sphere and the human activity sphere are linked by information, knowledge and market processes. However, they are also embedded in the biosphere, considered a global macro-system and energy. These three spheres are directly connected and interface (Vivien, 2011). They are economic, environmental, social, ecology, economy, and equity. The core approach is the development that looks to balance different, and often competing, needs against an awareness of the environmental, social and economic limitations faced by people as a society.

Economic sustainability demands that societies seek growth routes that create the best flow of income while preserving their basic stock of manmade, human, and natural capital. Socially sustainable development is founded on the twin tenets of justice and equality. Wealth, resources, and opportunities must be distributed equally for a growth route to be sustainable over time. Environmental sustainability is the ability to maintain ecological stability in our planet's natural environment and conserve natural resources to support the well-being of current and future generations (Hens, L, & J. Ren, J, 2022).

The argument is that sustainable development refers to the all-encompassing strategy and temporal processes that lead us to the ultimate state of sustainability that should be understood as humanity's target goal of human-ecosystem equilibrium, contrasting the demands of ambitious economic expansion and the duty to safeguard ecosystems and natural resources are being balanced by modern economies. A better approach is to use sustainability commitments and other sustainability measures as a catalyst for economic growth rather than as a solution. To manage sustainable development, it is necessary to use analytical tools and management practices that analyse and integrate environmental, social, and economic objectives and problems spanning several years or decades. Some of the measures that can be adopted in managing sustainable development are; technology, reduce, reuse and recycle approach, promoting environmental education and awareness, resource utilisation as carry capacity, improving quality of life including social, cultural and economic dimension by replacing resources utilised with resources of equal or greater value without compromising or jeopardising natural environment with these, stability of the environment can be maintained for present and future generation (Yunzhao, L, 2022).

New Public Management Model of Green Public Management

In the 1980s and 1990s, a new approach called New Public Management (NPM) was created in response to the shortcomings of the traditional public administration model. The model focused on issues such as restructuring efforts to enhance the standard of public services, reduce government spending, and boost government operations' effectiveness. NPM ideas can be classified into different threads. Decentralisation, debureaucratization, disaggregation, new managerialism, privatisation, performance evaluation and downsizing are all part of the first school of thought, which focuses on better management and organisational reform (Indahsari & Raharja, 2020, (Hood & Lodge, 2003).

Gaps in Literature

There appears to be a scarcity of work on e-governance and green public management for sustainable development in Nigeria; no framework incorporates the relationship between e-governance and green public management for sustainable development in Nigeria, hence the need to examine the existing cap. Limited empirical studies focus on e-governance and green public management for sustainable development.

Research Methods and Research Design

The study adopted descriptive designs. The quantitative data engaged the use of a structural questionnaire. Descriptive research is an approach that blends quantitative and qualitative data to provide relevant and accurate information.

Study Population

This study focused on four agencies in Southwest Nigeria Nigerian Communication Commission (NCC), National Identity Management Commission (NIMC), National Information Technology Development Agency (NITDA), and Nigerian Postal Service (NIPOST).

Sample Size and Sampling Technique

The researcher found it convenient to follow the tabular approach at 0.05 margin error and confidence level of 95% per cent to determine the sample size,

Three Hundred and forty (340) was the sample size which was derived using a published table by H. Teherdoost (2017). The sample was further spread across the four (4) selected agencies, using the proportionate allocation formula by Bowler (2005)

Table 1: Sample Size Distributions

S/N	Name of Agencies	Population of Staff	Proportionate Ratio	Selected Sample Size
1	Communication Commission (NCC	102	$\frac{340 \text{ X } 102}{630}$	55
2	National Identity Management Commission (NIMC	215	$\frac{340 \text{ X } 215}{630}$	116
3	National Information Technology Development Agency (NITDA	92	$\frac{340 \text{ X } 215}{630}$	50
4	Nigerian Postal Service (NIPOST)	221	$\frac{340 \text{ X } 221}{630}$	119
	Total	**630**		**340**

Source: Researcher, 2022

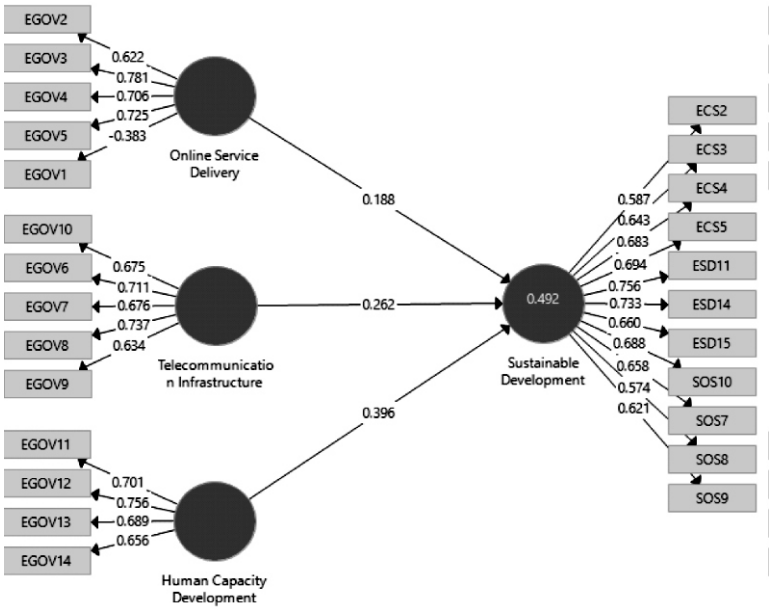
Data Analysis

The researcher made use of quantitative data that emerged from the use of a structured questionnaire.

Results obtained were analysed using simple descriptive statistical tools and interpreted in order to answer the research questions designed for the study.

Data Analysis, Results and Discussion

Ho1: E-governance will not Significantly Influence the Sustainable Development of Selected Agencies in South West, Nigeria.



The Adjusted R^2 was used to establish the predictive power of the study's model
The model is significant at 5% (0.05)
0.475 showed that E-Governance dimensions explained 47.5% of change in SD
Human capacity development had the highest relative effect on SD in Southwest, Nigeria with a coefficient of 0.396 and t value of 4.996
Telecommunication infrastructure ($\beta = 0.262$, t= 2.366
Online service delivery ($\beta =$ 0.188, t= 2.065
E-Governance has a medium degree of predictive relevance effects on SD

On the strength of the PLS-SEM summarised results in table 2 ($Adj\ R^2$ =0.475, p=0.000, Q^2 =0.195), this study can conclude that E-Governance has a significant and substantial effect on SD of selected agencies, South West, Nigeria hence, the study rejects the null hypothesis one ($H_0$1) which states that E-Governance has no significant effect on SD in Southwest, Nigeria.

Table 2: Summary of the PLS-SEM for the Effect of E-Governance on Sustainable Development, Southwest, Nigeria .

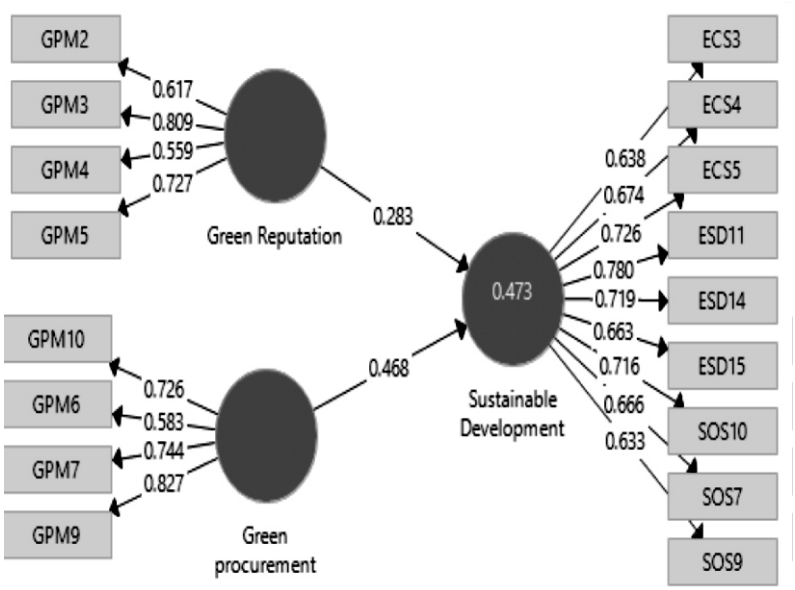
Path Description	Original sample (o) Unstandardised Beta	T	Sig.	R^2	Adj. R^2	Sig.	Q^2
				0.492	0.475	0.000	0.195
Human Capacity Development → Sustainable development	0.396	4.996	0.000				
Online Service Delivery → Sustainable development	0.188	2.065	0.039				
Telecommunication Infrastructure → Sustainable development	0.262	2.366	0.018				

- The Adjusted R^2 was used to establish the predictive power of the study's model.
- *(Adj R^2)* of 47.5 showed that E-Governance dimensions explained 47.5% of the influence in sustainable development in agencies in the Ministry of Communication and Digital Economy in South West Nigeria.
- The remaining 52.5% variation in sustainable development is explained by external factors different from the E-governance dimensions considered in this study.
- The effect of E-Governance on sustainable development in agencies in the Ministry of Communication and Digital Economy in South West Nigeria is moderate with 0.195.

The findings indicate that e-governance has a significant and substantial effect on SD. The study rejects the null hypothesis one ($H_0$1), which states that E-Governance has no significant effect on SD, Human capacity development had the highest relative effect on SD, Southwest, Nigeria.

The qualitative findings indicated that e-governance in Nigeria shows a trend of inconsistency in public reform policies and programmes regarding the implementation of ICT in public-sector organisations.

Ho2: Green Public Management will not Significantly Influence of Sustainable Development of Selected Agencies, South West, Nigeria.



All green public management dimensions have positive and significant effect on SD
Adj R^2) of 0.461 showed that green public management dimensions explained 46.1% of change in Sustainable Development.
Green procurement had the highest relative effect on SD with a coefficient of (β = 0.468, t= 3.463),
Green reputation (β = 0.283, t= 2.074)

On the strength of the PLS-SEM summarised results in table 3 (*Adj* R^2 =0.461, p=0.000, Q^2 =0.207), this study can conclude that green public management has a significant and substantial effect on the sustainable development in selected agencies, Ministry of Communication and Digital Economy, South West, Nigeria; hence, the study rejects the null hypothesis two ($H_0$2), which states that green public management has no significant effect on sustainable development in Southwest, Nigeria.

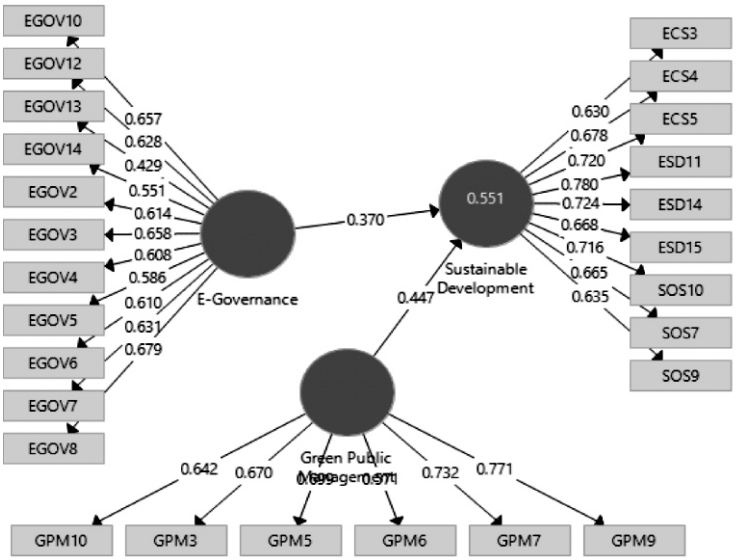
Table 3: Summary of the PLS-SEM for the Effect of Green Public Management on the Sustainable Development in Southwest, Nigeria

Path Description	Original sample (o) Unstandardised Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Adj. R^2	Sig.	Q^2
				0.473	0.461	0.000	0.207
Green reputation → Sustainable development	0.283	2.074	0.039				
Green procurement → Sustainable development	0.468	3.463	0.001				

- *(Adj R^2)* of 0.461 showed that green public management dimensions explained 46.1% of the influence in sustainable development in agencies, Ministry of Communication and Digital Economy, South West, Nigeria
- The remaining 53.9% of changes in sustainable development is explained by external factors different from those considered in this study.
- The effect of Green Public Management on sustainable development in agencies in the Ministry of Communication and Digital Economy in South West Nigeria is moderate with 0.207.

The findings indicate that green public management has a significant effect on SD. The study rejects the null hypothesis two ($H_0$2), which states that green public management has no significant effect on SD. Green procurement had the highest relative effect on sustainable development in Southwest, Nigeria. The qualitative finding revealed that the effect of green public management is slow due to the unwillingness of government agencies and employees to enforce and adhere to most rules, policies, and regulations already in place that would ensure a healthy, conducive workplace environment and goods and services delivered to the public.

Ho3: E -governance and Green Public Management will not Jointly, Significantly Influence the Sustainable Development of Selected, South West, Nigeria.



E-governance and green public management have positive and significant effect on SD.
Green Public Management had the highest relative effect on SD with a coefficient of 0.447 and t value of 4.844;
E-Governance with a coefficient of 0.370 and t value of 4.476.
E-Governance and green public management has a medium degree of predictive relevance effects on SD

Adj R^2 =0.542, p=0.000, Q^2 = 0.244), this study can conclude that E-Governance and green public management has significant and substantial joint effect on SD in selected agencies, Ministry of Communication and Digital Economy, South West, Nigeria; hence, the study rejects the null hypothesis three ($H_0$3), which states that E-Governance and green public management has no significant joint effect on SD in Southwest, Nigeria.

Table 4: Summary of the PLS-SEM for the Effect of E-Governance and Green Public Management on Sustainable Development in Southwest, Nigeria

Path Description	Original sample (o) Unstandardised Beta	T	Sig.	R^2	Adj. R^2	Sig.	Q^2
				0.551	0.542	0.000	0.244
E-Governance → Sustainable development	0.370	4.476	0.000				
Green Public Management → Sustainable development	0.447	4.844	0.000				

- (*Adj* R^2) of 0.542 showed that E-governance and green public management jointly predicted 54.2% of the changes in sustainable development in agencies in Ministry of Communication and Digital Economy in South West, Nigeria.
- Remaining 45.8% changes in sustainable development is explained by external factors different from those considered in this study.
- E-governance and green public management jointly influenced 54.2% of the sustainable development in Southwest, Nigeria.
- The effect of E-governance and green public management on sustainable development in agencies in Ministry of Communication and Digital Economy in South West, Nigeria is moderate.

The findings indicate that E-governance and green public management positively and significantly affect SD. The study rejects the null hypothesis three ($H_0$3), which states that e-governance and green public management has no significant joint effect on SD.

The qualitative findings indicated that the need for use of ICTs for public service delivery is increasing, and nations are prepared to implement the required ICT policies to support their efforts.

Challenges Confronting the Implementation of E-governance in an Organisation

- 91.2% of the respondents strongly agree that there is an absence of teamwork, with a mean of 1.10.
- 49.8% of the respondents strongly agree that there is unequal dissemination of internet services with a mean of 1.51.
- 58.3% of the respondents strongly agree that there is an unwillingness on the part of the government to share vital information to the public, with a mean of 1.48.

- 65.6% of the respondents strongly agree that there is policy summersault, with a mean of 1.38.
- 69.8% of the respondents strongly agree that there is the absence of competent personnel to handle ICT infrastructures, with a mean of 1.34.
- 67.7% of the respondents strongly agree that there is corruption among government personnel, with a mean of 1.37.

The findings on e-governance and green public management for sustainable development in Nigeria shows a trend of slow and inconsistency in public reformation policies and programs as regard to implementing e-governance and green management systems and practice of public-sector organisations.

Conclusion and Recommendations

E- governance and green public management innovation tool in the Nigerian society is agreeable becoming evident the most powerful determinants with the potential to assist governments, if applied appropriately, to improve governance, to alleviate extreme poverty, promote inclusiveness in governance, provide economic opportunities, promote democracy, ensure healthy life and environment, to deliver valuable public-sector services for all the citizens towards sustainable development in Nigeria as demonstrated in the outcome of the agencies of government surveyed in this research work.

Recommendations

(1) The Nigerian government and its agencies should take the initiative towards upgrading resources and establishing ICT infrastructure in all government agencies following cutting-edge global best practices that ensure a steady electricity supply. These measures will increase efficiency, cut costs, increase accountability for public office holders, promote greater transparency on how government functions in society, foster a democracy that is more centred on the needs of its citizens, ensure team collaboration among government institutions by linking or interconnecting all government websites together to create cross-agency collaboration for an efficient and effective interactive working system in government agencies.

(2) Government should develop institutional and national level policy frameworks to improve on e-governance and green management practice through the execution of policies that are helpful to the population with easy in gaining access by the citizen for information, training and re-training of staff on (ICT) for maintenance of ICT infrastructure and to increase the rate of Information and Communication Literacy rate in government agencies to guarantee effective service delivery and long-term viability of these agencies.

(3) Governments must demonstrate a sincere interest and commitment to the reform process to achieve a reformed public-sector organisation that can respond to the citizens' demands in a transformative and supportive political environment in nature and its approach to “change” initiatives.

(4) Public institutions should endeavour to apply green management innovation and enact eco-environmental policies, goals and strategies to reduce waste, achieve economic sustainability in business, encourage social responsibility that will not compromise future needs and also provide a long-term solution that enhances the quality of the workplace and natural environment towards achieving sustainable development.

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Predictors of Job-Hopping Intention and Academics' Engagement in Southwest Nigeria: A Moderating Role of Generational Diversity

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Abstract
Many universities worldwide have lost a sizable portion of their critical faculty regarding physical removal, work engagement, and loyalty, reducing involvement in their fundamental tasks (research production, teaching engagement, and community service engagement). In this study, we explored the moderating role of generational diversity on academic attention and the desire to change jobs. The job embeddedness theory serves as the study's theoretical foundation. A five-point Likert scale questionnaire surveyed 620 academics from a few universities in Southwest Nigeria. The respondents were chosen for this study using a convenience random sampling method. Five hundred and forty-five copies of the questionnaire, or an 87.9% response rate, were returned and used in the analysis. The moderating impact of generational diversity on the perceived link between predictors of the desire to change jobs and academic engagement was assessed using structural equation modelling (SEM). The results demonstrate that indicators of exogenous factors (predictors of job-hopping intention and generational diversity) accounted for 62.7% of the variability in academics' involvement in the chosen universities. Generational diversity's moderating effects, however, were determined to be insignificant. Consequently, generational variation has to predict the impact on academic involvement. Therefore, the study recommends that the university's management should promote diversity management by harnessing the inherent benefits of diversity to enhance academic engagement. Also, to foster generational synergy in the workplace, management must understand the variations among generational cohorts.

Keywords: Generational diversity, Job hopping intention, Academic engagement

Introduction

Background to the Study

Globally, the movement of employees from one organisation to another has made employee engagement a burning topic of discussion in recent years. The worst scenario is when the desirable ones voluntarily disengage from their current employment and join other organisations (Kundu & Lata 2017). An individual who often changes his or her job is described as job-hopping (Pranaya 2014). Cited by Yuen (2016), the definition of job-hopping is an individual leaving his or her employers to enhance his or her career and increase his or her professional development and growth.

Historically, it was common for employees to have a lifelong career at one or two organisations while progressing vertically throughout that same organisation. In contrast to the definition of corporate loyalty in the past, the desire for lifetime employment is fading away, and the current focus is "job-hopping" anywhere across the globe (Mohammed, 2015; Sharjeel & Beenish, 2017). Upon examining this paradigm shift in employees' psychological contracts, Kelly and Marie-Anne (2016) reported that employees now move from one organisation to another in pursuit of better pay and career development. The desire for lifetime employment is fading, and the current focus is "job-hopping" anywhere globally (Mohammed, 2015; Sharjeel &Beenish, 2017).

Job-hopping is emerging as a significant challenge for many organisations nowadays. Recent studies on the job-hopping phenomenon point to three generations currently dominating the workforce. These generations are Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Generation Y (Becton, Walker & Jones-Farmer, 2014; Kelly & Marie-Anne, 2016; Niki, 2017). The word generation refers to a body of individuals born and living simultaneously who share common values and characteristics, resulting from certain significant events in their formative years (Kelly & Marie-Anne, 2016). The unique experiences introduced during their formative years contribute to the values of the individuals in the generational cohort (Niki, 2017). These generational differences are prevalent in the working environment as almost every company will employ individuals from different generations. The young generation has been reported to tend to change jobs more frequently due to their low loyalty to employers (Yuen, 2016). However, there is a lack of consistent views on whether job-hopping behaviour differs from generation to generation (Twenge, 2010: Kelly & Marie-Anne, 2016).

Also, extant literature reveals that job-hopping phenomenon could be found in different generations and organisations (Refilwe, 2014; Mensah, Luther & Appiagyei, 2015). Studies such as Akpa, et al. (2016), Yuen (2016), and Demetria (2018) indicated that job-hopping phenomenon seems to be shared among academic staff of higher institutions. Lack of job growth opportunities, leadership problems, co-workers not being treated well, and being passed over for promotion are reasons for the high rate of job-hopping among academics.

As such, their engagement has been reported to be declining as academics' mobility increases (Demetria, 2018). Akpa, et al. (2016) argued that many universities around the world, both public and

private, have lost significant numbers of their critical faculty, not only in terms of their physical removal but in their work engagement and loyalty, thus reducing involvement in their core responsibilities (research output, teaching engagement, and community service engagement). This imposes a severe barrier to achieving the desired objectives of many universities.

Although a considerable body of research has been done globally on the correlation between Job-hopping intention and employee engagement (Mustapha & Zakaria, 2013; Thanuja, Ng Siew & Keng Kok. 2016), it is interesting to note that hardly any study addressed the moderating role of generational diversity on the relationship between job-hopping intentions and academics' engagement. Against this background, this study intended to establish the perceived moderating role of generational diversity on the relationship between job-hopping intention and academic engagement among selected universities in Southwest Nigeria.

Review of Relevant Literature Review

Job-hopping

In recent years, job-hopping has intensified as a severe and widespread issue in many firms' human resource departments. Ghiselli (1974), whose work is referenced in Niki (2017), was the first to describe what he called "hobo syndrome"—a notion akin to job-hopping. He said the hobo syndrome is the recurring need to travel from one job to another in different locations. According to Ghiselli (1974), people's inherent impulsiveness rather than structured, rational cognition causes job hopping. Abelson (1993) provided two explanations of what job-hopping is. First, individuals change occupations because they need to try something new or because it's entertaining. The second section relates to the culture of turnover. He asserted that co-workers believe changing employment from one firm to another is appropriate. When employees remain with the same employer for an extended length of time, they may even feel under pressure (Abelson, 1993).

Niki (2017) added to this by stating that while a hobo may seek out a new job for many reasons, such as an itch, they will first determine if their present position or a new alternative one is more advantageous, which is a logical choice. According to Pranaya (2014), job-hopping is described as often shifting employment at the employees' discretion and not as a result of a company's demise. Saleem, et al. (2016) expand the concept of job-hopping by clarifying that it is a practice of moving employment frequently, especially as a method of fast financial gain or professional progress. They partially agree with this logical side of job-hopping. They also propose two variations on job-hopping. The first category relates to a need for novel experiences; changing jobs is a way to do this. Accepting it as the norm is the second factor contributing to a turnover culture (Saleem et al. 2016).

Similar viewpoints were expressed by Naresh and Rathnam (2015), who noted that job-hopping is when individuals often switch employment, move from one position to another, or switch firms. An

effective technique for career growth, salary increases, and increasing responsibilities with each transfer is for workers to move positions with a defined objective or success (Naresh & Rathnam, 2015). Lake, Highhouse & Shrift (2018) further explained job-hopping in terms of advancement and escape driven. Improvement-driven hoppers aim to enhance their career by seeking jobs to propel them toward their ultimate career goal. Progress driven can also be called ambitious ladder climbers because some may use frequent job changes to achieve career advancement through a job offer from another company. Escape-driven job hopper leaves the employer to avoid dissatisfaction with the job or co-workers. The employee quits the organisation to prevent boredom, annoyance, or frustration with the current work environment.

Job-hopping Intentions

Job-hopping intention has emerged recently as an essential construct in human resource management research (Mohammad & Mohsen, 2017)**.** It reflects employees' deliberate tendency to leave their job and the company. It is considered a topic of significant interest in the literature due to its relationship with work-related constructs, such as job satisfaction, employees engagement, and organisational effectiveness (Maier, et al. 2013).

Employees' desire to quit is defined by Mohammad and Mohsen (2017) as the deliberate choice to hunt for new employment chances in other firms. Mohammad & Jahangir (2014) offered various labels for the concept, including tendency to leave, turnover intention, and intent to depart. Steel and Lounsbury (2009) established a more thorough withdrawal procedure that clarifies the processes employees take before making the decision to leave their jobs permanently. Job-hopping intention was split into three cognitive components by Thirapatsakun, et al. (2014): considering quitting the job, intending to look for another employment, and making the decision to leave.

Similar to this, Kim (2014) viewed employees' intentions to quit as a psychological process that includes the following steps: (1) assessing the job, (2) experiencing job dissatisfaction, (3) considering leaving, (4) assessing the cost of leaving, (5) intending to look for alternatives, (6) assessing other options and current job, (7) intending to quit or stay, and (8) making the choice to quit or stay. Karatepe and Shahriari (2014) pointed out that employees' purpose to leave might result in low morale, subpar service delivery, and subpar performance, which is consistent with this research.

Employees' desire to quit the firm or their employment reveals a worker's conscious and purposeful disposition to do so (Maier et al. 2013, 2013). Arshadi and Damiri (2013) added that it is defined as the deliberate choice to hunt for alternative work possibilities in other companies and that this stems from a variety of elements, determinants, and reasons that induce employees to plan to quit. In that specific study, the phrase "faculty member turnover intention" refers to academics' unwillingness to remain in their positions within their academic institutions as well as the factors that influence this choice.

As a result, Thirapatsakun et al. (2014) claimed that engagement and turnover intention are related. According to a study, most employers give this severe behaviour only passing consideration, despite the fact that they must cope with the real turnover that follows logically from the desire to quit (Ramli, et al., 2014). Therefore, studies that focus on the desire to quit may be more appropriate and beneficial than those that focus on actual turnover behaviour. If employers are informed of an employee's plans early enough, they may still be able to convince them to stay with the company. In light of this, it seems reasonable to utilise engagement as the dependent variable in this study while job-hopping intention as the independent variable.

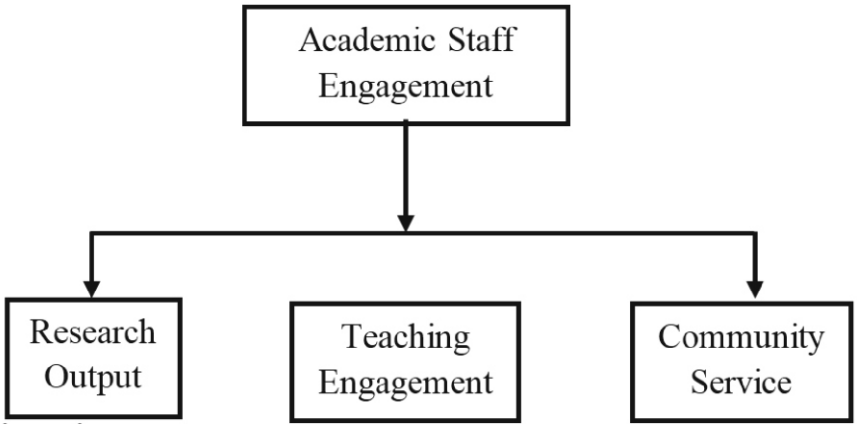
Academics' Engagement

Research, teaching, and community participation are the three main facets of academic engagement in universities (Okpe, et al. 2013; Sulaiman, 2018; Hamidu, 2019). Institutions of higher learning have a long history of doing teaching, research, and service. The amount and quality of these important variables impact a university's performance and ranking, as well as the recognition and promotion of its academic staff (Mushemeza, 2016).

Universities have traditionally focused primarily on teaching. After Alexander von Humboldt's academic revolution in the latter half of the 19th century, scientific research—while still closely related to teaching—became the second most important role of a university. The third function of colleges, community service, only came under debate in the latter half of the 20th century. Globalisation and networking, two aspects of social development, were to blame (Chatterton & Goddard 2000; Oyewole, et al. 2019).

Furthermore, research, teaching, and community service performance were the performance indicators for professors in Nigeria, according to Ologunde, et al. (2013). The three main components of an academic's job description are teaching, research, and community service, according to Fapohunda (2015). These academic positions serve as essential performance metrics for the involvement of academics at most universities worldwide. The requirements and standards for promotion depend on the performance of some or all of these critical academic activities, according to Okpe et al. (2013) and Oyewole et al. (2019). These roles have been confirmed as essential performance metrics for academic engagement at most universities according to Okpe et al. (2013).

Figure 1. **Showing Dimension of Academics' Engagement**



Generational Diversity

The concept of generation is not particularly new; thus, there are several standard definitions of "generation". A German sociologist initially used the term "generation" in 1928, according to Lyons, Duxbury, and Higgins (2005), as quoted in Shragay and Tziner (2011). According to him, a generation is a group of individuals born and reared within the same historical and social age (Shragay & Tziner, 2011). In other words, different generations are exposed to various socio-political life events while developing. As a result, their expectations, work attitudes, and behaviour at work are typically diverse (Glass, 2007; Shragay & Tziner, 2011). They also usually have distinct beliefs, viewpoints, practises, and worldviews.

According to Lyons and Kuron (2014), a generation is a group of people born in the same "historical and socio-cultural contexts, experienced the same formative experiences, and developed unifying commonalities." The phrase "unifying commonalities" implies contrasts between generational cohorts while simultaneously indicating similarities. According to Keeling's definition from 2003, a generation is a collection of people who were all born during the same period and who are acknowledged as having a generational personality that is influenced by three factors: (1) their perceived age location; (2) their shared views and behaviours; and (3) their considered membership in a typical generation.

Age-based diversity, according to Fajana (2009), describes intergenerational behaviour among older and younger workers that might explain variations in behaviours that have been seen in the workplace. In addition, Kupperschmidt (2000) defined a generation as an identifiable cohort of people who shared crucial historical or social life experiences at critical developmental stages and were born within the same period. Palese, Pantali, and Saiani (2006) assert in their studies that a generation is a group of individuals born at a particular historical period, lived through significant historical events and belonged to the same cultural group.

Given the multiple definitions offered by various academics, a generation may be identified by its birth year and critical life events (Kupperschmidt, 2000; Westerman & Yamamura, 2007). Thus, it may be said that each generation shares the same birth years and that throughout each of those years, historical, cultural, and social experiences, as well as key life events, impact a person's personality within that age. Gursoy, Chi, and Karadag (2013) argued that the current labour force is primarily made up of three generations: (i) Baby Boomers; (ii) Generation X; and (iii) Generation Y (also known as Millenials). The older generations, ventral born between 1925 and 1945, have retired (Maxwell & Broadbridge, 2014; Toossi, 2013; Gursoy, Chi, & Karadag, 2013). The dates indicated by Gursoy, Chi, and Karadag (2013)—the Baby Boomers (1946 to 1964), Generation X (1965 to 1980), and Generation Y (1981 to 2000)—are used in this analysis despite considerable disagreement among scholars over the periods that characterise each generation. Additionally, Generation Z is the term given by numerous academics to the generation that followed the millennials (Johnson, 2013; Nielsen, 2013). According to Johnson (2013), Nielsen (2013), and Srinivasan (2012), the Generation Z cohort was born between 2000 to the present. The Cuspers are one of the different generational cohort groupings, according to Shaw (2013). People born near the generational dividing line are known as cuspers and enjoy the privilege of being a part of two generations.

However, this study adopted the dominant generational cohort in the current labour force, as suggested by Gursoy, Chi, and Karadag (2013), which includes: (i) Generation Y (also known as Millenials). (ii) Generation X and (iii) Baby Boomers. This explanation puts the age limits of these generations like Generation Y (between the ages of 19 to 39), Generation X (between the ages of 39 to 55) and Baby Boomers (between the ages of 55 to 74) as of the year 2020.

Generational Diversity and Job-hopping Intention

Researchers from many fields have examined how generational diversity affects the workplace (Goessling, 2017; Rivers, 2018). According to Jaskyte (2014), an employee may select a specific workplace depending on their requirements, how it aligns with their beliefs, and whether or not it offers perks that are significant to them. Each generational cohort is driven by various things, including chances for advancement, work stability, respect, money security, acclaim, ethical leadership, and fresh challenges (Pierce & Madden, 2005). According to several scholars, job switching is a typical occurrence across generations. The findings of the age group that is more likely to switch employment or have a higher intention to resign are contradictory (Twenge, 2010). As a result, the association between job hopping intention and academic engagement results was adopted, as illustrated in Figure 2.

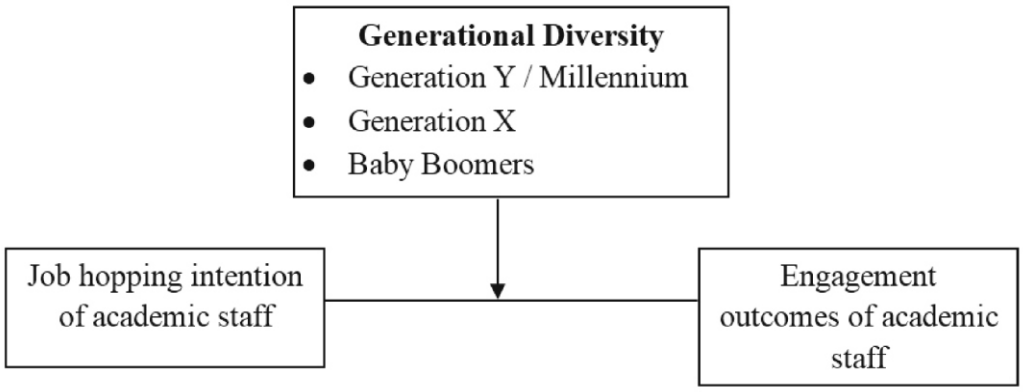


*Figure 2. framework showing moderating effect of Generational Diversity on job-hopping intent and Academics' Engagement outcomes (*Proposed 2023).

This study assumed that the intention to switch jobs and academic engagement are moderated by generational diversity. Boomers are defined as exceptionally hard workers and devoted to their personal and professional goals. This description is based on the idea that employees' attitudes are formed by what they value at work. They rely on their commitment to hard work and to growing their careers. They are driven by power, status, and benefits. Baby Boomers are seen as independent, competitive, and goal-oriented, and they frequently equate their employment status with their sense of self-worth. As a result, they desire to hold positions of power and authority and to be admired and rewarded. These characteristics are more likely to affect their willingness to change jobs (Goessling,

Similar to how some experts thought Gen Xers were more inclined to change careers than Baby Boomers, to begin with. (Bova & Kroth, 2001; Jennings, 2000). Gen Xers can grow in their careers, earn money (such as a salary and bonus), improve their marketability, and develop new skills by changing jobs often. According to Jennings' (2000) theory, Gen Xers lack a feeling of loyalty, and businesses cannot gain their allegiance by offering them a decent jobs in an unfavourable labour market. According to Crawford (2011), some Gen Xers motivated by professional progression will take employment quickly to position themselves effectively for moving up the corporate ladder. According to Altierier (2006) and Stueber (2014), Gen Xers are also thought to utilise job-hopping to receive extrinsic benefits right away, improve their marketability, or acquire skills from several employers to increase employment stability. Some workers also thought switching jobs would allow them to advance in their careers and receive salary hikes, mainly when they had the necessary skills and competitiveness (Yusoff & Kian, 2013).

Even though both generations are known for changing occupations often, research shows that Generation Y is more prone than prior generations to do so (Ahmed, Scott-Young, Fein, and Ahmed, 2014). One of Gen Y's generational traits is that they don't mind changing jobs and might not be in a firm

for more than two years (Shaharuddin & Zahari, 2014). Twenge (2010) thoroughly analysed the distinctions between the three generations of workers. The study shows empirical evidence of the Generation Y workforce's greater desire for extrinsic rewards. According to Lyons, Schweitzer and Ng (2015), Generation Y responds better to extrinsic incentives. Extrinsic incentives are material advantages like a wage and perks.

The aim of Generation Y to switch jobs has a variety of causes. For instance, they would look for positions that matched their preferences (having a high level of job flexibility) and tended to leave jobs when they discovered that they did not live up to their expectations (Rivers. (2018). According to Lavoie-Tremblay, Paquet, Duchesne, Santo, Gavrancic, Courcy, and Gagnon (2010), Gen Y employees show little commitment to their employers. They are willing to use job-hopping as a means of advancing their careers. Talented members of Generation Y are even prepared to change jobs frequently. They don't care how many businesses or employers must alter as long as such adjustments allow them to achieve their goals (Srinivasan, 2011). Their little loyalty to their employers, the single-minded pursuit of career advancement and better entitlement, and their attitude of "choosing their bosses" (Rivers, 2018) make them more likely to switch jobs (Treuren & Anderson 2010; Lavoie-Tremblay et al. 2010; Wee 2013).

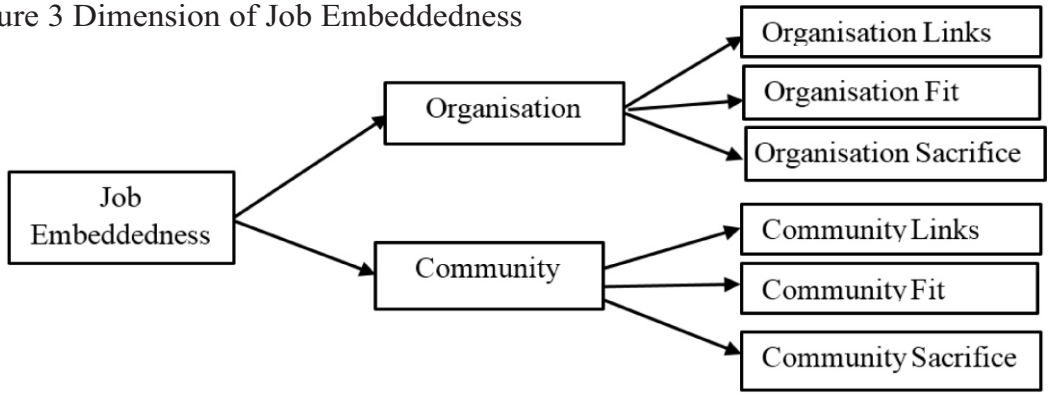
However, Twenge (2010) opined that neither Gen X nor Gen Y individuals would be more inclined to switch employment than those from the preceding generation. Twenge (2010) used one question regarding job-hopping in the Monitoring the Future (MTF) time-lag study. ("I would like to stay in the same job for most of my adult life.). They found a result that is opposite to most cross-sectional findings; that is, Gen X and Gen Y were slightly more likely to agree with this item than the Baby Boomers. However, it is believed that even though the attitude towards leaving the organisations of the three generations is quite similar, there might be a divergence between people's intentions and actual behaviour. When there are better opportunities, Gen X, especially Gen Y, would accept such an offer willingly. Even though there is a lack of consistent views about whether Gen X or Gen Y would be the job-hopping generation, Shaharuddin and Zahari (2014) mentioned that Gen X and Y are labelled as a job-hooping group due to their low sense of loyalty to employers.The work value generational cohorts bring to the workplace is based on their life experiences, historical events, attitudes, and expectations (Kelly & Marie-Anne, 2016). Schaefer (2017) stated that work value is the degree to which employees value their work, demonstrate loyalty and are willing to remain with the organisation.

Theoretical Support

This study adopted Job Embeddedness as its primary theoretical framework. Mitchell and Lee (2001) proposed the hypothesis. The job embeddedness theory (JET) bases one of its central tenets on the idea that employees form bonds with and make sacrifices for their companies. These connections are likened to threads in a web or net where a person may get caught or tethered to the organisation. As seen in

Figure 2.5, these attachments are crucial indicators of how engaged employees will be.

Figure 3 Dimension of Job Embeddedness



Source: Mitchell & Lee (2001)

These attachments are essential predictors of employees' engagement. Hence, this study supports job embeddedness theory in that, in mitigating job-hopping intentions and ensuring academics' engagement, the management of universities must continue to provide sufficient support in terms of grants, conference support, well-furnished offices, and provision of infrastructures for a conducive work environment.

Methodology

The research adopted a survey and descriptive design. The study focused on six (6) universities (two federal, state, and private) based on their year of establishment and top-ranked, as appeared in the Webometrics ranking of Nigerian universities 2019. Both public and private universities were selected to achieve representativeness and generalizability. A sample size of six hundred and twenty (620) was derived using a published table by Gill, Johnson & Clark (2010). The sample was further spread across selected universities using the proportionate allocation formula by Bowler (1996), as cited in Agbionu, Anyalor, and Nwali (2018). Five hundred and forty-five (545) copies of the questionnaire reflecting (87.9%) response rate was returned and used for this analysis. Academics were required to indicate the level of agreement by ticking 5 to 1, where 5= strongly disagree, 4= Disagree, 3= Neutral 2=strongly agree 1 = Agree for each of the respective statements. The data collected was analysed using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) to determine the impact of one variable on the other. Reliability and fitness were also carried out, while convergent and biased analyses were used to assess construct validity.

Results and Discussion

Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

This section presents the frequency distribution results regarding respondents' demographic characteristics, as shown in the following tables.

Table 2: Cross Tabulation of Respondents based on Age Categories

Age of Respondents	Selected Institutions						Total
	UI	OAU	OOU	LASU	CU	BU	
	Uni. 1	Uni. 1	Uni. 3	Uni. 4	Uni. 5	Uni. 6	
	Freq. %	Freq. %	Freq. %	Freq. %	Freq. %	Freq. %	Freq. %
20 – 38 years	36	34	20	21	11	10	132
	6.6%	6.2%	3.7%	3.9%	2.0%	1.8%	24.2%
39 – 54 years	82	66	24	28	24	25	249
	15.0%	12.1%	4.4%	5.1%	4.4%	4.6%	45.7%
55 – 73 years	35	42	30	25	19	13	164
	6.4%	7.7%	5.5%	4.6%	3.5%	2.4%	30.1%
Total	**153**	**142**	**74**	**74**	**54**	**48**	**545**
	28.1%	**26.1%**	**13.6%**	**13.6%**	**9.9%**	**8.8%**	**100.0%**

Table 3: Cross Tabulation Based on Present Academic Status

Present Academics' status/ Cadre	Selected Institutions						Total
	UI	OAU	OOU	LASU	CU	BU	
	Uni. 1	Uni. 2	Uni. 3	Uni. 4	Uni. 5	Uni. 6	
	Freq. %	Freq. %	Freq. %	Freq. %	Freq. %	Freq. %	Freq. %
Professor	16	29	8	15	11	4	83
	2.9%	5.3%	1.5%	2.8%	2.0%	0.7%	15.2
Associate Professor	14	12	3	2	8	7	46
	2.6%	2.2%	0.6%	0.4%	1.5%	1.3%	8.4%
Senior Lecturer	35	20	22	13	9	11	110
	6.4%	3.7%	4.0%	2.4%	1.7%	2.0%	20.0
Lecturer 1	45	32	19	21	7	8	132
	8.3%	5.9%	3.5%	3.9%	1.3%	1.5%	24.2
Lecturer 2	33	39	20	18	9	6	125
	6.1%	7.2%	3.7%	3.3%	1.7%	1.1%	22.9
Assistant Lecturer	10	10	0	5	10	12	47
	1.8%	1.8%	0.0%	0.9%	1.8%	2.2%	8.6%
Graduate Lecturer	0	0	2	0	0	0	2
	0.0%	0.0%	0.4%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.4%
Total	**153**	**142**	**74**	**74**	**54**	**48**	**545**
	28.1%	**26.1%**	**13.6%**	**13.6%**	**9.9%**	**8.8%**	**100.0%**

Table 4. Cross Tabulation Based on Years of Teaching Experience

Years of Teaching Experience	**Selected Institutions**						**Total**
	UI	OAU	OOU	LASU	CU	BU	
	Uni. 1	Uni. 1	Uni. 3	Uni. 4	Uni. 5	Uni. 6	
	Freq. %	Freq. %	Freq. %	Freq. %	Freq. %	Freq. %	Freq. %
0–3 years	0	0	2	0	2	0	4
	0.0%	0.0%	0.4%	0.0%	0.4%	0.0%	0.7%
4-6 years	8	11	1	2	5	3	30
	1.5%	2.0%	0.2%	0.4%	0.9%	0.6%	5.5%
7-9 years	23	39	25	11	13	13	124
	4.2%	7.2%	4.6%	2.0%	2.4%	2.4%	22.8%
10-12 years	45	25	14	22	9	9	124
	8.3%	4.6%	2.6%	4.0%	1.7%	1.7%	22.8%
13-15 years	36	17	4	10	13	10	90
	6.6%	3.1%	0.7%	1.8%	2.4%	1.8%	16.5%
16 years and above	41	50	28	29	12	13	173
	7.5%	9.2%	5.1%	5.3%	2.2%	2.4%	31.7%
Total	**153**	**142**	**74**	**74**	**54**	**48**	**545**
	28.1%	**26.1%**	**13.6%**	**13.6%**	**9.9%**	**8.8%**	**100.0%**

Measurement Model for Hypothesis

H0: Generational diversity (Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Y) does not moderate the relationship between job-hopping intention and academic engagement .

The Partial Least Square – Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM) technique was adopted for data analysis. Smart PLS 3 was used for SEM analysis because this tool can be used for theory testing in the early stages (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011; Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009; Petter, Straub, & Rai, 2007). PLS also can be used on small sample sizes because this method does not consider distribution assumptions (Astrachan, Patel, & Wanzenried, 2014).

All research variables have been measured using a structured questionnaire with Likert scales. The data collected was analysed using five (5) items to measure generational diversity. The items in the generational diversity scale comprised (Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Y). The responses to all items in each variable were cumulated and analysed, as presented in Figure 4.18. In this research, all items are reflective, and the minimum acceptable value for a factor loading is 0.60 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). All constructs have values higher than 0.60, meaning they have composite reliability. A few items having a factor loading less than 0.6 have been removed, and the results are presented in Figures 4, 5 and 6, respectively.

Evaluation of the Inner Structural Model

The structural model is the inner model in structural equation modelling. The structural model can be measured through path coefficients (R^2) values and significant values. PLS-SEM has been used for path

analysis because PLS do not need any distribution assumptions. The boots strapping method is used to find the significance (Chin, 2010; Sanchez, 2013). The default bootstrapping in PLS is 500 subsamples to gain significant results (Wetzels, Odekerken-Schroder, & Van Oppen, 2009). This study calculated 5000 subsamples in bootstrapping to gain more precise results and the path coefficient values of the three variables. Results showed that staff from the samples had almost the same opinion.

The hypothesis has two exogenous variables (job-hopping intention and generational diversity) and one endogenous variable (academics' engagement). The coefficient of determination/ r-squared, path coefficient (β value) and T-statistic value, effect size ($f2$), the predictive relevance of the model, and Goodness-of-Fit (GOF) index were the critical standards for evaluating the structural model as presented in Figures 4.18, 4.19 and 4.20 respectively. Path estimates were calculated using Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE), which is considered tolerant to violations of normality assumptions in most of the psycho-behavioural studies (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Results of structural models and path analysis for the variables have been presented in Table 4.5.5(d) and illustrated in Figures 4, 5 and 6.

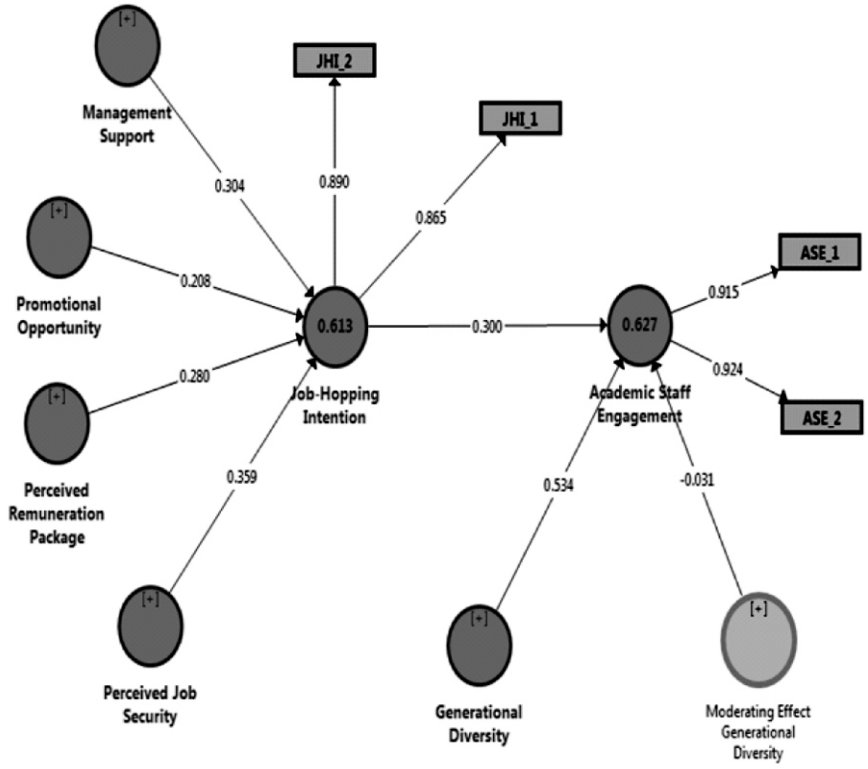


Figure 4: Predictive relevance (Path co-efficient) of job-hopping intention, generational diversity and academics' engagement

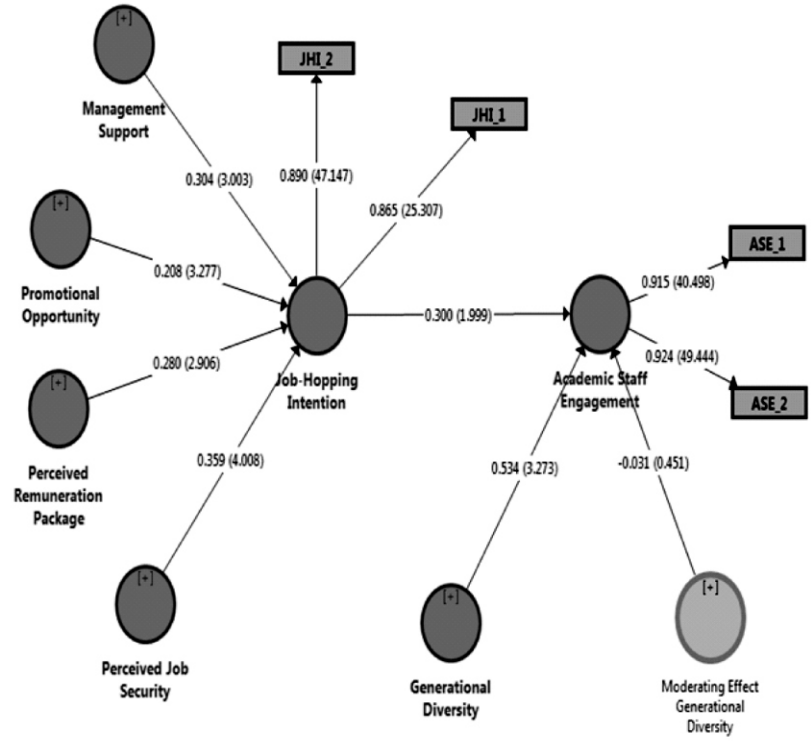


Figure 5: Path Co-efficient and P-values for job-hopping intention, generational diversity and academics' engagement

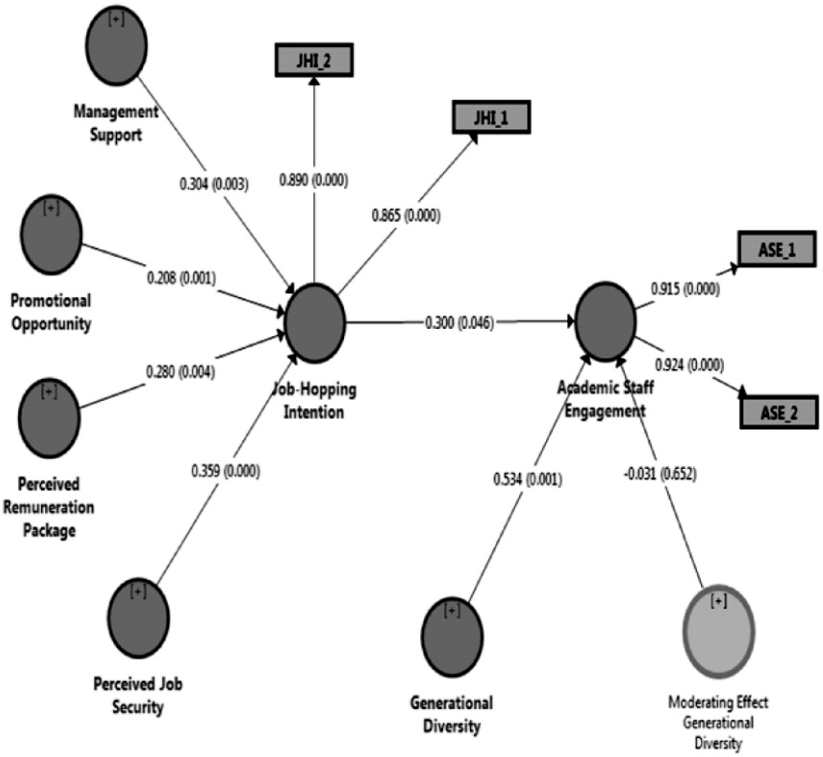


Figure 6: Path Co-efficient and T-values for job-hopping intention, generational diversity and academics' engagement

Estimation of Path Coefficients (β) and T-statistics

The path coefficients in the PLS and the standardised β coefficient in the regression analysis were similar. Through the β value, the significance of the hypothesis was tested. The β denoted the expected variation in the dependent construct for a unit variation in the independent construct(s). The β values of every path in the hypothesised model was computed, the greater the β value, the more the substantial effect on the endogenous latent construct. However, the β value had to be verified for its significance level through the T-statistics test. The path co-efficient is presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Path Coefficients for Job-hopping Intention, Generational Diversity and Academics Engagement

Variables and Cross Loading	Path Co-efficient (O)	Std. Dev. (STDEV)	T Statistics (O/ STDEV	P Values
Management supports • Academic staff engagement	0.240	0.05	2.147	0.04
Promotion opportunities • Academic staff engagement	0.162	0.03	2.083	0.04
Remuneration packages • Academic staff engagement	0.190	0.05	2.490	0.03
Perceived job security • Academic staff engagement	0.276	0.08	2.336	0.02
Job-hopping intention • Academic staff engagement	0.300	0.07	2.005	0.04
Generational diversity • Academic staff engagement	0.534	0.08	3.278	0.00
Moderating effect of generational diversity • Academic staff engagement	-0.031	0.07	0.458	0.07
	R Square (R^2)	R Square (R^2) Adjusted		
Job-hopping intention	0.613	0.604		
Generational diversity	0.416	0.388		
Academic staff engagement	0.627	0.619		

The path coefficient of all constructs indicates significant relationships in the analysis at .05. The model showed a statistically significant path coefficient; specifically, an important relationship was found among the variables (job-hopping intention, generational diversity and academic engagement). Hence, all path coefficients were of practical importance since the significance level is below .05. The result also suggested that perceived job security ($\beta = 0.276$, Tvalue = 2.336, $p < 0.05$) and management supports ($\beta = 0.240$, Tvalue = 2.147, $p < 0.05$) have the higher beta values among the constructs that best predict job hopping intention;. In contrast, promotion opportunities had the least effect with $\beta = 0.162$.

Specifically, the path analysis and bootstrapping based on the selected universities were also developed to ascertain and assess the relationship among the variables. To determine the predictive relevance, bootstrapping analysis was conducted. Bootstrapping is a statistical technique used for significant testing of coefficients in formative measurement models. The bootstrapping procedure was used to evaluate the significance of the hypothesis and relationships (Chin, 2010; Sanchez, 2013). This showed the high predictive and explanatory power of the structural models and path analysis for job-hopping intention, generational diversity and academic engagement (see Figure 6.

The value of R^2 explained the variance between endogenous variables (Henseler et al., 2009; Hulland, 1999). According to Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics (2009) and Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt (2013), an R^2 value of 0.75 is considered substantial, an R^2 value of 0.50 is regarded as moderate, and an R^2 value of 0.26 is considered as weak. This study's inner path model for the job-hopping intention (endogenous latent construct) was 0.613. This indicates that the endogenous latent construct's four-factor loading items (management supports, promotion opportunities, perceived remuneration package and perceived job security) substantially explain 61.3% of the variance in the job-hopping intention of the selected universities. This means that 61.3% of the change in the job-hopping purpose was due to four latent constructs, suggesting good explanatory power for the model.

In addition, the inner path model for the generational diversity (endogenous latent construct) was 0.416. This indicates that the three (3) factor loading items (Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Y) substantially explain 41.6% of the variance in the generational diversity of the selected universities. This means that 41.6% of the change in generational diversity was due to three latent constructs in the model, suggesting good explanatory power for the model.

Similarly, the analysis showed that the indicators of exogenous (job-hopping intention and generational diversity) variables collectively explained 62.7% of the variability of academic engagement staff in the selected universities. In sum, the analysis provided evidence that the R^2 value in this study was *moderate*. Even though the moderating effect was insignificant, it can be affirmed that generational diversity and job-hopping intention are predictors of academic staff engagement. By implication, the null hypothesis five (H_{05}), which indicates that the moderating role of generational

diversity does not have a combined and significant effect on job-hopping intention and academic engagement of staff in the selected universities, is hereby accepted.

Model Fit and Goodness of Fit Index

Model fit can be analysed through Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR), and Normed Fit Index (NFI) values in PLS under model fit, and factor analysis in PLS algorithm. The minimum acceptable value for SRMR is less than 0.08 (Hu & Bentler, 1998). All values are less than 0.8. In addition, NFI values are related to chi-square values and must be between 0 to 1. The higher values near to 1 constitute a better fit. The higher suggested values are 0.9 (Lohmoller, 2013).

The goodness of fit (GOF) index was used to evaluate model fit (Tenenhaus, Esposito, Chatelin & Lauro, 2005). The goodness of fit index can be obtained by calculating the average geometric mean of commonality and (R^2) values ,as shown in Table 6. For this index, values of 0.01, 0.25 and 0.36 are respectively described as weak, medium and strong. After calculations, the GOF index was obtained equal to 0.910 ,which is a strong index indicating the good fit of the model. The CMIN/DF indicates an acceptable fit when the hypothetical model is < 3 (Ferron & Hess, 2007). The decision rule that is adopted to determine the acceptability of the model includes CMIN/df must be < 3; RMSEA/SRMR <0.8; NFI, GFI, CFI must be > 0.90 (Ferron & Hess, 2007; Fornell & Larcker, 2009). The relative Chi-square = 165.25; CFI = .941; NFI = .917; SRMR = .060 as displayed in Table 6. The model fit indices satisfied the critical threshold, which indicated a fitting model.

Table 6: Goodness of Fit and Model Fit Index

The Model Fit Index Calculation		The Goodness of fit (GoF) Model			
Constructs	AVE ≥0.50		Cut-Off Value	Results	Conclusion
Management supports	0.618	SRMR	≤ 0.08	0.060	Good Fit
Promotion opportunities	0.783	RMSEA	≤ 0.08	0.074	Good Fit
Remuneration packages	0.685	Chi-Square		165.25	Good
Perceived job security	0.647	CMIN/DF	≤ 3.00	2.209	Fit
Job-hopping intention	0.683	NFI	≥ 0.90	0.917	Fit
Generational diversity	0.722	CFI	≥ 0.90	0.941	Good Fit
Academic staff engagement	0.749	GoF	≥ 0.90	0.910	Good Fit
Mean of AVE	**0.718**				

The measurement model indicated that all the model fit indices were found to be in an acceptable range and above the recommended cut-off level, as suggested by Latan and Ramli, (2013). The SRMR is an index of the average of standardised residuals between the observed and the hypothesised covariance matrices (Chen, 2007). The SRMR is a measure of estimated model fit. When SRMR = <0.08, then the study model has a good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1998). The table shows that this study model's SRMR was 0.060, which revealed that this study model has a good fit. However, the moderating effect of

generational diversity was statistically insignificant. This showed that practitioners' intention to use social media was not determined by social media's ease of use but by its usefulness.

The findings concluded that generational diversity is affected by several factors. Hence, based on the findings, it is recommended that management continue to uphold its diversity policies and practices to increase diversity's benefits.

Discussion

The analysis showed that the indicators of exogenous (job-hopping intention and generational diversity) variables collectively explained 62.7% of the variability of academics' engagement in the selected universities. Even though the indicators of exogenous (job-hopping intention and generational diversity) variables collectively explained 62.7% of the variability of academics' engagement, the moderating effect (-0.031) shows that generational diversity has a weak moderating effect on academics' engagement.

Therefore, it can be affirmed that generational diversity and job-hopping intention are predictors of academic engagement. By implication, the null hypothesis five (H_0), which indicates that the moderating role of generational diversity does not have a combined and significant effect on job-hopping intention and academic engagement in the selected universities, was supported. This tends to explain the uniqueness of individuals within generational cohorts in terms of perceptions, aspirations, and drives. As such, their level of engagement tend to be different (Yuen, 2016: Niki, (2017: Demetria, 2018).

Conclusion and Recommendations

The finding shows that the indicators of exogenous (job-hopping intention and generational diversity) variables collectively explained 62.7% of the variability of academic engagement staff in the selected universities. However, the moderating effects of generational diversity were found not significant.

By implication, generational diversity and job-hopping intention are predictors of academic staff engagement; therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_{0)}$) indicates that the moderating role of generational diversity does not have a combined and significant effect on job-hopping intention and academic engagement of staff in the selected universities was accepted.

The study provided the inclusion of generational diversity as a predictor of academic engagement. Hence, it becomes necessary and imperative for the management of universities to embrace generational diversity and harness the inherent benefits to support the fundamental roles–teaching, research, and community service.

The analysis provided a weak moderating effect of generational diversity; the collective effects of determinants of job-hopping intention and generational diversity on academics' engagement were confirmed significant. Hence the following recommendations were preferred:

(i) Management should endeavour to promote diversity management by harnessing the inherent benefits of diversity among academics.

(ii) To foster generational synergy in the workplace, management must comprehend the variations among generational cohorts.

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Government Finance and Housing Delivery of Selected Local Governments in Ogun State, Nigeria

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Abstract
The problem of housing globally became aggravated after the scourge of Covid 19 in 2020. Mainly affected are the increasing low-income earners in developing countries struggling with over population without a corresponding housing supply and stable mortgage programme. This made it imperative to study the phenomenon of housing deficit in Ogun State. The objective of this study is to look at the nexus between housing deficit vis a vis housing delivery and government finance in Sagamu, Ijebu Ode, Ado Odo Ota and Abeokuta south local governments in Ogun State. The study adopted the exploratory research design and descriptive research design, using both primary and secondary data. Using the convergence theory that argues that its the state solely fiduciary duty to solve housing problems, the study discovered that majority of the respondents lived in houses not befitting for humans, this is because successive governments have consistently neglected growth in population in formulating housing policy because this mainly affects the low income earners. The study recommended a template for proper statistical data on birth rate, middle/low income earners, increased budgetary allocation for housing delivery, construction of low-cost houses that are affordable by the lower class. It concluded that there should be sincerity on the part of the state government and this must begin with judicious spending and accountability of the monthly budget on housing delivery which must not only be affordable but also accessible to low income earners in the state.

Keywords: Housing Deficit, Housing Affordability, Housing Finance, Housing Delivery

Introduction

The problem of housing deficit is a global phenomenon that is more pronounced in developing countries. This problem may be slightly low in developed countries, for example it was 12 million in UK as of the end of 2020 (Simon, 2020) and 3.8 million in US (Freddie, 2021).This crisis has manifested more in developing countries where greater part of the population live in informal settlements. In South Africa, more than 1.1 million households are estimated to be living in informal settlements of nine major cities (Agayi and Karakayali, 2020). This condition, according to Agayi and Karakayali (2020), is similar in developing Southern Eastern Europe. In Albania and Macedonia, about

a quarter of the population live in informal settlements occupying about 40% and 11%, respectively. These settlements are without access to affordable and decent housing, water sanitation, electricity among others.

In sub Saharan Africa, according to Aminu (2019), 70% of housing stock are of poor quality and out of compliance with local regulation. However, housing is a basic need of man hence the reason for describing it as a sine-qua-non of human living (Olotuah& Aiyetan, 2006). Consequently, the importance attached to the issue of housing is immense; to most governments, the availability of sufficient but basic housing for all is often stated as a priority for enhancing the social needs of the society. The inability of various governments to meet these social needs has led to the multiplicity of global slums.

A house can be described as a physical structure meant for the provision of shelter to its occupants, it can also be used it to protect persons from harsh effects of weather and other dangerous things that may cause harm to their lives (Aminu, 2019). Thus, housing is one of the basic physiological needs of man, since shelter is always ranked next to food and clothing based on priority needs for every human being. For a typical Nigerian, the house is a major asset in his portfolio, the purchase of a house represents the cogent lifelong investment and a store of wealth (Akinwunmi, 2009). Consequently, the provision of housing services depends on a good functional housing finance system dependent on the economic system adopted in a country (Akinwunmi, 2009).

Nigeria is a West African country that shares land borders with the Republic of Benin in the West, Chad and Cameroon in the East and Niger Republic in the North. The country is bounded in the South by the Atlantic Ocean. With the effect of the Covid 19 pandemic on an already crawling economy, International monetary fund projected a contraction of GDP by 3.1/4 % in 2020, with subdued growth of 1.1/2% within 2021 and 0% by 2022 (IMF, 2020). Consequently, the income earned by Nigerian workers became abysmally low, where the minimum monthly wage is US $67 (30,000) (rate at US $1 = 450).

Housing deficit in Nigeria stands between sixteen to twenty-two million up from eight million in the 1980's (Fakoyejo, 2020). It is also estimated that over twenty-two million are either homeless or live in rented substandard houses. For the housing deficit to be abated, more than 59.5 trillion naira is required (Onoji,2021). Recently, the Minister of Housing, Raji Fashola, refuted his earlier assertion that housing deficit in Nigeria remains the creation of the imagination of the Federal Housing Agency. To him, the earlier mentioned deficit has no scientific or logical basis. He argued that there are many empty houses in the villages, unoccupied (Onoji, 2021). Nevertheless, if the argument by the Honourable Minister of Housing is correct, how then can the housing demand and shortages in urban centres be accounted for?

Generating finance for housing development has become more like an insurmountable barrier making credit financing very inevitable (Ademuliyi, 2010). This is because housing finance plays a major role in determining the quality and tenure of housing consumption, the overall financing portfolio

of the public and the stability and effectiveness of the financial system. A well-functioning mortgage market is considered to have large external benefits to the domiciled national economy like contribution to economic growth and improved standard of living (Renaud 2008; Dickerson 2009). With the absence of a well-functioning housing finance system, a market-based provision would therefore be lacking. In most developing countries, their housing finance supply systems are considered to be operationally efficient in terms of intermediation (Kim 1977; Cho 2007) (cited in Akinwunmi 2009). These efficiencies include reductions in the cost of credit intermediation but this has not been able to close the housing deficit to a minimal level. For example, in 2017,10.2% of households in European Union (EU) spent over 40% of their disposable income on housing credits, but this share reduces to 37.8% when considering households at risk of poverty. At the same time, when housing costs are taken into account, 156 million people were at risk of poverty, as against 85 million before housing cost are taken into account. Thus, by 2018, the estimated investment gap in affordable housing in EU stands at 57 billion per year (European Union, 2019).

In Africa, despite government intervention at various levels, housing problem continue to generate an increasing number of poor urban residents that have become homeless (Aminu 2019). According to the World Bank report of about 70% represent the urban housing stock in sub- Saharan Africa, 50% in South Asia, 25% in Latin America and the Caribbean. Again, they are of poor quality and out of compliance with local regulations. Medium usable living space in sub- Saharan Africa and South Asia is about seven square meters (75 square feet) per person compared to 32 square meters (350 square feet) in the industrial countries. Per capital expenditures on roads, sewage, drainage, water supply, electricity supply and garbage collection is 10-40 times greater in the industrialized countries than the way it is in the developing countries (Aminu, 2019).

Statement of the Problem

The escalating global housing crisis is one of humans' greatest challenges, especially after the Covid 19 pandemic of 2020. At least 1.2 billion people worldwide live in substandard housing, often lacking access to basic services and infrastructure (CBN, 2020). This is increasing rapidly in the context of accelerating urban population growth, especially in rapidly urbanising Africa and Asia (Andrew et.al, 2020). The World Bank projects that 300 million new homes will be required by 2030 to bridge the global housing deficit, with the majority of this need concentrated in sub-Saharan Africa, South Asia and South East Asia. This will require a global investment of 17 trillion dollars to facilitate land acquisition and housing construction. (Andrew etal, 2020). Although, the challenge is vast, the opportunity is also enormous, in the UK, housing deficit was 12 million as the end of 2020 (Simon, 2020) while in the US the deficit is 3.8 million (Freddie, 2021).

In Nigeria, housing deficit continues to grow and according to the Minister of Housing Raji Fashola in 2020, it was estimated to be 22 million. Nigeria's housing backlog continues to pose health

challenge to many individuals as 60 to 79% of Nigerians are slum dwellers (Bah et.al 2018 in CAHF, 2020). This makes them vulnerable to the transmission of communicable disease. According to world health organisation, human to human transmission of the Covid-19 virus largely occurs in families while a secondary transmission rate of Covid-19 is higher in clusters of large households (WHO, 2020).The housing stock in Nigeria is estimated at 10.7million, out of which only about 5% is in formal mortgage (CBN, 2020). The widening gap between housing demand and supply is caused by a multiplicity of factors including land acquisition, high cost of building materials, lack of proper land regulation and policy.

Many government intervention policies and programmes have evolved over time to address the issue with no solution (Anunike, 2011). These include promoting and energising primary mortgage institutions (PMIs) to raise fund and loan for housing projects the reorganisation of Federal Housing Authority (FHA) to focus on social housing, home ownership scheme for civil servants by monetising their benefits and giving them opportunity to purchase government house; reviews of National Urban Development and Housing Policies in 2004 to ensure that all Nigerians should have decent, safe and sanitary housing accommodation at affordable cost. Government white paper on the recommendation the of Presidential Review Committee on Housing in 2008, the annual target of providing a thousand housing units per annum by each state government, Urban Development Bank of Nigeria (UDBN), Federal Housing Authority (FHA) reforms among others. (Abayomi et.al, 2020).

In 2018, the government of Nigeria, in partnership with the World Bank and other developing partners, took significant strides to unlock these housing constraints. They are: (a) conducive macro policies that provide for stable and low inflation (b) access to long term finance (c) reduced cost to business transactions in land registration and foreclosure (d) good quality and efficient building and construction. This outgone World Bank/Nigeria Housing Finance Programme attracted the sum of 300 million dollars between 2018 to 2020 (World Bank, 2018).

Nevertheless, with all these aforementioned strides of Nigerian government, housing deficit has continued to grow unabated, this has led to multi-faceted problems such as: multiplicity of slums, flooding of urban centres, congestion, increased crime rate, traffic jam, transfer of communicable disease among others, over- stretching of public infrastructural facilities and high rent rate.

Thus, in spite of the huge financial resources ploughed into the provision of housing by various administrations and their agencies, housing deficit in Nigeria still persists. This study therefore aims at investigating the reasons financial efforts put into remedying housing deficits in Nigeria may not have yielded substantial dividends and accordingly provides the way forward.

Research Objectives

The main objective of the study is to examine how government finance has affected housing deficit in the selected local governments in Ogun State. The specific objectives of this study, however are to:

1 Determine the reasons government lacks the will in considering population growth in the formulation processes of Nigeria's numerous housing policies especially in selected local governments of Ogun State.
2 Access the reasons housing shortages is growing unabated despite the governments' yearly budget for housing provision in Ogun States.
3 Examine the relationship between housing affordability and level of income in accessing government loans through various mortgages banks.
4 Identify the problems associated with housing deficit and government finance in these selected local governments of Ogun State.

Literature Review

Housing: The English word 'house' is derived directly from the old English word 'hus' sourced the from proto German word *husan,* meaning "dwelling, shelter or home" .Housing is one of the three basic needs of man following closely after food, which is the most important factor for the survival of man; it is among the important measures of the state of an economy. Housing is considered to be one of the best indicators of a person's standard of living and place in the society (Jiboye, 2009). The concept transcends just providing a roof over one's head (Akinmoladun & Oduwaje, 2000). It forms the base upon which people could rebuild their lives following the disruptive impacts and trauma of homelessness (Smith et.al, 2014).

A house is a building that functions as a home or an abode that provides adequate shelter for individuals and families (Adenubi & Windapo, 2007). Access to appropriate and accessible housing is a fundamental human right that is vital to the wellbeing of individual, families and committees (Select Committee, 2008). Aribigbola (2008) posits that housing is a basic need of human being just as food and clothing are. It is very fundamental to the welfare, survival and health of man (Fadamiro et.al, 2004). Hence, housing is one of the best indicators of a person's standard of living and his place in the society.

To Aminu (2019), housing can be described as a physical structure meant for the provision of shelter or accommodation for its occupants, to protect them from harsh weather and other dangerous things that might cause harm to their lives. Olawale et.al (2015) corroborated this, that housing is not only a building that comprises all inbuilt amenities that make life comfortable for the inhabitant, but also it embraces all the environment qualities that make a particular unit livable (Zanuzdana et.al, 2012). It is a major economic asset in every nation (Amao & Odujo, 2014).

From the foregoing, the significance of a decent house in modern society cannot be overemphasized, as it is essential to humans not just as a source of protection from external effect, but as a point of basic gathering where important economic, social and political activities are nurtured and pursued (Oladimeji, 2015)

Housing Deficit

The concept of housing deficit may be tricky to define because it is a consequence of the problems associated with housing itself. Nevertheless, housing deficit refers to the number of shelters which do not have the necessary adequacies to be regarded as habitable, plus the number of housing units that need to be built to shelter all families who currently lack one and as a result, share a shelter with one another in overcrowded conditions (Iwedi & Onuegbu, 2014). It has been identified as the concentration of families earning three times less than the minimum wage, caught in the poverty cycle, and with a family income structurally limited and as a result they are unable to afford proper housing (World Bank, 2013).

AOL (2019) conceptualizes housing deficit as a deficiency or lack in the number of houses needed to accommodate the population of an area. It follows the economic principles of supply and demand. When production of housing outpaces the demand, there will be housing surplus, when housing production falls behind demand there is housing deficit or shortage. This can be measured as the difference between the number of households and the number of permanent dwellings. The deficit can be estimated for a given period of time, as annual deficit or can sometimes be referred to as housing backlog (Moore, 2019).

Housing Policy: A policy is a conscious system of principle meant to guide decisions and secure rational objective. It is a statement of intent, generally implemented as a procedure through programmes. To this end, different sections of the economy has policies that are used in tackling peculiar problems. Hence, housing policy is a tool that is used in town planning for solving housing problems, and consequently, for the achievement of sustainable housing (Olawale et.al, 2015).

A housing policy is derived from laws, regulations and administrative practices that can aid the production and delivery of housing. It is a policy measure aimed purposely at solving housing problems and it requires a strategy for the enforcement of the purpose of the intended programmes of actions. A most comprehensive housing policy should address the role of government which may vary from the planning and control of the aspects of housing production: land, investment, construction and occupancy to intervention only at certain levels or when solutions are needed to tackle specific problem involving such matters as land use plans and controls, credit and financial aids. Subsidies should go to low income groups, rent control, slum clearance and relocation (Lawal,1997).

Housing Affordability

The term housing affordability has come into popular usage in the last four decades replacing housing need at the center of the debate about the provision of adequate housing for all (Ndubueze, 2009). This is because inability of the decision makers to find a balance among analysis for housing demand, housing supply, household income and size distribution as well as the mobility to comprehend what housing

affordability really entails. It is difficult to define affordable housing, and there is no generally acceptable definition (Mekenya, 1996 cited in Oyediran 2019). While low cost refers only to building system and land development methods that are applicable to low cost housing, affordable housing should generate an image of typical housing that may be large or small, built with inexpensive materials and products and provide the amenities appropriate for or lack of affordability is determined by the household income of the occupant rather than the cost of the house (Wallace, 1995 cited in Oyediran, 2019).

Housing affordability can be defined as the capacity of making households meet their periodic mortgage needs without jeopardizing their health or reducing other basic family need (Agbola, 2005 cited in John et.al, 2015). Housing is considered affordable if it consumes 30% or less of a household's income (Community Tool Box, 2018). The choice of an affordable house goes beyond having a roof over one's head; it involves choosing your neighbourhood, amenities and the services that come with it (Wilson, 2018). The ability to access wealth by the majority of the citizens often puts upward pressure and competition from high-income and the masses on housing prices, thereby putting a high risk for low income mass (Community Tool Box, 2018). Put differently, it is the ability to afford housing (Ndubueze, 2009).

The concept of affordable housing has been measured by the income level, household size and affordability (KPMG, 2010). Affordable housing has been used to mean "public or social" or 'low cost' housing. For the purpose of housing affordability, Palade and Khare (2015) categorized the citizens according to their income levels. Four categories are identified, they are: Economically Weaker Group (EWG), Lower Income Group (LIG), Middle Income Group (MIG), and the High-Income Group (HIG). The major demand in housing is from the EWG, LIG and MIG categories. A general yardstick for affordable housing is that expenditure on housing should not exceed 30% of the income of the household. As expected, the 30% of household income benchmark has been a subject of debate among experts. Hulchanski (2005) raised the issue of shelter poverty, a situation where a household spends 30% of their income on housing but could not afford to meet some other essential needs for minimal comfortable living. This scenario arises, where though the cost of housing is low, the income is also so low that the household cannot afford non-housing needs after spending 30% of its income on housing.

Housing Finance: Housing, as a social and economic product, has a positive impact on the economy of any country. Developed countries such as the UK, some part of North America, Germany, Japan, Singapore among others, have a well-organized and effective housing finance system (Okoroafor, 2007 cited in Wapara et.al 2011). In Nigeria, housing finance systems are generally underdeveloped despite having good policies, but affected by poor methods of implementation which have often led to loss of funds by the government.

The sources of housing finance can be broadly classified into formal and informal. Formal housing finance supply in emerging economies are operated through both the policy driven and the

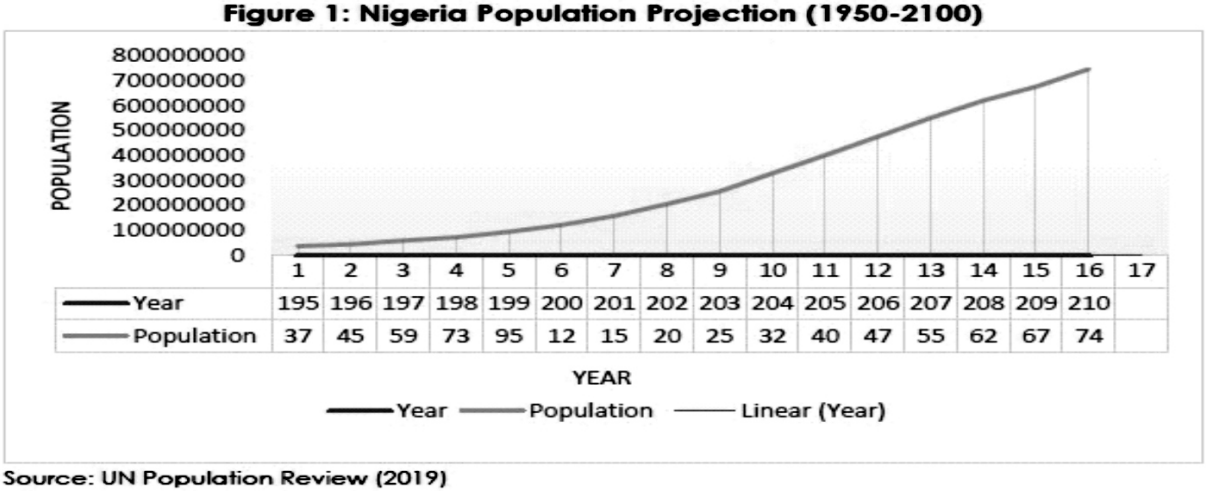
market-oriented housing finance channels (Deng & Fei, 2008 in Akinwunmi, 2009). The policy driven housing finance supply is mainly through housing funds schemes which are mandatory housing savings scheme while the market-oriented housing finance supply is mainly commercial loans from financial institution.

For the acquisition or building of a house, the most popular means of raising finance in Nigeria has either been from institutions, which are universal banks, mortgage institution, insurance companies and state housing corporation or from the informal financial market. The provision of finance and facilities especially for lower middle-class groups for construction are provided through the informal sector (Wapare et.al, 2011). The type of finance being raised from the financial institution is called 'debt financing' and it represent a small percentage the of total housing finance lending figure with the financial system. This is because over 50% of potential borrowers earn low income and cannot meet the condition attached to borrowing for housing finance by the lenders.

Housing Problems in Nigeria

The problem of housing in Nigeria in terms of stock and quality have remained persistent. Many government intervention policies and programmes have evolved over time to address the issues. With a household remuneration of 39 million, over 17 million housing deficits in Nigeria (World Bank, 2016) are colossal, realistically overwhelming and worryingly on an increase. Nigeria's population is increasing at about 2.8% annually and the United Nations has projected that by 2050, the population in Nigeria would be about 400 million.

Figure 1: Nigeria Population Projection (1950-2100)



	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
Year	195	196	197	198	199	200	201	202	203	204	205	206	207	208	209	210	
Population	37	45	59	73	95	12	15	20	25	32	40	47	55	62	67	74	

Source: UN Population Review (2019)

Migration has contributed significantly to the growth rate of the urban population estimated to be 4.7% by the World bank. Expectedly, the high urban population growth rate will lead to rapid deterioration in housing and living conditions (Oyediran, 2019). The World Bank (2015), reported that sub-Saharan Africa, including Nigeria experiencing rapid urbanization, as well as, a growing slum population. The

report further observed that many households cannot afford basic formal housing or access mortgage loans.

World Bank (2015) noted that there is a lack of quality housing stock, and that the consistent and reliable data to identify the quantity and quality of housing deficit both formal and informal is quite challenging. Various interest groups escalated the figure of population and statistical magnitude so as to sound the alarm and draw attention to the need for the housing sector. It has been reported that housing deficit in Nigeria stands at about 17million (Adebayo & Dada 2014; Abuja Housing Forum, 2019, Okonjo-Iweala 2014; Alegbe, 2013; Centre for Affordable Housing Finance in Africa, (2013) with attendant financial requirement to bridge the gap estimated to be about #60 trillion. On the other hand, Garba et.al (2017) believed that the Nigerian housing deficit is between 17 to 20 million housing units. Akinradewo and Adedokun (2019) reported recently that the Managing Director of the Federal Mortgage Bank of Nigeria (FMBN) estimated that the deficit in Nigeria is about 22 million units. The confusion in the unavailability and unreliability of these estimates compounded the problem of housing in Nigeria.

Scholars have offered a wide array of reasons for the problem of housing deficits in Nigeria. Ezeigwe (2015) averred that the indicators of urban housing deficit in Nigeria are poverty, urbanization, high cost of land, non-implementation of the housing policies, failure on the side of the government, high cost of building materials and corruption. Ibimilua and Ibitoye (2015), averred that housing problem is militated against by poverty, discrimination against the use of local materials, ineffective housing finance, inadequate financial instrument for the mobilization of funds, high cost of building materials, shortage of infrastructural facilities, as well as the bureaucracies in land acquisition, processing of Certificate of Occupancy(C of O) and approval of building plans. Olarenwaju et.al (2016) argued that ineffective policies and regulations, legal issues, ineffective market regulations and high costs of construction are the reasons for the deficit. Ewurum and Odenigbe (2018) blamed ineffective demographic management and affordability, defining demography management as the integration of population statistics in decision making. The affordability angle also finds support in the works of Ahmed and Bin Span (2019). Again, Okafor (2016) and Ifediora et.al (2015) posit that low-income earners are the predominant demography of housing deficit in Nigeria. Okafor (2016) extrapolated that housing deficit in Nigeria emanates from an agglomeration of lack or inadequate housing financial assistance, high cost of building materials, high interest rates and lukewarm interest on the part of the financial institution to facilitate loans to real estate developments. He further querried: Where then are the government public private partnership cooperative housing development loans, national housing mortgage fund and rent to own schemes implemented?

Ahmed and Bin-Span (2019) supported and posited that public housing delivery in Nigeria is characterized by lack of proper framework which included, land accessibility and affordability, corruption, lack of sound legal framework, funding constraints and unstable price of building

materials". Ifediora et.al (2015), held that these characteristics were consequential upon "little or no market research, poor direction, poor project locations, stringent affordability criteria and corruption and lack of trust by the masses. In support, Gbadegesin et.al (2016) suggested tenure security and land availability as major causes of housing deficit in Nigeria. This contribution brings the Nigerian Land Use Act (1978) into disrepute, since the Land Use Act was enacted to make land availabile for development through government control of tenure and use. Why then is land not available for development? Ezeigwe (2015) attempted a response with the avowal that the process is littered and laced with corruption which transmutes the policy from societal welfare to promoting benefit.

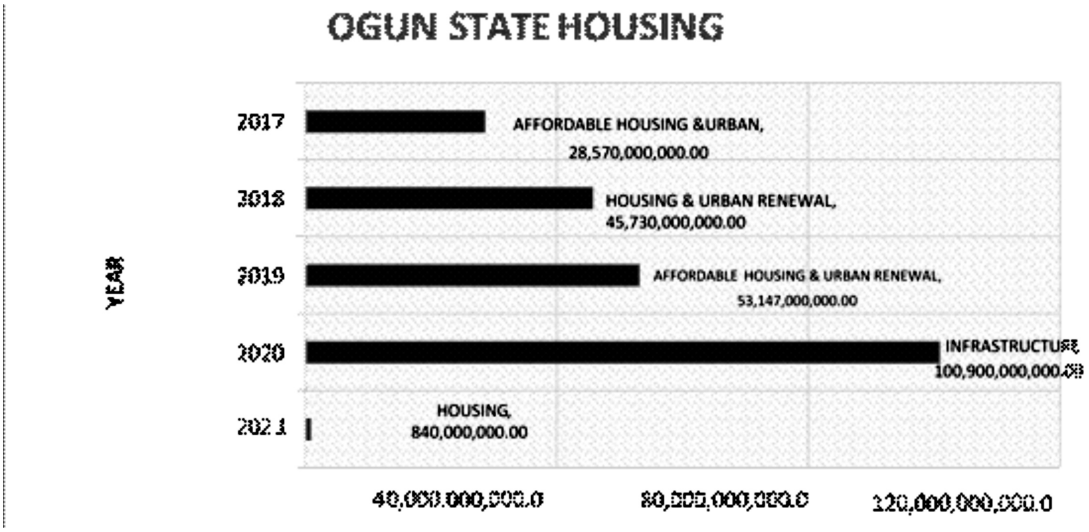
To Temi et.al (2018), problems of housing deficit are multi-faceted they include: high cost and lack of equal access to land, high cost of building materials, high cost and long processing direction of proper registration; inability of earlier policies and programs to adequately resolve the backlog of housing problems, absence of proper and evaluation of public housing policies and programs, low capacity of public housing agencies, poor government administration, inadequate funding, insufficient infrastructural amenities, as well as inadequate housing finance. Iwedu & Onuelugbu (2014), supported by itemizing the problem of housing deficit in Nigeria under the following: outdated mortgage laws, paucity of funds, rapid urbanization and economic growth, poor mortgage system, corruption in high quarters, poor state of infrastructure, poor policy implementation and steady population growth. Similarly, Isa et.al (2013) posited by looking at the economic angle. They affirm the housing sector as having a multiplier effect, and in most developed economies, the housing sector is seen as an important sector for stimulating economic growth.

Appraising the literatures above, the following can be deduced: First, low income earners make up the bulk of housing deficit demography in Nigeria. Secondly, Nigeria produces a deficit remuneration of 600,000 housing units annually and this implies that with an annual population growth rate of almost 3%, instead of reducing the deficit, it seems that Nigeria is subconsciously increasing the deficit. Thirdly, public housing supply has benefitted mostly the middle to high income demography if not predominantly the high. Fourthly, attempts by public housing providers in Nigeria to curb the deficit have been misconstrued, misdirected and have not prioritized the demands of the predominant demography. Delmendo (2019), concurred with the assertion that in Lagos Nigeria, over 70% of the population live in informal settlement and slums, a situation that is rife all over Nigeria.

Government Efforts on Housing Delivery in Ogun State

Ogun State inherited the Western region policy of encouraging house ownership by its workforce rather than depending on the provision of houses by the government. As at 1976, therefore, there were only two estates in the state; one in Abeokuta and one in Ijebu-ode. The provision of housing in Ogun State by the Federal Government Housing Agency (FHA) includes the 1975-1980 Development Plan period when the Federal Housing Authority (FHA) allocated 893 plots and completed 512 housing out of the

8000 housing plus land projected for the state. The emergent creation of State Housing Corporation in 1997: an offshoot of the Western Nigeria housing corporation gave birth to 200 and 350 housing units respectively at Oke-Afa and Ijebu Ode (Omole, 2001). The state also participated in the federal government housing program (1976-1980), where all the twenty states of the federation were mandated to build 4000 housing unit each (Nwaka, 2005).



Source: Compiled by the Researcher 2021

The above figure shows the billions of naira invested in housing delivery in Ogun state in the last five years. With an estimate of over 500,000 housing deficits in 2020 and predominantly low and middle income earners, housing demand remains a problem in the state.

Ogun State Housing Corporation (OSHC) is the oldest state government owned public housing agency. It came into existence through the enactment of the Ogun State Edict No 11 1977 and was closely followed by the creation of Ogun State Property and Investment Corporation established by Edict No-10 of 1985; these are the major agencies in charge of housing production and delivery in Ogun State. In 2003, the Ministry of Housing was carved out of the old Ministry of Works and Housing and a year later the Gateway Saving and Loans were established.

Theoretical Framework

The Convergence Theory

This was propounded by Prof. Berkey Clark in the 1960s. The theory has its roots in fundamentalist perspective economics but has later been applied to other fields by various researchers. Convergence theory is based on the role of the state in housing sector, especially on how the socially oriented policies became necessary as societies entered into the post industrialization phase of development. When

applied to housing, the convergence theory argues that the state should work to solve housing problems, given the economic and demographic changes that might occur during the country's development; changes like industrialization and urbanization where housing was originally left to the private sector (the employers).This unregulated system left many in low quality housing and in an expensive tenure system (Dewide & De Decker, 2016).This resulted in a societal change where people desired that housing provision became a necessary part of a modern welfare state (Donnison & Ungerson, 1982; Vander Heijden, 2013 in CEB, 2017). In the post-World War II era, the role of the state heightened as societies throughout the continent coalesced to tackle collective issues. One of which was to provide adequate housing after years of which that had left the continent with severe housing shortages.

Doling (1990) criticized the convergence theory, saying that housing market and housing policies cannot be explained by reference to convergence theory. That is, they are not the direct product of the economic and demographic industrialization, but are primarily determined by ideological and institutional factor.

Methodology

The study adopted both exploratory and descriptive research design, a mixed system of data collection using both secondary and primary data. Content analysis, descriptive statistics and quantitative statistical tool were also employed as data analysis methods. In this research, four research questions were raised and four hypotheses drawn in an effort to answer these questions. The population of this study consist of the local government staff of Sagamu, Ijebu Ode, Ado Odo Ota, Abeokuta South and selected community development association. A sample of 363 copies of questionnaire administered was drawn out of a population of 3921. Using systematic sampling method 363 questionnaires was administered but 336 questionnaires was returned. Data analysis was carried out using inferential statistics.

Data Analysis

Summary of Results

HYPOTHESES	RESULTS	DECISIONS
The failure of various Nigerian housing policies to be proactive about population growthhas led to the decrease of slums and infrastructural decay among these selected local governments' in Ogun States.	$R= 0.379$, $R^2 = 0.144$, $F_{(1,335)} = 56.161$, $\beta_{FVNHP} = 0.597$ and $p < 0.05$ Null hypothesis is not accepted	The failure of various Nigerian housing policies to be proactive about population growth has led to the increase of slums and infrastructural decayamong the selected local governments inOgun States.
Governments' yearly budget on public housing delivery has drastically reduced housing shortages among the selected local governments in Ogun State.	$R^2 = 0.165$, $F_{(1,335)} = 66.085$, $\beta_{BUDGET} = 0.246$ and $p < 0.05$ Null hypothesis is not accepted	Governments' yearly budget on public housing delivery has not drastically reduced housing shortages among the selected local governments in Ogun State.
There is no relationship between housing affordability and level of income in Ogun State.	$r = 0.180$, $p < 0.05$. Null hypothesis is not accepted	There is a significantly low positive relationship between housing affordability and level of income in Ogun State.
The problem of housing deficit and government finance do not directly affect housing availability in Ogun state .	$R^2 = 0.138$, $F_{(1,335)} = 53.261$, $\beta_{PHFD} = 0.349$, and $p < 0.05$ Null hypothesis is not accepted	The problem of housing deficit and government finance directly affect housing availability in Ogun State.

Source: Researcher's Result (October 2021)

Interpretation

From the table above, hypothesis one of the study was tested to achieve the first objective, using two indicators which are failure of housing policies, multiplication of slums and infrastructural decay. It was discovered that the government has consciously neglected growth in population and this has led to multiplication of slums and infrastructural decay in the state. The table also showed that hypothesis two was tested to achieve the second objective, using the indicators of accessibility of housing schemes by low/middle income earners and availability of soft loans, the study discovered the respondent had little

or no access to these indicators. Hypothesis three was tested to achieve the third objective, using the indicators of level of income and accessibility to government housing loans. The study discovered that the level of income is a determinant in housing affordability cum majority of the respondent do not have access to any Ogun State housing loans. Finally, hypothesis four from the table was tested to achieve the fourth objective, using the indicators: reasons for the failure of housing policies, problems associated with housing deficit and government finance, the study discovered that problems such as security of land, citing of housing scheme, lack of affordability, poor habitability and inadequate planning are the major causes of the problems of housing policy failure, housing deficit and government finance in Ogun state.

Summary and Conclusion

The failure of various housing policies in Nigeria to address the victims of housing deficit has led to disconnection between the government and the governed in many Nigerian states. This is because one of the essence of governance is to enact social policies that ensure citizens reside in houses befitting of a man as enshrined in the UN-Habitat Agreement of 2006. First and mostly mentioned by the respondents is the level of insincerity on the part of the government as policy makers. Several reasons attributed to these are: Majority of the housing policies are meant for the rich because government has consciously failed to consider the ever-growing population of the lower class, lack of statistical data for low/middle income earners in order to determine the accurate number of housing deficit.

Secondly, housing shortages have continued to grow unabated because of the neglect of the growth in population during the process of housing policy formulation. This in turn has led to implementation of faulty, lopsided and unrealistic policies which engendered the multiplication of slums as well as infrastructural decay in Ogun State. This appears to be the norm because the public infrastructure that was provided for few citizens is now overstretched by a larger population resulting in infrastructural decay plus overt increase in cost of maintenance.

Thirdly, it was discovered that majority of the low/middle income earners cannot afford the few government housings schemes. For example, the new Federal Government National Housing Programme in 34 states, perfected a one-bedroom apartment to be sold for #7.2 million with a down payment of #2.16million, how little under, a low/middle income earner with #30,000 minimum wage could afford this? Finally, the study concludes and exposed the limiting factors against poor government finance leading to housing deficit, chief among which are unreliable statistical data and lack of political will.

The findings and conclusion of this study is in line with the previous studies such as Oyediran (2019), Aminu (2019), Abayomi et al. (2020), Agayi & Karakayachi (2020), Ewurun et al(2020), Odunjo (2014), Patrick (2016), Iwedi & Ouegbu (2014), Aluko (2010), Adegun et al (2009).

Recommendations

One recommendation that flows from this study is the need to revisit the subsisting housing policies of the states under study and make the same cost friendly, especially to the capacities of the low/middle income class. Also, it recommends the need for accurate statistics that captures the rate of birth in the states, number of income earners and rate of housing deficit. The government of Ogun states need to come up with a template that captures above mentioned for appropriate planning. The study recommends that the government of Ogun State should give priority to the housing sector by increasing the yearly budgetary allocation and ensure proper accountability by public officers in charge of housing delivery.

Again, the study recommends that, government should be sincere with housing schemes especially as regards affordability for the low/middle income earners. This may be achievable through the delivery of that will not require huge initial deposits or through a build and allocate arrangement that will require only a monthly payback programme.

Additionally, the study also recommends that government of Ogun State should make the mortgage market viable and conscientize the general public about their need to patronise mortgage houses. In most developed countries, a viable mortgage market is one among the major drivers of economic growth. In the words of Renaud (2008) and Dickerson (2009), they argued that a well-functioning mortgage market is considered to have a large external benefit to domiciled national economy like contribution to economic growth and improved standard of living. A viable mortgage market will also create job opportunities. Again, equally the populace should be conscientize about the benefit of patronizing mortgage banks has it far outweighs just accessing of housing loans.

Finally, the study recommends that there must be political will by the government. This is imperative because the support of the political leadership of any economy is very germane to the survival of any public policy. As such, the governments Ogun State must show the willingness to pursue their housing policies to logical conclusion especially through implementation, since, if policies are not successfully implemented the well fondness of such policy is a mere effort in vain.

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Systematic Review of Human Resource Management Demand in the Fourth Industrial Revolution Era: Implication of Upskilling, Reskilling and Deskilling

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Abstract
Human resources are essential to an organization's performance, competitiveness, and sustainability in any industrial revolution era. The Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR) integrates advanced technologies and the convergence of physical, digital, and biological systems, offering HR professionals opportunities and threats. This study examines the implication of the Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR) on upskilling, reskilling, and deskilling of Human resource management. The study adopted a systematic review of relevant literature on the various issues addressed in the research. The study critically analyzed 38 relevant research journals, articles, publications, opinions, and editorials on human resource management demand in the fourth industrial revolution era. The study revealed that 4IR technologies, such as AI and robotics, could accomplish jobs more effectively than humans, leading to deskilling. Adopting 4IR technologies will also require HR personnel to upskill in digital literacy, data analysis, programming, cyber-security, HR software analytics, emotional intelligence, and critical thinking. The study also revealed that HR personnel would need to reskill to acquire proficiency using 4IR technologies. The study concludes that adopting 4IR technologies will result in upskilling, reskilling, and deskilling of human resources. The study recommends that organizations invest in training and development programs to upskill and reskill HR personnel, regular skills assessments to identify obsolete skills, implementing training programs that meet the changing needs of the job, and developing a comprehensive workforce development strategy to consider alternative approaches to job design that prioritize the development of new skills and knowledge.

Keywords: Human Resource Management, Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR), Upskilling, Reskilling, Deskilling

Introduction

Human resources management (HRM) remains an appropriate strategic approach to managing people in organizations across the globe. This function is indispensable in managing an organization's

workforce toward achieving its stated objectives and sustainability in a dynamic competitive business environment. HRM function comprised recruitment, selection, training and development, performance management, compensation, and benefits, employee relations, and employment laws and regulations compliance. The primary goal of HRM is to attract, retain and develop a skilled and motivated workforce that can contribute to the organization's success. HRM is critical in aligning the organization's human resources with its business strategy and goals. By managing the people in the organization effectively, HRM can help improve employee morale, productivity, and job satisfaction, leading to increased profitability and organizational success ((Garengo, Sardi, & Nudurupati, 2022)).

The fourth industrial revolution, also known as 4IR or Industry 4.0, has permeated the human economy and every area of human life due to its efficiency, and dynamic nature. 4IR, which is characterized by the intersection of the digital, biological, and physical worlds and the increasing use of new technologies like artificial intelligence, cloud computing, robotics, 3D printing, the Internet of Things, and advanced wireless technologies, among others, has brought about a new era of economic implications. These technologies are required to optimize resources, a prerequisite for achieving economic, environmental, and social sustainability. The Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR) created a new wave of innovation and transformation in various fields. It built upon the previous three industrial revolutions that brought mechanization, mass production, and automation to industry.

The 4IR presents numerous opportunities for HR professionals and organizations in the automation of repetitive tasks. With the help of technologies like artificial intelligence (AI) and machine learning (ML), HR professionals can automate many repetitive tasks, such as resume screening, interview scheduling, and onboarding. The advent of 4IR also improved talent management and employee engagement, increased personalized learning and development, enhanced recruitment and retention, and improved HR analytics (Oosthuizen, 2022a; Votto, Valecha, Najafirad, & Rao, 2021). While the Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR) presents numerous opportunities for human resources (HR) professionals and organizations, it poses several threats. With the advent of technologies such as artificial intelligence (AI) and robotics, there is a risk that many jobs could be automated, resulting in job losses and a shift in the types of skills and jobs in demand, leading to deskilling (Oosthuizen, 2022b). The rapid pace of technological change also means risk, as many workers may not have the skills to keep up with new technologies and trends. This could result in widening skills and income gaps and a shortage of workers with the skills needed to fill new roles resulting in reskilling and upskilling (Zervoudi, 2020).

Chashi & Mwanza (2022) asserted in the study of the influence of the fourth industrial revolution on human resources within the Zambian banking sector, revealed that 4IR had alleviated tedious, repetitive tasks and paved the way for upskilling opportunities. In contrast, identified threats include difficulty learning a new skill, the fear of losing one's job, and reliance on technology that slows work during machine downtime. Ahn, Jang & Rhee (2022), in the study of a factor exploration and

empirical study on the influence of the fourth industrial revolution on employment, revealed that 4IR technologies such as self-driving cars, decision-making using big data, wearable internet, the Internet of Things, blockchain and 3D printing technology had significant positive effects on the employment function of HRM. Adegbite & Adeosun (2021), in a study of Fourth Industrial Revolution Skillsets and Employability Readiness for Future Job, also revealed that 4IR presents opportunities for upskilling and deskilling as the majority of employable skill sets in the 4IR are viewed as low among the sampled organization employees.

Several studies have been undertaken on the advent of the fourth industrial revolution and the role of human resources in the 4IR era. However, limited research has been carried out on the implications of 4IR on Human resource management personnel saddled with the responsibility of managing an organization's human resources. Consequently, this spurs the need to explore the implication of 4IR on human resource management personnel. This study examines the implication of the Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR) on Human resource management personnel. Specific objectives include:

1. Assess the implication of the Fourth Industrial Revolution on deskilling of Human Resources Management.
2. Examine the implication of the Fourth Industrial Revolution on upskilling of Human Resources Management.
3. Examine the implication of the Fourth Industrial Revolution on reskilling of Human Resources Management.

Literature Review

Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR)

The Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR) is a term used to describe the current era of technological innovation, characterized by the fusion of technologies that blur the lines between the physical, digital, and biological worlds (David, Nwulu, Aigbavboa, & Adepoju, 2022). The fourth industrial revolution, or 4IR, was first described by Klaus Schwab, regarded as the father of the 4IR, as an extension of the third industrial revolution and a distinct revolution that the world has never seen (Singaram & Mayer, 2022). The development of the steam engine in 1760 marked the beginning of the first industrial revolution. The steam engine made it possible to move from farming and a feudal civilization to a modern manufacturing system (Xu, David & Kim, 2018). In this phase, railways served as the primary mode of transportation, and coal was the primary energy source.

The internal combustion engine's development in 1900 marked the start of the second industrial revolution. This sparked a period of rapid industrialization that relied on electricity and oil to drive mass production (Mohajan, 2020). The third industrial revolution began in 1960 and was marked by adoption

of electronics and information technologies to automate production. The traditional manufacturing methods entailed joining numerous parts using screws or welding (Oztemel & Gursev, 2020). The fourth industrial revolution includes computer-generated product design and three-dimensional (3D) printing, which can produce solid objects by stacking up successive layers of materials (Dogaru, 2020; Kantaros et al., 2022).

The Fourth Industrial Revolution is characterized by technological advancements' speed and scale, impacting traditional business models, processes, and social structures (Dogaru, 2020; Moll, 2021). Some critical features of 4IR include the rise of smart factories, autonomous vehicles, personalized medicine, and big data analytics to make data-driven decisions (Fanoro, Božani'cbožani, & Sinha, 2021). The Fourth Industrial Revolution has the potential to create significant benefits, such as increased efficiency, productivity, and innovation (Ross & Maynard, 2021), but it also presents new challenges and risks, including job displacement, privacy concerns, and security threats (Abdelmajied, 2022; Ajayi, Bagula & Maluleke, 2022). As such, policymakers, businesses, and individuals must understand and navigate the impacts and opportunities of 4IR to ensure a sustainable and equitable future.

Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR) Technologies

The Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR) refers to the ongoing transformation of the traditional manufacturing and industrial sector through the integration of advanced technologies such as artificial intelligence, robotics, the Internet of Things (IoT), blockchain, and virtual and augmented reality (Fanoro et al., 2021; Raja Santhi & Muthuswamy, 2023). Alsulaimani & Islam (2022) stated that these technologies are used to create smart factories, intelligent supply chains, and innovative products and services that are changing how we live and work. Anderson & Rainie(2018) and Xu et al. (2021) asserted that artificial intelligence (AI) and machine learning are the potential of computers and technological applications to accomplish complex human-like tasks with more intelligence and capacity. It is a technical application having human-like features that enable machines to learn from data, recognizes patterns, and make decisions (Hee Lee & Yoon, 2021; Xu et al., 2021), while robotics and automation is an interdisciplinary field that combines electro-mechatronics, computer science, and information engineering to generate and manage sensory input and information for supporting tasks and activities that take the place of human operations (Kondo, 2012; Macario-Rojas, Parslew, Weightman, & Smith., 2022). Robotic technology assists and replaces humans in production activities because of their high intelligence and practical completion of specified duties. It is also used in manufacturing, healthcare, and other sectors to perform repetitive or dangerous tasks (Coombs, Hislop, Taneva & Barnard, 2020; Javaid, Haleem, Singh, & Suman, 2021).

The fourth industrial revolution also centres on the Internet of Things (IoT), a network of physical items with integrated technology to interact, communicate and perceive their internal states

and external environment. The internet connects at least 25.6 billion objects, improving the quality of life and productivity of society, people, and businesses/industries. IoT underpins smart life, cities, energy, transport, industry, health, buildings, and housing (Adebayo, Numbu, & Chaubey, 2019; Javaid et al., 2022). Furthermore, Virtual reality is a computer-generated simulation or artificial replication of a real-life environment or situation that aims to immerse the user by giving him the idea that he is experiencing the simulated reality, primarily through stimulation of his vision and ears. By superimposing computer-generated virtual content on actual structures, augmented reality (AR) is a type of technology that enhances the sensory perception of reality. These technologies create immersive experiences for users, allowing them to interact with digital environments in new ways (Cipresso, Giglioli, Raya & Riva, 2018; Xiong, Hsiang, He, Zhan, & Wu, 2021).

Human Resource Management Practices in the Fourth Industrial Revolution Era

Human Resource Planning

A significant expectation of HRM is ensuring the availability of an adequate number of personnel with the required skills. This function is known as Human resource planning. This is a process of forecasting an organization's future staffing needs and developing strategies and plans to meet those needs. It involves identifying the organization's current and future workforce requirements, analyzing labour supply and demand, and developing strategies to recruit, train, and retain employees (Samwel, 2018; Sujay & Khadilkar, 2019). George (2019) affirmed that human resource planning aims to ensure that the organization has the right people with the right skills in the right jobs and at the right time. This helps organizations to effectively achieve their goals and objectives, improve productivity and performance, and reduce the cost of employee turnover.

Before the Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR), human resources planning (HRP) primarily involved traditional methods and tools, which were mainly paper-based and relied on manual processes (Dhanpat, Buthelezi, Joe, Maphela, & Shongwe 2020; Narasimhan, 2021a). Standard HRP practices used paper files, forms and registers, and postal mail. These traditional HR tools were inefficient and time-consuming, and they required a significant amount of manual effort. However, with 4IR technologies such as automation, AI, and machine learning, HRP has become more advanced and automated, streamlining processes and improving efficiency (Rafique, Asim, & Manzoor 2021; Sima, Gheorghe, Subić, & Nancu, 2020).

Artificial intelligence (AI) and automation have revolutionized human resource (HR) planning. Through predictive analytics, AI algorithms analyze large volumes of data to predict future workforce needs based on past trends, turnover rates, and business projections (Broby, 2022). Machine learning algorithms can also analyze historical data on employee turnover rates, retirement rates, and other factors to predict future workforce needs (Fallucchi et al., 2020). Pourkhodabakhsh, Mamoudan, &

Bozorgi-Amiri (2022) asserted that this could help HR departments plan for future staffing needs and identify areas where skills gaps may exist. AI can also help optimize workforce scheduling to ensure the right people are in the right place at the right time. This allows organizations to maximize their efficiency and reduce costs associated with overstaffing or understaffing.

Additionally, Machine learning algorithms can analyze employee feedback data from surveys, social media, and other sources to identify trends in employee sentiment (Pourkhodabakhsh et al., 2022). This can help HR managers identify areas to improve employee satisfaction and engagement (Yang & Islam, 2020). 4IR technologies such as automation and artificial intelligence (AI) can help streamline HR processes and reduce manual labour, freeing HR professionals to focus on more strategic tasks leading to increased efficiency. Data analytics tools can also provide HR professionals with real-time insights to make more informed and data-driven decisions (Luo et al., 2023; Majam & Jarbandhan, 2022).

Recruitment and Selection

Acquiring the right employee for an organization lies in the strategic function of HRM, which is called the recruitment and selection process. Recruitment refers to identifying and attracting potential candidates for a job opening. This process typically involves advertising job vacancies on various platforms such as job boards, social media, and company websites and sourcing candidates through employee referrals and recruitment agencies (Kapur, 2018). Recruitment aims to generate a pool of qualified candidates who can be screened and selected for further consideration. Conversely, selection refers to evaluating and choosing the most suitable candidate from the collection of applicants generated during the recruitment process(Daniel, Abba-Sanda, & Salau-Midala, 2014). The selection process typically involves the initial screening of resumes and applications, interviews, skills assessment tests, background checks, and reference checks. The objective of the selection process is to choose the candidate with the necessary skills, qualifications, experience, and personality traits required for the job and who will fit well with the company's culture and values (Ekwoaba, Ikeije, & Ufoma, 2015).

Before the Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR), recruitment and selection were mainly conducted through traditional newspaper ads, journals, magazines, word-of-mouth referrals, and recruitment agencies. Job advertisements are contained in these publications, and interested candidates respond by submitting their resumes and cover letters by post or in person (Narasimhan, 2021b). Companies also relied on referrals from current employees, clients, and business associates. Recruitment agencies were also used, where companies would outsource finding candidates to specialized recruitment firms. These firms would typically pre-screen candidates, interview them, and present them to the company for final selection. The selection was usually made through in-person interviews, and candidates would be assessed based on their qualifications, experience, and personality

fit with the company culture. Tests such as aptitude tests, personality tests, and assessments were also conducted to assess a candidate's suitability for the role (Al-Kassem, 2017; Bhaker, 2020).

The 4IR has revolutionized the recruitment and selection process due to introducing emerging technologies. These technologies use artificial intelligence (AI) and automation to streamline and enhance recruitment and selection processes. AI-based software can screen and analyze resumes and identify the most qualified candidates based on their skills, education, and experience (Narasimhan, 2021b; Nidhi Oswal, Khaleeli, & Alarmoti 2020). This technology saves time and resources by eliminating the need for manual screening of resumes. Chatbots and virtual assistants can provide candidates with information about job openings, application status, and other relevant information. These technologies can also answer frequently asked questions, freeing HR professionals to focus on more complex tasks (Caldarini, Jaf, & McGarry 2022; Nawaz & Gomes, 2020).

Additionally, AI-powered video interviewing software allows recruiters to conduct interviews remotely, saving time and resources while still allowing them to evaluate candidates effectively. This software can identify traits like confidence and communication skills and analyze facial expressions, tone of voice, and other non-verbal cues to determine the best candidates (Joshi, Bloom, Spencer, Gaetke-Udager, & Cohan 2020). Employers can connect with potential candidates from anywhere via video conferencing and other digital tools. VR and AR technologies are also used in recruitment to give candidates a more immersive experience of the company culture and work environment. VR and AR can also simulate job-related scenarios and test candidates' problem-solving skills (Zhang & Wang, 2021). Predictive analytics can forecast hiring needs, optimize recruitment strategies, and identify potential attrition risks. 4IR technologies offer significant benefits for recruitment and selection, improving efficiency, objectivity, candidate experience, quality of hires, and cost savings (Ejo-Orusa & Okwakpam, 2018; Kashive & Khanna, 2022).

Performance Appraisal

Organizational success relies on employee performance, which demands human resource management designing appraisal methods to achieve these objectives. The performance appraisal process involves setting performance expectations, providing employee feedback, assessing their progress, and making decisions about employee development, compensation, and promotions (van Dijk & Schodl, 2015). Performance appraisals are conducted annually, semi-annually, or more frequently (Iqbal , Akbar, Budhwar, & Shah., 2019; van Woerkom & Kroon, 2020).

Before the Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR), performance appraisals were typically done through a formal process where managers or supervisors would evaluate an employee's performance based on predefined criteria (Kromrei, 2015). The process was usually conducted through a face-to-face meeting between the employee and their manager or supervisor. During the meeting, the employee's performance would be assessed based on various criteria, such as productivity, quality of work,

communication skills, teamwork, and adherence to company policies and procedures (Rotatori, Lee & Sleeva 2021). A lack of transparency and objectivity in the appraisal process and potential biases from the manager or supervisor characterized the traditional performance appraisal method. Additionally, performance appraisals were often conducted annually, which could delay addressing performance issues or providing timely employee feedback(Al-Baidhani & Alsaqqaf, 2022).

Employee performance appraisal using Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR) technologies in human resources management is a relatively new concept gaining popularity due to its ability to provide more objective and accurate employee performance assessments (Budhwar, Malik, De-Silva & Thevisuthan, 2022). HR professionals can use AI-powered assessment tools such as machine learning algorithms, chatbots, and natural language processing to automate evaluating employee performance. These tools can analyze employee data such as productivity, attendance, and communication patterns to objectively and accurately assess employee performance (Gunathunge & Lakmal, 2021). Wearable technology such as smartwatches and fitness trackers can be used to monitor an employee's performance in real time, providing feedback on their physical activity, stress levels, and other metrics that can impact their job performance. This can help identify areas where the employee may need support, such as stress management or physical wellness (Oosthuizen, 2022b).

Additionally, gamification involves using game mechanics such as points, badges, and leaderboards to motivate employees and encourage them to perform better. This approach can be used in performance appraisal to create a more engaging and interactive process that encourages employees to strive for excellence (Dichev & Dicheva, 2017a; Howard & Bevins, 2018). HR professionals can also use data analytics tools to analyze large amounts of employee data and identify patterns and trends that can help identify areas of strengths and weaknesses. This data can be used to provide more objective and accurate assessments of employee performance. Using 4IR technologies in performance appraisal can give real-time feedback, more objective evaluations and increased accuracy. 4IR technologies help HR professionals achieve increased efficiency, improved employee engagement, and better alignment with organizational goals (Abdelmajied, 2022; Fanoro et al., 2021).

Learning and Development

The highly dynamic, ever-changing, and competitive business environment relies greatly on human resource management to constantly develop training and developmental programs. It involves providing employees with training, coaching, mentoring, and other learning opportunities to develop their competencies and prepare them for new organizational roles or responsibilities(Alharthy & Marni, 2020). The primary goal of learning and development is to support the organization's strategic objectives by ensuring that employees have the necessary KSAs to perform their jobs effectively and efficiently. It also helps to improve employee engagement, retention, and job satisfaction and enhances the organization's overall performance and competitiveness(Salas, Tannenbaum, Kraiger & Smith-

Jentsch, 2012). Before the Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR), learning and development in human resources management were primarily done through traditional methods such as classroom-style training, on-the-job training, coaching, and mentoring (Reaves, 2019).

Classroom-style training was a standard method where employees would attend training sessions in a physical classroom environment. The training would be delivered by a trainer or instructor covering a specific topic or skill set related to the employees' job roles. This method was helpful in simultaneously developing a large group of employees(Darling-Hammond, Flook, Cook-Harvey, Barron & Osher, 2019). On-the-job training was another traditional method where employees would learn and develop new skills by observing and working alongside experienced colleagues. This method was effective for jobs that required hands-on experience and specific technical skills, such as manufacturing or construction (Basariya. s. Rabiyathul & Sree, 2019). Coaching and mentoring were also commonly used traditional methods for learning and development. Employees would work with a coach or mentor who would provide guidance and feedback on their performance and help them develop new skills and knowledge related to their job roles (Al Hilali, Mughairi, Kian & Karim 2020; Gamage, Perera & Wijewardena, 2021). Traditional learning and development methods were effective in their time, but they had limitations regarding scalability, accessibility, and cost-effectiveness (Darling-Hammond et al., 2019; Hennessy et al., 2022).

With the emergence of digital technologies and the Fourth Industrial Revolution, new and innovative approaches to learning and development have become available, such as e-learning, gamification, virtual reality, and artificial intelligence. These technologies are being used to create innovative learning solutions that are more efficient, effective, and engaging than traditional methods (Arek-Bawa & Reddy, 2022; Lase, 2019). Virtual and augmented reality technologies have created immersive learning experiences that simulate real-world scenarios. This allows employees to practice skills and techniques in a safe, controlled environment without risk to themselves or others (Kuhail et al., 2022; Meccawy, 2022). AI-powered learning solutions are also used to personalize employee learning experiences based on their learning styles, preferences, and performance. AI can also analyze data to identify skill gaps and recommend learning paths tailored to each employee's needs (Chaudhry & Kazim, 2021). Gamification is being used to make learning more engaging and fun. Adding game elements like points, badges, and leaderboards to learning activities motivates employees to participate and compete with each other, leading to increased learning retention and engagement (Dichev & Dicheva, 2017b; Saleem, Noori & Ozdamli, 2022).

With the rise of mobile technology, organizations use mobile learning solutions to deliver training and development content to employees anytime, anywhere. This allows employees to learn at their own pace and schedule, increasing engagement and retention (Alajmi, Khambari, Luan & Rahim 2020). Additionally, 4IR technologies enable personalized learning that caters to the employee's unique learning style and pace. This ensures that the employee grasps the concepts better and retains the

knowledge for longer. With 4IR technologies, employees can collaborate with their peers, mentors, and experts from across the globe, breaking down geographical barriers. 4IR technologies also enable the creation of reusable digital content, reducing the cost of creating and distributing learning materials. They also provide real-time feedback to employees, helping them to identify their strengths and weaknesses and tailor their learning accordingly. 4IR technologies enable employees to continuously learn through microlearning, gamification, and mobile learning, ensuring that they stay up-to-date with the latest developments in their field (Hameed & Hashim, 2022; Oke & Fernandes, 2020).

Employee Relations

Employee Relations in human resources management refers to how an organization manages the relationships between its employees and the organization itself. It involves creating and maintaining a positive and productive work environment, fostering communication and collaboration between employees and management, and ensuring that the rights and well-being of employees are respected and protected (Oke & Fernandes, 2020). Effective employee relations involve addressing and resolving workplace issues such as conflicts, grievances, and disciplinary actions fairly and equitably. It also encompasses providing employees with opportunities for training and development, feedback and recognition, and work-life balance, all of which contribute to a positive employee experience and increased job satisfaction (Taslim Ahammad, 2017).

Before the Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR), traditional human resource management methods were used to manage employee relations. These conventional methods were paper-based and manual, relying heavily on face-to-face communication and interpersonal skills. They were also often time-consuming and labour-intensive and required significant administrative and record-keeping efforts (Bayraktar & Atac, 2018; Mayer, Wegerle & Oosthuizen, 2021). Organizations created employee handbooks and policies to provide guidelines and expectations for employee behaviour, work schedules, benefits, and other related matters. These documents were often distributed to employees through print copies or in-person orientations. Management and union leaders negotiated collective bargaining agreements in unionized workplaces to establish working conditions, wages, and employee benefits. These agreements were typically negotiated through face-to-face meetings between management and union representatives. Organizations had formal grievance procedures to address employee complaints and disputes. These procedures involved written documentation, investigation, and resolution by management and human resources staff (Obiekwe & Eke, 2019).

In the 4th Industrial Revolution (4IR), modern technologies transformed how employee relations are managed in human resources management. Many organizations now use digital employee handbooks and Employee Self-Service (ESS) Platforms where employees can manage their HR-related tasks, such as requesting time off, updating personal information, and accessing training and development resources, that are accessible through the company's intranet or a mobile app without

having to go through a human resources representative (Quaosar & Rahman, 2021). Employee engagement platforms use data analytics and AI to track employee sentiment and engagement. This data is used to identify improvement areas, design targeted engagement strategies, and allow employees to access the information they need and receive real-time updates effortlessly (Halid, Yusoff & Somu, 2020). AI-powered Chatbots are also used to answer frequently asked questions and provide immediate assistance to employees. They have been integrated into messaging platforms and the company's website to provide 24/7 support to employees (Okonkwo & Ade-Ibijola, 2021; Ruan & Mezei, 2022). Cloud-based HR management systems also allow centralized employee data management, providing HR staff easy access to employee records, payroll, benefits, and attendance (Silva & Lima, 2017). Social media and collaboration tools such as Slack, Microsoft Teams, and Zoom are also used to facilitate communication and collaboration between employees and management. These tools enable remote work and offer new opportunities for global partnership (Wong, Ho, Olusanya, Antonini & Lyness, 2020).

Upskilling, Reskilling and Deskilling

Upskilling is a skill development concept that has become required in the advent /era of the introduction of technology. New roles are introduced to employees from time to time, requiring upskilling. It refers to enhancing an employee's existing skills and knowledge to improve their performance in their current job or prepare them for future job opportunities. It can involve acquiring new technical skills, developing soft skills, or gaining knowledge of new processes or tools (Chaaya, Abou Hamad & Beyrouthy 2019). Causes of upskilling can include technological advancements, changes like work, and the need to remain competitive in the job market. For example, as automation and artificial intelligence become more prevalent, workers must develop new skills to stay relevant (Chaaya et al., 2019). The consequences of upskilling can be both positive and negative. On the positive side, upskilling can increase productivity, job satisfaction, and wages. It can also lead to a more diverse and resilient workforce. On the negative side, upskilling can be costly and time-consuming, and not all workers may have equal access to upskilling opportunities, which can exacerbate existing inequalities in the workforce. Additionally, some workers may feel overwhelmed or stressed by the pressure to constantly learn and adapt to new skills and technologies (Chakrabarti, 2022; Jaiswal, Arun & Varma, 2021; Li, 2022).

On the other hand, reskilling is acquiring new skills or upgrading existing ones to perform a new job or adapt to changes in technology or business processes. In human resources management, reskilling is strategy organizations use to develop and retain employees by helping them acquire the necessary skills and competencies to meet the changing demands of their jobs or the labour market (Penesis et al., 2017; Sawant, Thomas & Kadlag 2022). Reskilling involves developing an employee's skills in a new area to perform a different job or adapt to changes in the labour market. The causes of

reskilling are numerous and include changes in technology, changes in the organization's strategic goals or priorities, the emergence of new job roles or industries, and the need to adapt to new regulations or industry standards. For example, automating specific job functions may require employees to acquire new technical skills to work alongside machines.

In contrast, changes in business models may require employees to learn new soft skills, such as collaboration and agility (Gowrie Vinayan et al., 2020). The consequences of reskilling are generally positive for both employees and organizations. Employees who acquire new skills may experience increased job satisfaction, career advancement opportunities, and higher salaries. Organizations that invest in reskilling their workforce can benefit from increased productivity, improved employee engagement and retention, and a more agile and adaptable workforce that can quickly respond to changes in the market or the competitive landscape (Jaiswal et al., 2021; Yaseen et al., 2022).

Deskilling reduces the knowledge, skills, and abilities required for a particular job or task. In human resources management, deskilling can occur when an organization replaces skilled workers with less skilled workers or when technology replaces workers altogether (Kunst, 2020). Causes of deskilling can include automation, outsourcing, offshoring, and cost-cutting measures. Automation, for example, can replace skilled workers with machines that require less training and can perform tasks faster and more consistently. Outsourcing and offshoring can lead to losing professional jobs in a particular region or country as organizations seek to take advantage of lower labour costs elsewhere. Cost-cutting measures can also lead to deskilling, as organizations reduce the training and support they provide workers (Previtali & Fagiani, 2015; Sambasivan & Veeraraghavan, 2022). On the positive side, deskilling can reduce organizational labour costs, increase efficiency, and improve product quality. However, the negative consequences of deskilling are more profound. Deskilling can lead to increased job insecurity, reduced job satisfaction, and lower worker wages (Jang et al., 2021; Martinaitis et al., 2020). Deskilling can also contribute to a decline in overall skill levels in the workforce, negatively affecting innovation and productivity. Overall, deskilling is a significant concern for human resources management, as it can have important implications for workers, organizations, and society as a whole.

Methodology

This study utilized a systematic literature review methodology through collecting and analyzing empirical literature and non-numerical data to contextualize opinions, understand an experience, and juxtapose concepts, which helps a researcher gather in-depth insights into a problem to generate new ideas (Tawfik et al., 2019). The systematic literature review is a methodical and comprehensive approach to identifying, evaluating, and synthesizing all available research evidence on the research topic (Snyder, 2019). The strength of the systematic review lies in its rigorous methodology, which minimizes the risk of bias and ensures that all relevant evidence is considered The authors searched peer-reviewed journal articles on HRM demand in the Fourth Industrial Revolution era, upskilling,

reskilling, and deskilling implications, and human resource studies conducted between 2015 and 2023. This period of time enables an analysis of HRM demand during the 4IR's early phases and offers insight into the evolving landscape up until the present time. We searched PubMed, PsycINFO, Business Source Complete, Web of Science, Scopus, IEEE Xplore and Google Scholar databases. We searched for peer-reviewed articles and conference proceedings containing the following keywords in the title or abstract: "human resource management" (HRM demand OR HR demand) AND ("Fourth Industrial Revolution" OR "Industry 4.0") AND (upskilling OR reskilling OR deskilling). Articles from well-established HRM, organizational behaviour, or management journals, such as the Journal of Applied Psychology, Human Resource Management, Personnel Psychology, and Journal of Organizational Behavior, were selected. Conference proceedings from the Chartered Institute of Personnel Management of Nigeria (CIPM) were also explored. An initial broad search to capture a wide range of articles on human resources management and the fourth industrial revolution produced 154 pieces. Thus, we excluded all duplicate articles and non-peer-reviewed publications, articles that do not directly address HRM demand or the implications of upskilling, reskilling, and deskilling and studies conducted in industries or sectors unrelated to human resources. Additionally, the following keywords were used to select the articles which will be included in this study: Human resource management, Fourth Industrial Revolution, Industry 4.0, Digital transformation, Automation, Artificial intelligence, Robotics, Big data, Internet of Things (IoT), Machine learning, Upskilling, Reskilling, Deskilling, Skills gap, Job displacement, Workforce adaptation, Technological advancements. 38 articles were successful for the final screening. All selected articles specifically addressed the topic of human resource management demand in the Fourth Industrial Revolution Era, emphasizing the implications of upskilling, reskilling, and deskilling, which provided valuable insights and findings directly related to the study's objective.

Additionally, the articles used were recently published in reputable and peer-reviewed journals to enhance the trustworthiness and reliability of the information presented in the papers. Data were extracted from the articles that met the inclusion criteria to identify seven (7) sub-themes: Industry 4.0, upskilling, reskilling, deskilling, human resource development, workforce transformation, technology impact and organizational change. These sub-themes were synthesized to address the study objectives.

Discussion of Findings

The Implication of the Fourth Industrial Revolution on Deskilling of Human Resources Management

Deskilling refers to the process by which tasks or jobs that once required a high skill level are simplified and standardized, often through technology or automation, reducing the skill level needed to perform those tasks or jobs. While the 4IR promises to create new job opportunities and enhance productivity, it

also has implications for the skill requirements of the workforce. One of the potential implications of the 4IR is the deskilling of human resources. This happens when machines take over routine and repetitive tasks that human workers previously performed, making their skills and experience obsolete. This is affirmed by (Kunst, 2020; Previtali & Fagiani, 2015; Sambasivan & Veeraraghavan, 2022). The 4IR can accelerate the deskilling process by automating a wide range of tasks that skilled workers previously performed. For example, machine learning algorithms can now analyze data and make predictions more accurately and faster than human analysts, leading to the replacement of some analytical and decision-making tasks.

Similarly, one of the main features of the 4IR is the increased use of automation, which involves using robots and other machines to perform tasks that humans previously did. Robots can now perform physical tasks such as pre-screening, bookkeeping and data entry, onboarding administration, payroll, timekeeping, and benefits administration with greater precision and efficiency than human workers, replacing some manual and technical tasks. This can lead to the deskilling of workers, as they are no longer required to perform specific tasks that machines can do more efficiently and accurately. This is supported by (Loumpourdi, 2021; Sambasivan & Veeraraghavan, 2022; Whitehead et al., 2021), that opined that with the increased use of artificial intelligence, robotics and machine learning, many tasks that humans previously did are being automated. AI-powered chatbots can now handle customer service inquiries, reducing the need for human customer service representatives.

The implications of deskilling on human resources are significant. As tasks are automated, and workers are deskilled, many jobs become redundant leading to job losses. As technology also advances, the skills required for specific jobs will change. Workers who have been deskilled may find it difficult to re-enter the workforce or may need to retrain to acquire new skills. Deskilling can reduce wages as the value of specific skills decreases, significantly impacting workers. The deskilling of workers can also lead to increased inequality, as those who cannot adapt to the changing nature of work may be left behind. The 4IR creates a need for lifelong learning, as workers must continually update their skills to remain relevant. This can be challenging for workers who may not have access to training or education. Human resource professionals need to address the implications of deskilling and develop strategies to support workers in acquiring the skills they need to succeed in the changing world of work (Chigbu & Nekhwevha, 2020; Kunst, 2020).

The Implication of the Fourth Industrial Revolution on Upskilling of Human Resource Management

Upskilling aims to improve employability, productivity, and competitiveness in the job market. With the introduction of new technologies, the nature of work is changing rapidly, and as a result, new skills and competencies are required. This means that companies need to invest in upskilling their employees to meet the unique demands of the workplace. Some skills that are becoming increasingly important

include digital literacy, data analysis, programming, Cybersecurity, HR software analytics, emotional intelligence and critical thinking (Chakrabarti, 2022; Li, 2022). As automation takes over routine tasks, soft skills such as creativity, problem-solving, and communication become increasingly important. These skills are difficult to automate and are essential for building strong relationships with customers and colleagues. Therefore, human resources professionals must focus on upskilling their employees. This is affirmed by (Taiwo S O & -Magigaba, 2021; Whitehead et al., 2021). The pace of change in the 4IR is unprecedented, so upskilling is no longer a one-time event. Instead, it is a continuous process that requires lifelong learning. Human resources professionals must create a learning culture and provide employees with the resources to keep up with the latest trends and technologies.

Additionally, the 4IR is creating a highly competitive environment and human resources professionals that fail to upskill their employees risk falling behind. Upskilling provides a competitive advantage by enabling companies to be more innovative, efficient, and customer-focused. The 4IR is highly complex, and no single person or department can be an expert in all the emerging technologies. Therefore, collaboration is essential. Human resources professionals must create a culture of cooperation and allow employees to work together and learn from each other. This finding is supported by (Pató et al., 2022; Puhovichova & Jankelova, 2022).

The Implication of the Fourth Industrial Revolution on Reskilling of Human Resources Management

Reskilling is often used to address skills gaps, increase workforce productivity, and enhance employability in a rapidly evolving job market. Human resources management personnel need to reskill to develop a deep understanding of learning and development principles, familiar with the latest technologies, project management skills, communication and analytical skills.

The Fourth Industrial Revolution is driven by automation and artificial intelligence, which have the potential to replace human jobs. However, there will still be a need for human intervention to ensure that the technologies are functioning correctly. Therefore, human resources professionals must reskill their employees to operate and maintain the devices effectively. Also, employees who the automation will displace can be reskilled to operate and maintain the machines. Human resources professionals must develop reskilling programs to ensure employees have the necessary skills to operate and maintain the appliances.

Additionally, the Fourth Industrial Revolution has led to the digitization of many processes, which has increased the risk of cyber-attacks. Human resources professionals must reskill their employees to ensure they are aware of cyber-attack risks and are equipped to prevent them. Also, human resources professionals must have a cyber-security plan to ensure their data is secure. The Fourth Industrial Revolution has also led to increased data collection and analytics, and human resources professionals will need to reskill their employees to ensure that they are proficient in data analysis. With

the increasing use of technology, soft skills such as communication, collaboration, and problem-solving have become more critical. Human resources professionals must reskill their employees to ensure they have the necessary soft skills to work effectively with others.

The Fourth Industrial Revolution has led to a rapid pace of technological change, which means that employees will need to continue learning throughout their careers to stay relevant. Companies will need to develop reskilling programs to ensure that their employees are equipped with the necessary skills to keep up with the pace of change. The Fourth Industrial Revolution has significant implications for human resources management and necessitates reskilling human resources. The reskilling of human resources will be critical to the success of companies in the Fourth Industrial Revolution.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The Fourth Industrial Revolution era significantly transformed human resources management practices. One of the most significant changes is the need for the workforce to upskill, reskill and deskilling of human resource responsibility. With the rise of new technologies and automation, there is an increased demand for human resource personnel with advanced programming, data analytics, and artificial intelligence skills. Organizations and human resource management need to create opportunities for upskilling and reskilling the workforce to keep up with the changing job requirements. The Fourth Industrial Revolution has also resulted in the displacement of specific jobs due to automation. HRM must be able to identify the skills that are becoming obsolete and reskill employees to meet the needs of the changing job market. Some tasks humans previously performed are automated, reducing the skill level required for certain jobs. HRM must ensure that employees affected by deskilling are provided with training and opportunities for upskilling to acquire new skills to remain employable.

The finding of this study resonates with the the Skill-Biased Technological Change (SBTC) theory which suggests that technological advancements and the introduction of new technologies can have differential effects on the demand for different types of skills in the workforce. The SBTC theory argues that technological change tends to favor workers with higher levels of skills while potentially reducing demand for workers with lower levels of skills or specific set of skills. It suggests that organizations need to adapt their HR strategies and invest in developing the skills that are in high demand in the evolving technological landscape.

This review revealed new or emerging skill demands that driven by technological advancements and automation. It also identified specific skills that are increasingly in demand, such as data analysis, artificial intelligence, robotics, and cybersecurity. These insights can inform HRM practices to ensure the workforce possesses the necessary skills.

Based on the findings, the following recommendations are presented:

(1) In the deskilling implication on human resource management, management should consider alternative approaches to job design that prioritize the development of new skills and knowledge and provide continuous learning and development opportunities to ensure employees are equipped with the skills required to adapt to changing job requirements.

(2) In upskilling implications on human resource management, organizations should invest in training and development programs to upskill employees in new technologies and advanced skills.

(3) In the reskilling implication of Human resource management, regular skill gap assessments should be conducted by human resource experts to identify the skills that are becoming obsolete and reskill employees accordingly.

Suggestions for Further Research

Human resource management demand in the fourth industrial revolution era and its implication on Upskilling, Reskilling and Deskilling is a novel field that has not been fully explored. Hence there is a need for further research to investigate emerging skill requirements, such as digital literacy, critical thinking, and adaptability, and identify strategies for preparing the workforce to meet these demands.

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Entrepreneurial Training and Business Sustainability of Beneficiaries of FIIRO Technologies

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Abstract

Entrepreneurs play significant roles in the growth and development of world economies, particularly since the 19th century. They spur industry transformations, create entirely new markets, advance wealth generation, create social change and help in community development. All these aims to give better life and end poverty in all its forms and everywhere. Entrepreneurship training is a structured program that aims to equip participants with the necessary skillset and mindset for identifying and launching new business ventures. The objective of this study is to investigate entrepreneurial training as a determinant of business sustainability in Nigeria. For this purpose, 100 beneficiaries of FIIRO technologies are selected for this study bearing the following criteria in mind: must have been trained at FIIRO between 2002 and 2020; must have established an enterprise based on technology(ies) acquired at FIIRO; must have been in business for at least two years with a product in the market and must have made the list of 100 FIIRO Successful entrepreneurs. The study adopts cross sectional research design approach and purposive and convenience sampling techniques. The instrument for primary data collection is 6-point Likert Scale questionnaire. The questionnaires are self administered to the trainees. Financial measures namely profitability, sales growth and number of employees are used to measure business sustainability while entrepreneurial training factors are measured by training content, training budget, trainer's competency, entry behaviour of trainees and trainee's exit behaviour. The data collected are analysed using Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS) to examine the possible effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable. The findings reveal that entrepreneurial training factors have significant and positive effect on business sustainability ($r = 0.522$, $R = 0.581$, $R^2 = 0.340$ $p<0.05$ and $F = 199.751$ at $p = 0.0000$). Therefore, it is recommended that entrepreneurs should embrace training as a matter of policy. Decision makers and management consultants should consider entrepreneurial training as pivotal to enterprise growth and development to enhance business sustainability in Nigeria.

Keywords: Entrepreneurial training, Business sustainability, Trainees, Techno-entrepreneurship development training programme.

Introduction

Studies on business sustainability is critical to business or enterprise success most especially with increasing rate of business failure occasioned by Covid-19 pandemic of which many micro, small and medium enterprises are just recovering. Micro, small and medium enterprises have been recognized as engine of economic growth in developing and developed economies. They are associated with socio-economic development creating wealth and providing jobs in overblown labour markets. A large chunk of the population in Nigeria depends on the goods and services rendered by the micro, small and medium enterprises either in the food processing sector, pharmaceutical sector, agro-processing sector, garments and apparel sector, education sector and so on. As a result, MSMEs have been a source of livelihood to many in Nigeria. As such, sustainability of MSMEs is imperative and must be accorded a topmost priority.

A sustainable business could be described as a business that can sustain itself in terms of liquidity and keeps growing with optimum profits rather than maximum year in year out with a succession plan transiting from one handler to another in a sustainable manner while maintaining balance in entrepreneurial environment or ecosystem. Entrepreneurial environment in terms of dynamism, munificence and complexity could impact on the total socioeconomic values that MSMEs could create which in turn could affect their overall success and sustainability. For MSMEs, it may be difficult to talk about enterprise sustainability if an enterprise is not profitable nor have enough sales to sustain growth. An enterprise without satisfied customers nor have competitive advantage cannot equally not be sustainable.

Many factors could be responsible for business sustainability. These could include some factors like the competency of the entrepreneur, social capital of the entrepreneur, orientation of the entrepreneur, entrepreneurial self efficacy and the type of trainings received by the entrepreneur. There is no doubt that entrepreneurial training is one of the major factors that could enhance business sustainability. However, the quality of the training is very important to achieve business sustainability. Training duration, training program objectives, training contents, competency of trainers, training budget, and mode of training delivery are critical components that could be used to measure the impact of training on business sustainability. It is also important that training contents be well structured as holistic total package incorporating both the management and technical modules to ensure attainment of training goal of ensuring business sustainability. The most common contents of the management module in entrepreneurial training for MSMEs include financial management and marketing management but others that are not so common include time management, information management, leadership and planning skills as well as communication management. For MSMEs in manufacturing concerns, technical modules such as value engineering, quality control and assurance, process reengineering, and so on are very important.

It is pertinent to note that many universities in Nigeria are setting up business schools to enhance entrepreneurial training with a view to enhancing business sustainability in Nigeria. Some of these universities include: UNN Business School, Lagos Business School (Pan African University), University of Lagos Business School, University of Ibadan Business School, Unizik Business School, Unilorin Business School, Esut Business School, ABU Business School, Uniport Business School etc. Other private business schools operating in Nigeria include: Rome Business School, International School of Management, Kaduna Business School, Jos Business School, West Africa Business Schhol, Bowell Business School, Concord Business School, The Executive Business School, Dangote Business School, African Business School, MSME Business School, Delta Business School, GPE Business School, and host of others.

It is also pertinent to note that some research Institutes in Nigeria are providing techno-entrepreneurship training to entrepreneurs to promote technical enterprises based on the outcomes of the research and development efforts of such research Institutes with similar goal to enhance business sustainability. Of note in this category is the Federal Institute of Industrial Research Oshodi, Lagos whose broad mandate is to conduct research and development in the area of utilization of indigenous raw materials for rapid industrialization of the national economy through the development of the small, medium and large enterprises.

This study aims to investigate the effect of entrepreneurial training on business sustainability of FIIRO technology beneficiaries with a view to being able to make appropriate recommendations and initiate policy formulations on how business sustainability of the technology beneficiaries could be enhanced.

Conceptual Framework

Entrepreneurial Training

Entrepreneurship training is defined as any educational program or educational process that develops entrepreneurial attitudes and skills. Through entrepreneurship training individuals can gain the requisite knowledge to identify business opportunities as well as gain the skill to act on the opportunities. Effective commercialization of concepts, identifying resources and managing such resources for concept commercialization would require effective entrepreneurship training. It includes instruction in chance identification, commercializing a concept, managing resources and initiating business speculation. Entrepreneurship training programmes are effective in terms of improving business knowledge and practices (Ismail, 2018).

Entrepreneurial training is all the crucial training and skills that entrepreneurs need to succeed. It includes, among others, instructions on interpersonal management skills, enterprise planning and control, leadership training and organisational behaviour. The acquired skills prepare entrepreneurs for

the challenges they face on the job. Knowledge is an indispensable asset to any organization that, when it is properly harnessed, managed and utilized, will not only bring about increased productivity but also expansion, growth, and sustained profitability to the organization. Existing and aspiring entrepreneurs have been imparted positively to promote best business practices through entrepreneurship training programmes which provide training for entrepreneurs with grants, mini finance, and mentoring interventions (McKenzie & Woodruff, 2013). The extent to which the interventions can achieve their objectives would depend on the contents, duration and intensity of the intervention programmes. It may therefore, be difficult to reach a consensus on what should constitute an effective entrepreneurship training programmes. It has been found that some entrepreneurship trainings that incorporate finance are more effective towards creating self employments as well enhancing best practices in business (Cho & Honorati, 2014; De Mel et al., 2014; Patel, 2014). Easy access to grant would likely keep many entrepreneurs in self employments to perform their traditional role of job creation (Martinez et al., 2016).

The goal of entrepreneurship training programmes is for creation of self employments through star ups but attainment of this goal can be described as modest. This is evident in Chile and Sri Lanka where self employments was found to decline after two years of entrepreneurial training interventions (De Mel et al., 2014; Martinez et al., 2016).

Some studies have also shown that effects of entrepreneurship training programmes on some measures of business performance namely profits, sales revenue, and inventory are modest. A study has revealed that entrepreneurial training has no effect on income (Cho & Honorati, 2014) whereas, little improvements in sales, income, capital stock and loan activity have been observed in some studies (De Mel et al., 2014; Field, Jayachandran, & Pande, 2010; Karlan & Valdivia, 2011; Martinez et al., 2016).

It has been observed that entrepreneurship training programmes are very effective when it comes to enhancing business knowledge and ensuring good business practices (De Mel, McKenzie, & Woodruff, 2014; Patel, 2014). For instance, in a meta-analysis of thirty seven training programmes, the training programmes have positive effects on business practices among existing small businesses (Cho & Honorati, 2014) whereas results from some studies noted improvements record-keeping, asset management and recognition of the enterprise as a legal entity (Giné & Mansuri, 2014; Martinez et al., 2016). Such improvements have been reported to have long term sustainability (De Mel et al., 2014).

Some entrepreneurship studies with focus on entrepreneurship training for women entrepreneurs have imparted positively on their business performance with a specific finding that sound knowledge of business planning acquired during entrepreneurship training is useful for them in gaol and target setting for their enterprises (Bauer, 2011; Patel, 2014). Patel (2014) also reported that entrepreneurship training is of benefit for female entrepreneurs through confidence building and self empowerment (Patel, 2014) though some cultural and religion barriers to women's involvement in business activities still hinder full participation of women in business (Field et al., 2010; Giné &

Mansuri, 2014). For instance, in India and Pakistan, restrictions to movement of women is undermining the entrepreneurial activities of women though encouragement of women-to-women business in social networks is gradually improving women participation in entrepreneurial activities (Patel, 2014).

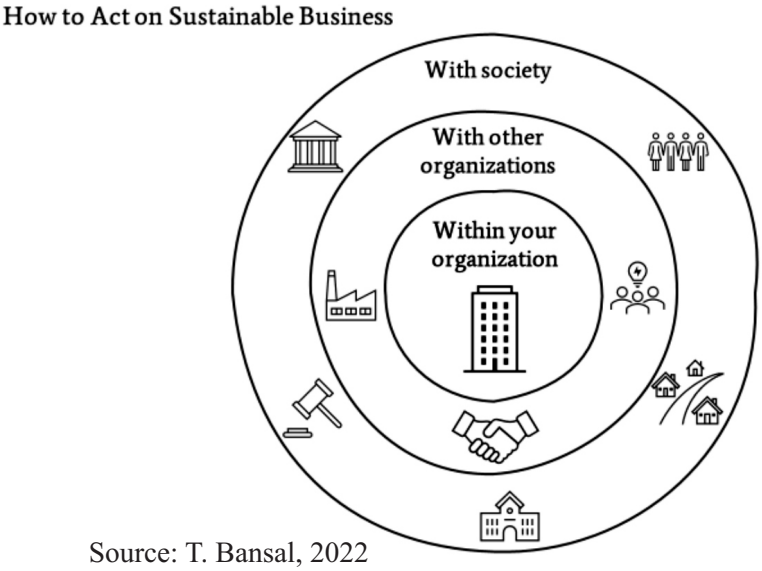
Entrepreneurship training programmes have an overall statistically significant and positive impact on business practices (0.075). Existing business owners (0.084) derive greater benefits from the training than potential entrepreneurs. (Patel 2015) finds that entrepreneurship training improves business knowledge of female entrepreneurs. A qualitative assessment of two training programmes in Vermont, USA (Women's Small Business Programme and the Microbusiness Development Programme) for women entrepreneurs found that learning how to build a business plan was regarded as a key benefit of the programme by the participants (Bauer, 2011). It is, therefore, paramount to understand that entrepreneurship training programme is a major driver of entrepreneurship development and therefore a major force in the economic growth particularly of developing nations; it is an agent of job creation and it enhances competitiveness (Waita, 2014).

Business development has received a great boost from Entrepreneur Development Training Programmes (EDTPs) which operate on the assumption that through appropriate entrepreneurial training, more individuals would start entrepreneurial ventures. These trainings are well structured to deliver skills capable of attitudinal change in individuals towards motivating them to become prospective entrepreneurs (Park & Choi, 2018).

In summary, from all the definitions and descriptions of entrepreneurship training, the main goal of entrepreneurship training appears to be the same with the different authors. This goal is to enhance business performance or success through impartation of appropriate skills, competencies (management and technical), in a training program designed with appropriate training contents, training budget and trainers with appropriate competency.

Business Sustainability

The term sustainable development was introduced by the United Nations with the notion that for economic development to be sustainable it must meet the needs of the present with no compromise for the needs of the future generation.



Source: T. Bansal, 2022

With this background, we can describe a sustainable business as that business that is able to create wealth and enhances people's lives with no compromise for the wealth and wellbeing of the future generation. Businesses must be planned in a way that natural resources which are factors of production are not depleted too quickly with no control but such must be of necessity extracted or exploited in a controlled manner to balance the ecosystems.

Sustainable development is illustrated in the diagram above on how to handle issue of sustainability within an organization, with other organizations and with the society.

i. In one's organization, sustainability should begin at home by getting one's house in order.
ii. With other organizations, the impact of one's sustainability efforts can be increased through working with other organizations.
iii. With society, collaboration with other parts of the society such as local communities, none governmental organization etc is required to address sustainability issues.

Entrepreneurship development is one of the most effective tools for enhancing poverty reduction and eradication, as well as achieving sustainable development (Adejuwon & Adeigbe, 2018). Business sustainability has been conceptualized as gaining financial returns from entrepreneurial actions with good growth rates or indices or good performance in stock market (Davidsson & Honig, 2003) as well as showing good indices on non financial performance such as satisfaction of employees, fulfilment and satisfaction of the business owners/entrepreneurs through personal achievements (Kakabadse, 2015). In the definition of entrepreneurial sustainability, offered by Limsong, Sambath, Sean & Hong (2016), entrepreneurial sustainability is defined to gains from financial and non financial entrepreneurial activities of the entrepreneur.

It has been documented that most businesses closed their shops after one year in operation and only 5 to 10% of businesses survive the first five years in operation (Makarenko, Chernysheva Polyakova & Makarenko, 2019). Some authors have conducted empirical research on why some businesses are not successful, and therefore not sustainable, and have identified the following as some of the reasons: leadership skills challenge, competitor's activities, differences in expectation, and economic crises (Miettinen & Littunen, 2013; Sakiru et. al, 2013). These factors need to be integrated into entrepreneurship training programmes.

Strategies used by small coffee owners in Duval County, Florida, USA to achieve success in business beyond five years have been investigated. Three major strategies were identified namely: networking by the business owners through positioning the business on their websites as venues for customers to meet and network; managing the business with the enterprise business plan as blueprint by assessing milestones, addressing challenges and changes from time to time; and deploying marketing differentiation strategy (Turner & Endres, 2017). Empirical evidence has shown that the personality of the entrepreneur is a critical factor for business success and sustainability, having observed that while operating under the same conditions, some entrepreneurs were able to manage their businesses to success whereas others cannot but go bankrupt (Kambey, Wuryaningrat, & Kumajas, 2018; Sycheva, et. al., 2018).

Krock & Anderson (2016) identified business processes optimization and automation, as well as employee's training as success factors in McDonald business. Confidence, ability to make decisions with ease and social communication skills have also been identified as business success and sustainability factors (Shepelenko & Chernysheva, 2018). Makarenko et. al., (2019) concluded in their study on business success factors that the following are important success factors for businesses: deep knowledge of business; clear definition of business goal(s); innovative ideas in operating the business; transparency; competent and motivated staff and realism in business.

Business success and sustainability can be measured by both financial and non-financial factors. Umoren & Udofot (2014) measured business success with success factors outside the domain of finance using employee's composition, entrepreneurial motivation and strategy implementation as success indicators. Entrepreneurial factors, and business environment factors were used to measure entrepreneurial success in a study carried out in the UK chemical distribution industry (Lampadarios, 2017). The characteristics of the entrepreneurs, external business environment and government's supportive factors have been reported to have positive relationship with business success or performance of women businesses in Pakistan, with internal business environment having little significance impact on success. Though perceived national culture has no influence on the success of women owned businesses, it was found to weaken the positive relationship existing between entrepreneur's characteristics and performance; however, it enhances the impact of supportive factor measures on performance (Shakeel, Yaokuang & Gohar, 2020).

Internal environment variable with business innovation, development of strategy and record maintenance as success measures and external environment variable with external knowledge source, appropriate market, available opportunities and technological advantages as measures have been reported (Al-Tit, Omri & Euchi, 2019); Gonzalez-Rodriguez, Jimenezcaballero, Martinsamper, Koseoglu, & Okumus, 2018; Long, Looijen, & Blok, 2018) Other researchers have studied the impact of individual characteristics on business success using entrepreneurial trait, education, managerial skills, motivation as success measures (Gupta & Mirchandani, 2018; Welsh, Kaciak, & Shamah, 2018). The factors identified as impacting or affecting successful and sustainable entrepreneurship are embedded in promoting sustainable entrepreneurship training.

Promoting Sustainable Entrepreneurship in Training and Education

Sustainability emerged from sustainable development, meaning development that meets the need of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (WCED,1987)

In Binder et al., 2015 as cited by Zahrani, 2022, five components that are normally part of definitions of sustainability entrepreneurship are highlighted. The first is the interest of academics in the process that lead to how possibilities are identified, developed and exploited. The second is the reinforcement of the notion that sustainable development must provide a balance in the link inherent in economic, social, and ecological effects of entrepreneurial activities. Thirdly, the potential for transformation of future products and services form part of the definitions. The fourth component that should be reflected in the definition of entrepreneurial sustainability is the incorporation of the source of opportunities and how they are generated by resourceful entrepreneurs including through market weakness and how to take advantage of such weakness. Finally, the definition should of necessity include who takes advantage of chances or the opportunities and in this case, it is the entrepreneurs. Entrepreneurial process has been the main focus of many entrepreneurship studies in the area of sustainable entrepreneurship research (Belz & Binder, 2017).

Social entrepreneurship and innovation have been observed to have positive impact on creation of values and to sustain economic development (Wang, 2022). Sometimes, sustainable entrepreneurial process is initiated by noneconomic advantages and emotions. In such case, the experience is that the shared vision between the founders, the firm and the firm's members is developed by the compassion to promote the well-being of others (Farny, 2016). Sustainable entrepreneurship process begins with identifying a specific ecological or social problem (Belz & Binder, 2017). Then, it is very important that entrepreneurs must possess the necessary skills and incentive sufficient enough for community improvement or social well-being in order to be sustainable (Muñoz & Cohen, 2018).

Instructors or trainers in sustainable entrepreneurship focus their teachings on how entrepreneurs will use current resources sustainably for the success of their enterprises without risking the ability of future generations to access resources (Hermes & Rimanoczy, 2018). “Preservation of nature, intensive care,

and society in order to pursue perception opportunity to bring into presence products in the future, processes, and services for benefit, where gain is broadly construed to include financial and non-gains to individuals, the economy, and society," (Shepherd & Patzelt, 2011) define sustainable entrepreneurship. In the definition, it is important to note that sustainable entrepreneurship is not just about enterprise creation of sustainable enterprises but also includes management and transformation of existing businesses towards making them more sustainable. This confirms that sustainable entrepreneurship is a concept for all levels of enterprises including start-ups, micro, small, medium and large enterprises (Gast et al., 2017). Given its significance, state that the goal of sustainable entrepreneurship is to build a more sustainable and equitable society.

Several institutions throughout the globe have launched research and training programs on sustainable entrepreneurship in order to play a vital role in the development of sustainable societies (Décamps et al., 2017; Olalla & Merino, 2019). To give sustainable entrepreneurship education modules, educators frequently combine sustainability-related themes with entrepreneurship education (Gast et al., 2017). In general, sustainable entrepreneurial education and training aims to assist existing, emerging, and potential entrepreneurs in new relationship development that would be of help in confronting future challenges and responsibilities aside from increasing their skills (Chandra, 2016). This is one of the objectives of the FIIRO entrepreneurship training programme.

Sustainable entrepreneurship is derived from crossbreeding of sustainable development and entrepreneurship. Since the introduction of the concept of sustainable development by UN, sustainable development and its implication for human development has been a major topic of discourse amongst policy makers, academia, industry and the society at large. It is most generally characterized as "filling current demands without jeopardizing future generations' capacity to fulfil their own needs" (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987). Sustainable development acknowledges the interrelationship between natural environment, welfare of the society, economic performance and sustainable entrepreneurship but in this, sustainable development must aim to preserve intra-generational equity while at the same time developing inter-generational equity.

In summary, the concept of entrepreneurial sustainability is a very wide and it is a very important concept that ensures business survival in sustainable manner. Authors have agreed that entrepreneurial sustainability involves commercializing an identified business opportunity, and the exploitation of the commercialized business opportunity in a way that create wealth for the entrepreneur without compromising the wellbeing and the wealth of future generations such that economy, social and ecology operate on a balance tripod for the betterment of the society.

Theoretical Framework

This study is based on two relevant theories, the success factor theory and human capital theory.

Success Factor Theory

Success factor as a concept was first used in management literature by Ronald Daniel (1961). He posited that success factors are the same for all companies operating within the same industry. Rockart (1979) was of the opinion that success factors are very critical to business success and sustainability. Khandelwal and Ferguson (1999) observed that success factor approach was initially not fully developed and limited in application, but today, the approach is applicable in all areas of management study. With this observation, Wronka (2013) and Manoj, Kumar, Van Goubergen, Molnar, & Gellynck (2013) reported that success factors can find fundamental usage in every kind of ventures. Gierszewska & Romanwaska (2007) described success factors as tools for analysis to evaluate the image of an industry. Causal-effect relationship was studied by Perato. In his study, he observed that 80% of effects are obtained from 20% of the causes. Wronka (2013) reported that the main aim of the success factor theory is for the organization that desire success to concentrate organizational efforts on the 20% of the causes that is producing 80% of the success for the organization. In success factor theory, organization must identify the limited areas that will ensure organizational success. However, if these factors are not managed well, organizational failure is inevitable (Moohebat, Asemi, & Jazi, 2010.). Management process and decision making is usually complex as a result of many factors. With success factors theory, these complexities could be minimized through concentrating effort on the most critical success factors (Alzahrani & Emsley, 2013; Bai & Sarkis, 2013).

Entrepreneurship needs to understand and make use of the success factor to be able to remain sustainable. This study therefore, finds relevance in success theory because the goal of every entrepreneurial activity is success and no enterprise can be sustainable without being a success in the first instance.

Human Capital Theory

Human capital theory has been described by Bohlander, Snell, & Sherman (2001) to include some kind of skills, knowledge and capabilities acquired by individuals through formal school system or through training on the job to create economic value for an organization. Dess and Pickens (1999) viewed human capital from personal traits point of view which is peculiar to an individual and cannot be separated from an individual possessing them and such include individual capabilities, skills, knowledge and experience capable of adding value to an organization to ensure entrepreneurial success and sustainability. Human capital theory draws its relevance in its application targeted at increasing organizational performance through the skills, knowledge, ability and experience of employees. Introduction of the term human capital into academic arena was by Theodore W. Schultz (1961) as published in the American Economic Review. Human capital theorist believes higher level of education and training will contribute higher input in terms of skills, knowledge and ability to organizational goals (Blair, 2012).

Gary Backer (1964) defined human capital as a physical means of production while Becker (1964) posited that human capital can be accumulated in different forms of education, training, migration, and health. Human capital theory also viewed employees as assets which must be well developed and properly integrated in an organization for efficient and effective performance (Vejchayanon, 2005). To the resources-based theorists, the human capital of an entrepreneurs consists of both management skills and tacit knowledge (Lerner & Almor, 2002), previous entrepreneurial experience, and family background (Dzisi, 2008). The human capital theory, with emphasis on human capital development embracing individual capabilities, skills, knowledge, and experience capable of adding value to an organization to ensure entrepreneurial success and sustainability, makes the theory very relevant for this study.

In this study, entrepreneurship training is expected to bring about business sustainability. Therefore, this study also finds relevance in human capital theory with assertion that the skills or the training an individual acquired could create economic value for an organization. In this case, economic value attained through entrepreneurship training could bring about business sustainability.

Empirical Review

The relationship between entrepreneurship training and entrepreneurial orientation was investigated using a quasi-experimental approach of the sharp regression discontinuity design to test the relationship with a sample of 1330 micro enterprises. The results show a positive and significant causal relationship between entrepreneurship training and all three dimensions of entrepreneurial orientation (Al-Awlaqi, Ammar & Habtoor, 2018).

The relationship between entrepreneurship education (EE) and the core values of sustainable development (CVSD) has been investigated under the condition of entrepreneurial skill developed by undergraduates (ESDU) as a mediator variable (Edokpolo, 2020). A structured questionnaire was used in this correlational study to obtain responses from 399 Nigerian university undergraduates purposively selected for the study. The results indicate that entrepreneurial skills developed by undergraduates (ESDU) has a positive and statistically significant mediating effect on the entrepreneurship education (EE)-core values of sustainable development relationship (CVSD) (Edokpolo, 2020).

In a study on the role of entrepreneurship training on the growth of micro and small enterprises, entrepreneurship training was measured by training objective, training content, trainer's competency and training delivery methods, the result of descriptive and thematic analysis show that entrepreneurship training components contribute to certain extent towards business growth of the micro and small enterprise in Kiambu County (Mukulu & Marima, 2017).

Effect of entrepreneurship training on sustainability of SMEs in Morogoro Municipa Council, Tanzania was studied with 62 respondents selected using convenience and purposive sampling techniques with questionnaire as research instrument. The data collected was analysed using IBM SPSS

Version 20. The results show that entrepreneurship training has a positive and significant relationship effect on business sustainability (Iganile, 2019).

Orobia (2020) carried out an empirical study on entrepreneurial framework conditions and business sustainability amongst youths and women entrepreneurs. In this study, entrepreneurial framework is measured by entrepreneurial training/education, government program and policies, IT infrastructure, market openness, and finance while business sustainability is measured by stakeholders' engagement, people and skills, ecosystem management, market and sales and innovation. Correlation results show that all the five measures of entrepreneurial framework conditions including entrepreneurial training/education have positive and significant association with individual measures of business sustainability Regression analysis however, show that only finance and IT infrastructure have positive and significant impact on business sustainability among the youth and women.

In a study to investigate the effect of entrepreneurial training, skills and networking on youth business sustainability, 150 participants drawn from five batches of entrepreneurship training programs organised and sponsored by government agencies, the results show that entrepreneurial training, skills and networking have positive and significant effect on business sustainability resulting in business continuity among youths (Manaf, Misnan, Wallang & Dollah, 2020).

Strategic entrepreneurship has been investigated as a predictor of business sustainability in a study conducted with 237 participants from 3 textile companies in Lagos State using questionnaire to collect responses from all the respondents. Process analysis of regression results show that strategic entrepreneurship has significant positive effect on business sustainability of the companies under study. When the relationship was studied under the condition of level of education as a moderator, level of education has a negative and insignificant moderating effect on the strategic entrepreneurship – business sustainability relationship (Tijani, Egwuonwu and Akinlabi, 2020).

Cho & Honorati (2014) in a qualitative study to examine the effects of training and development packages on the success of women small scale business owners in Ghana most especially women mostly single mothers who are operating at Dansoman Market in the Metropolitan Accra Region. The results show that most of the women traders who have no training whatsoever in financial, marketing nor human resource management are doing badly in their businesses while those with training are doing well in their businesses. On the impact of training duration on the success of the training programme, a u- shaped relationship was found between the duration of training and the likelihood of success of the programme with implication that short and intense training is more effective than training that is extended over a long period (Cho & Honorati, 2014).

McKenzie & Woodruff (2013) undertake a critical review of previous studies in entrepreneurial training with the goal of synthesizing the emerging lessons and understanding the limitations of the existing research and the areas in which more work is needed. It was found out that there is substantial heterogeneity in the length, content, and types of firms participating in the training programs evaluated.

It was discovered that many of the evaluations were done with low level of statistics with impact of training measure within one year of training which may not be sufficient enough for generalization. Other issues observed in the studies are survey attrition and measurement of firm profits and revenues. It was observed in literature that training made modest impacts on some surviving firms but stronger evidence abound that training programs assists prospective owners to launch new businesses faster. Though, majority of the studies indicated that business owners implemented some of the skills learnt during trainings but such skills couldn't make much impact on business performance. However, some few studies shows that training has significant impacts on profits or sales while others found benefits to microfinance organizations of offering training. It is difficult to conclude in literature whether positive impact found on business performance was actually as a result of training acquired by entrepreneurs or some other factors influencing business performance.

Vuuren, & Botha (2010) applied the constructs of the entrepreneurial performance training model to three different training interventions, known as the business start-up, basic entrepreneurship, and advanced entrepreneurship programmes. Furthermore, the paper measured the business performance indicators and skills transfer that took place after the training interventions. Quantitative research was conducted, using three validated quantitative research questionnaires. The research design consists of a pre-test, post-test and post-post test (ten weeks after the training interventions took place). Factor analysis was done, descriptive statistics arising from opinions and expressions are presented and statistical tests such as the Chi Square test and ANOVA provide inferential statistics. It was found out that the business performance indicators improved for all three training groups after they attended the training interventions. Furthermore, it was proved that skills transfer took place after the respondents attended the training interventions.

In summary, most studies in literature confirmed that entrepreneurship training has significant positive effect on business sustainability. Main components or measures of entrepreneurship training include training objective, training duration, training budget, competency of trainers, and training delivery methods while business sustainability is measured by stakeholders' engagement, people and skills, ecosystem management, market and sales and innovation.

Hypothesis and Significance of the Study

The hypothesis of the study is that entrepreneurial training will have no significant effect of business sustainability of FIIRO technologies beneficiaries (H_0). The study uses beneficiaries of FIIRO technologies who have established their own enterprises based on technologies acquired at FIIRO.

The study is significant in the following ways: to increase indigenous knowledge on determinants of business sustainability; to improve management consultancy practices for entrepreneurship by providing management consultants with useful information needed to develop training programmes to enhance business sustainability; to enhance industrial development through

appropriate policy formulation for entrepreneurship development at all levels of government- federal, state and local; personal development for individual entrepreneurs to enhance performance and finally, to aid research students in various areas, particularly in entrepreneurial studies and business sustainability, by serving as a reference point for subsequent researches.

Scope of the Study

The study covers entrepreneurs who are beneficiaries of FIIRO technologies through the Institute's techno-entrepreneurship training and technology transfer training programmes and have established enterprises based on the technologies acquired. This study also covered technology beneficiaries who were trained at FIIRO between 2002 and 2020 who have established enterprises based on the technologies acquired at FIIRO.

Methodology

Cross-sectional research design is adopted on this study. The study population is the trainees at the techno-entrepreneurial development training programme at FIIRO. Purposive and convenience sampling techniques are used to select 100 samples for the study from 250 beneficiaries of FIIRO technologies. The 100 samples selected for this study are the beneficiaries of FIIRO technologies who have been in business continuously for minimum of two years; who have at least one product in the market and has made the list of "100 Successful FIIRO Entrepreneurs". The instrument for primary data collection is 6-point Likert Scale questionnaire. The questionnaire is divided into three sections. The first section is on demographics of the respondents. The second section is designed to solicit responses on entrepreneurial training factors while the third section is designed to solicit responses from the respondents on business sustainability dimensions. The questionnaire was self administered to the trainees during training sessions. The response rate is 100%. Business sustainability is measured by financial indicators namely profitability, sales growth and number of employees; while entrepreneurial training is measured by training contents, training budget, trainer's competency, training duration, trainee's entry behaviour and trainees exit behaviour. These training components are to ensure effective and efficient training for business sustainability. The data collected was analyzed using Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS) to examine the possible effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable.

Findings

On gender of the respondents, the result reveals that 67% of respondents were males while 33% were females. This means that more males participated in the study than the female counterparts. 16% of the respondents were between the age range of 21-30 years, 27% were between 31-40 years, 29% were between 41- 50 years, while 28% were between 51 years and above. This means that respondents, whose

age fall between 41-50 years were in the majority and respondents whose fall between 21-30 years (16%) were the minority. This implies that 57% of the respondents are adults. The highest number of respondents are married (68%) while 7% are divorcees. 16% are single and 9% were not willing to disclose their marital status. On educational qualifications of the respondents, 57% of the respondents have first degree or its equivalent while 24% are Masters degree holders, 11% have National Diploma/National Certificate in Education while 8% has PhD degrees. This implies that first degree holders participated more in the study while the least that participated in term of educational level are the PhD holders. On number of years in business, 46% of the respondents indicated they have been in business between 6-10 years while 29% indicated they have been in business between 11 – 15 years. 16% of the respondents have been in business between 1 – 5 years while 9% of the respondents have been in business between 16-20 years. This implies that most of the respondents (46%) have been in business between 6-10 years whereas only 9% have been in business for over 16 years.

Test of Hypothesis

H_0: Entrepreneurial training will have no significant effect on business sustainability of FIIRO technologies beneficiaries.

Table 1 a-c: Regression Analysis

Model Summary				
Model	R	R^2	Adjusted square	Std Error of the Estimate
1	.5814[a]	.340	.339	.53783

[a] Predictor: Constant Entrepreneurial

Training

Source: Field Survey, (2022)

ANOVAa

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	57.938	1	57.938	199.751	.000[b]
	Residual	112.231	388	.289		
	Total	170.169	389			

[a]Dependent variable: Business Sustainability

[b]Predictor: (Constant) Entrepreneurial Training

Source: Field Survey Results (2022)

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardised Coefficient		Standardised Coefficient	T	Sig.
1	Constant	**B**	**Std Error**	**Beta**		
	Entrepreneurial Training	**2.373**	**.189**		**12.567**	**'000**
		.520	**.037**	**.534**	**14.153**	**'000**

[a]Dependent Variable: Entrepreneurial Training

Table 1a-c shows the findings of the regression analysis for the effect of entrepreneurial training on business sustainability.

Table 1a gives a model summary which indicates how the model equation fits into the data. The R^2 was used to establish the predictive power of the study's model. From the findings, entrepreneurial training has modest and significant link with entrepreneurial sustainability ($R = 0.581$, $p<0.05$

The coefficient of determination (R^2) of 0.330 demonstrates that entrepreneurial training explained 34 percent of the variance in business sustainability whereas the remaining 67% variation in business sustainability is explained by other exogenous variable distinct from those investigated in this research. This result suggests that entrepreneurial training influence 34% of business sustainability. It is vital to underline that the impact projected by entrepreneurial training is favourable yet modest.

Table 1b presents the results of ANOVA (overall model significance) of regression test which revealed that entrepreneurial training has a significant influence on business sustainability. This can be explained by the F value (199.751) at p=0.000 which is statistically significant at 95% confidence interval. Furthermore, the results of regression coefficients in table 1c revealed that at 95%confidence level, a unit change in entrepreneurial training will lead to a 0.520 increase in business sustainability given that all other factors are held constant. On the strength of this finding [$R^2 = 0.330$, F (199.751, p= 0.000], this research rejects the null hypothesis which states that entrepreneurial training has no significant effect on business sustainability.

Discussion of Findings

Results from the test of hypothesis show that there is significant positive relationship between entrepreneurial training and business sustainability. The findings show that an increase in entrepreneurial training will have a positive and significant influence on business sustainability. The outcome of linear regression study for the effect of entrepreneurial training on business sustainability reveals that entrepreneurial training has a major effect on business sustainability. The findings revealed that entrepreneurial training factors have significant and positive effect on business sustainability ($r = 0.522$, $R = 0.581$, $R^2 = 0.340$ $p<0.05$ and $F = 199.751$ at $p = 0.0000$).

The findings are in line with the findings reported by Manaf, Misnan, Wallang & Dollah, (2020) which conclude that entrepreneurship training has a positive and significant effect on business sustainability Also, the results agree with the result reported Iganile (2019) on the study on the effect of entrepreneurship training on sustainability of SMEs in Morogoro Municipal Council, Tanzania entrepreneurship training was found to have a positive and significant effect on business sustainability. Orobia (2020), in an empirical study on entrepreneurial framework conditions and business sustainability amongst youths and women entrepreneurs reported a correlation result showing that all the five measures of entrepreneurial framework conditions including entrepreneurial training/education have positive and significant association with individual measures of business sustainability which is in alignment with the findings of this study. Also, in agreement with the results of this study is the result of a correlational study by Edokpolo (2020) which confirms that entrepreneurship education has a positive and significant effect on business sustainability while entrepreneurial skills was reported to have a positive and statistically significant mediating effect on the entrepreneurship education-business sustainability relationship.

Fifty seven percent of the respondents in this study have higher education which could probably explain the strength of entrepreneurial training-business sustainability observed in this study. The observation is in agreement with the study reported by Hunady, Orviska & Pisar (2018) and Blair (2012) whose results suggest that higher education is beneficial to new business and a strong factor that determines the success and sustainability of new enterprises.

Gender could be said to play a role in the study's outcomes noting that 67% of the respondents are male. Some researchers have reported that many men start businesses and run them successfully because many push and pull factors made them to do so and they tend to engage more in malpractices that could aid business growth than women counterparts (Hazudin, Kader, Tarmuji, Ishak, & Ali, R, 2015). Age of the respondents appears to influence the outcome of the study with observation that 57% of the respondents are adults who are above 40 years in age. On the number of years in business, 84% of respondents have been in business for over 5 years. Successful and sustainable business has been described to include a business that has been in existence for over five years (Turner &Endres, 2017). Also, the finding of the study agrees with the findings of Islam, Khan, Odaidullah & Alam (2011) who reported that entrepreneurs that operated longer period have been more successful than those who have been in operation for a shorter period. On marital status, the highest number of the respondent (68%) is married. This appears to have influence on the outcome of this study, in agreement with the findings of Dada & Fayomi (2015) who reported significant correlation between marriage and business performance.

Conclusion and Recommendations

This study provides an empirical insight on the links between entrepreneurial training and business sustainability of the beneficiaries of FIIRO technologies, Lagos, Nigeria for a period of 2002 and 2020.

The problem of insufficient and inappropriate entrepreneurial training has been one of the major challenges impeding business sustainability in Nigeria. The study formulated a main objective, develop hypothesis and evaluated the responses of the respondents using appropriate statistical methods. The results *reveal that entrepreneurial training factors have significant and positive effect on business sustainability*.

Based on the outcome of this study, it is recommended that government and other agencies with responsibilities to develop entrepreneurship in Nigeria should consider the findings of this study in developing and implementing appropriate policies for entrepreneurship development in Nigeria. Management consultants with specialization in entrepreneurship development should also consider the findings of the study when designing training programmes to enhance entrepreneurial operations and business sustainability.

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Reward System Management and Employees Productivity in Hospitality Industry in Lagos State, Nigeria

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Abstract

Employee productivity is a variable that has been researched over time. However, researchers have not agreed upon factors that really influence the variable. This study investigated the effect of a reward management system on employee productivity in the hospitality industry in Lagos State, Nigeria. The population consisted of all the staff members of one hundred and three (103) hotels registered under booking.com as hotels in Lagos State. The Yamane formula was used at 0.05 level of significance to arrive at a sample size of 82 hotels. The study used purposive sampling, considering the availability of the respondents to select by cadre (stratum), four respondents per hotel, resulting in 328 employees. The research instrument used was a questionnaire. Data were analysed using descriptive and regression statistics tools. The results showed that Reward System ((β =.106, t = 2.843, P <.05), (r = 0.685)) has a relative influence and significant relationship with employee productivity. The study also showed that one of the characteristics of the hospitality industry in the study area is the competitive salary paid to workers and timely promotion enjoyed by the staff members. At the same time, the most popular and highly favoured forms of reward system constituted of salary and bonus packages. The study concluded that reward management practices enhanced the productivity of employees. The study recommended that entrepreneurial organisations should make reward management systems essential for improved employee productivity/performance.

Keywords: Employee Performance, Reward System, Incentives, Health Benefits, Salary

Introduction

Productivity in any form is critical to an organisation's overall performance in meeting its objectives, mission, and vision. Managing resources effectively and efficiently to ensure the quality of output for better performance is referred to as organisational Productivity (Okafor, 2019 and Armstrong, 2019). Research has been done worldwide over the years to identify the factors that influence productivity. Findings indicated that productivity is affected by relatively few factors, some of which are organisational-specific, while others can be considered universal. In general, most businesses and their

managers face the challenges of identifying those variables that contribute most to employees' productivity, especially in the effective and efficient utilisation of resources to achieve the Organisation's goals and objectives..

However, there are several perspectives on the term "productivity." Many professionals from various disciplines have considered productivity as a ratio of output to input. Accountants and Financial analysts emphasise that productivity reflects financial performance in terms of return on investment, profitability, growth, turnover, turnover rate, cash inflow, and other factors. Many researchers believe that productivity includes quality and quantity of output (Phina, Arinze and Chukwuma, 2017). Some researchers (Okafor, 2019 and Daniel, 2019) have defined productivity as an organisation's output per person-hour,' intended to improve the operation's efficiency and effectiveness. No wonder some productivity-related studies have observed that absenteeism rates impact employees' productivity (Awan, Habib, Shoaib and Naveed, 2020 and Aktaruzzaman and Rahim, 2021).

Generally speaking, productivity refers to two essential characteristics. First, productivity is closely related to resource utilisation and availability. Second, productivity is inextricably linked to value creation, while value creation in any organisation is a product of a performance management system, including the reward management system (Owino, Oluoch and Kimemia, 2019). Thus, high productivity is achieved when the activities and resources used in the manufacturing sector add value to the goods produced. The proper use of resources and the creation of values that represent the core of productivity in an organisation underpin the foundation of an organisation's reward management system. To that extent, it is believed that there is a strong relationship between Reward Management System and Organisational Productivity (Okeke, Onyekwelu, Akpua and Dunkwu, 2019 and Berry, 2003). The term "reward system" refers to the available employers' tools that are used to attract, retain, stimulate, and gratify employees (Okeke, Onyekwelu, Akpua and Dunkwu, 2019). A reward is an expression of gratitude that may be monetary or otherwise extended to employees for their additional output (Okeke, Onyekwelu, Akpua and Dunkwu, 2019; Were and Nyakwara, 2018; Elliot, 2019; Ouma and Karanja, 2018; Backlund and Suikki, 2015; Hirt, 2011; Martyn, 2012 and Coole, 2005). To achieve this, top management must define each employee's job clearly and appropriately.

The evolution of reward management, according to Blau (2009), may be divided into three categories, namely, coercive (work harder or lose your job), remunerative (work harder and get paid more), and normative (work harder and be rewarded or work harder to achieve organisational goals). These findings provided a severe challenge to those who assume that reward outcomes and appraisal outcomes must be tightly separated. This implies that when good performance is recognised and rewarded, the possibility of it happening again is increased. In contrast, poor performance is discouraged or even penalised to lower the likelihood of it happening again. Verbal rewards boost task interest and performance; physical rewards boost motivation when provided to people for completing

tasks or reaching or exceeding preset performance standards (Berry, 2003). Studies have shown that in the public sector, appraisals were widely used to recognise or reward employees for a well-done job. On the whole, studies have shown that every organisation, normaly, have one or more of the following reward systems: incentives, appreciation, health benefits, bonuses or salary (Okafor, 2019).

Elliot (2019) opined that salary as a reward scheme, was the primary mechanism utilised by the corporation to reward its employees. Still, little is known about how it works in the rewards system. Coole (2005) opined that to understand how salary affects performance, the organisation must understand the employees' preferences before arriving at a meaningful compensation structure. Likewise, Chebet (2015) stated that managers find it challenging to deal with the pay issue and to link the performance with financial incentive because the strategies to do so are not very clear.

Employee productivity and monetary rewards such as salary pay and bonus remuneration, according to Blau (2009) and Phina, Arinze, and Chukwuma (2017), have a strong positive correlation because the reward system has provision for bonus on top of the employee's basic salary or hourly pay. The purpose of this bonus scheme is to boost staff productivity and performance (Berry, 2003; Okafor, 2017; Blau 2009; Elliot, 2019; Okafor, 2019; and Daniel, 2019). However, Okafor (2019) claimed that there is limited research investigating the relationship between productivity and reward systems in most industrial companies. It may be argued that most employees and employers seem unaware of what constitutes productivity indicators despite their strategic importance and the extent to which these productivity indicators/parameters contribute to work performance (Armstrong, 2019). There is scant evidence that examined the effectiveness of the pay package on the productivity of workers in the Hospitality industry in Lagos state, Nigeria. Equally worrisome is the lack of openness in the reward system, appraisal and poor feedback mechanism in evaluating employees' productivity/performance (Berry, 2003). Thus, one can easily conclude that in the current dwindling Nigerian economy, the reward management system in a given company might be ineffective; and can adversely affect employee productivity/performance, leading to dwindling morale among industrual workers. Hence, exploring the ways of implementing a highly effective and successful reward management system in the hospitality industry in Nigeria is quite timely and has become the overall aim of this research. In a developing nation like Nigeria, observation has shown that the performance management cycle in many firms has been reduced to a transient activity at the end of the financial year, which fails to reflect how employees have performed over one year. This raises the question of whether performance management programs with an emphasis on reward management systems have an impact on workers' efficiency. Against this background, the researcher wants to determine the influence of reward management systems on employee productivity in the hospitality industry in Lagos State, Nigeria. It is expected that contributions to knowledge in this study will focus on the observed phenomena regarding whether there is a significant relationship between productivity and reward systems in Hospitality Industry.

Consequently, the study aimed at assessing the reward management system and employee productivity in the hospitality Industry in Lagos State, Nigeria. Specifically, the objectives of this study are to:

I. explore reward system characteristics in hospitality industry in Lagos state, Nigeriaii. determine the staff's opinion on the elements of employees' productivity
iii. investigate the most preferred reward system used in hospitality industry in Lagos state, Nigeria
iv. examine the extent to which reward systems for employees lead to effective employees productivity in the selected hospitality industry in Lagos State and
v. recommend preferred solutions for enhancing employees' productivity in future.

Lastly, the study tested the hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between the reward management system and employee productivity in the hospitality industry, Lagos state. Nigeria.
The population of this study represented all the staff members of one hundred and three (103) hotels registered under booking.com as hotels in Lagos state. The Yamane formula was used at 0.05 significance level to arrive at 82 hotels for this study. The study used purposive sampling, considering the availability of the respondents to select by cadre (stratum), four respondents per hotel resulting in the selection of 328 employees. The research instruments used for data collection were in-depth interviews and questionnaires.

Result and Discussion

Table 1 presented the descriptive analysis of the demography of the respondents in the study. From the table, it was seen that 30% of the respondents to the survey ere males, while females were 70%. This implies that, more females were found to be working in the selected hotels. This finding was probably like that because in Nigeria, females are more caring, especially to the visitors than male counterparts. The marital status of the respondents showed that single workers were 70%, married ones were 20.2% and divorcees were 9.8%. Furthermore, from the table 1, based on educational qualification, 40.8% of the respondents have OND and NCE, 49.3% have BSC and HND while 9.9% have MSc and MBA. The implication here was that there were more respondents that were single because hotels in Lagos have been observed to be known to be places where seex activities normally take place and therefore many Nigerian husbands would not ordinarily allow their spouses to work in such environments. Also, it was found that there were more respondents with OND and NCE working in the hotels, showing that the hotels' management probably prefered workers with OND/NCE to university degrees. In depth interview with managers revealed that this was because minimum wages payable by law to OND/NCE certificate holders were smaller than degree holders and also because OND/NCE holders educational training were more practical than degrees' holders whose education were believed to be theoretical .

The table 1 further revealed that 80.3% of the respondents have been in the job for less than 5 years. 9.9% have worked for 5-10 years, and 9.9% have worked above 10 years in hotels. This showed that the hotel management prefered younger generation to work in the hotels because, according to the in depth interview, they were more caring and respectful than the elderly ones. By the Nigerian culture, especially among the native Yorubas, its easier and more comfortable for the visitors to be entertained by young workers than the elderly ones.

Table 1 Breakdown of Demographic Data of the Respondents

Demographic Information		F	%
Gender	Male	64	30.0
	Female	149	70.0
Marital status	Single	149	70.0
	Married	43	20.2
	Divorced	21	9.8
Educational Qualification	Ond/nce	87	40.8
	Bsc/HND	105	49.3
	Msc/MBA	21	9.9
Experience on the Job	Less than 5 yrs	171	80.3
	5-10 yrs	21	9.9%
	Above 10 yrs	21	9.9%

Source: Field Survey. 2022

Reward System Characteristics in Hotels

Table 2 showed the descriptive analysis of respondents' opinions on the characteristics of the reward system in the study area. The table 2 showed that 36.2% of the respondents strongly agreed that there was an adequate pay package in the hotel, 31% agreed to that, 9.9% partially agreed, 7.5% disagreed, and 7.5% strongly disagreed. Again, the table 2 showed that 41.3% strongly agreed that fringe benefits were in place for all employees in the hotel. An in-depth interview with all the senior managers in the targeted hotels revealed that the fringe benefits encompassed incentives, appreciation, health benefits, bonuses and other salary packages that varied from one hotel to another depending on whether it was a one-star hotel, 2-star, 3-star, 4-star or 5-star hotels. The in-depth interview showed that salary and bonus packages were the most prominent and highly favoured in the reward system in the study area. The mean and standard deviation values showed that, on average, the respondents agreed that there was an adequate pay package in the hotel where they work. Furthermore, from the table 2, it was seen that 40.4% of the respondents strongly agreed that employees were recognised for the jobs that they were doing in the hotel.

Table 2: Descriptive Analysis of Reward System

Reward System	SA	A	PA	PD	D	SD	Mean	Total Standard Deviation
	F	F	F	F	F	F		
	%	%	%	%	%	%		
There is an adequate pay package in this hotel	77	66	21	16	17	16	4.57	1.58
	36.2%	31.0%	9.9%	7.5%	8.0%	7.5%		
Employees are recognised for jobs done in the hotel	86	52	21	23	15	16	4.58	1.61
	40.4%	24.4%	9.9%	10.8%	7.0%	7.5%		
There are fringe benefits in place for employees in this hotel	88	50	26	17	17	15	4.61	1.60
	41.3%	23.5%	12.2%	8.0%	8.0%	7.0%		
The salary in this hotel is comparable to what is paid in other hotels	76	62	17	22	17	15	4.54	1.60
	36.4%	29.7%	8.1%	10.5%	8.1%	7.2%		
Employees are not delayed when it is time for a promotion	90	33	22	37	15	16	4.46	1.67
	42.3%	15.5%	10.3%	17.4%	7.0%	7.5%		

Source: Field Survey, (2022)

This assertion was supported by 24.4% of the respondents agreeing to the statement and 9.9% partially agreeing. It was also shown that 10.8% of the respondents partially disagreed with the statement, with 7% and 7.5% supporting by disagreeing and strongly disagreeing, respectively. On average, the respondents agreed that employees were recognised for the jobs that they were doing in the hotel.

In an attempt to gauge the productivity capability of the targeted hotels in the study area, respondents were requested to offer their opinions on the feedback performance in their working places. Table 3 showed the interpretation of the descriptive analysis of the performance feedback.

Table 3: Descriptive Analysis of Performance Feedback

Performance Feedback	SA	A	PA	PD	D	SD	Mean	Total Standard Deviation
	F	F	F	F	F	F		
	%	%	%	%	%	%		
There is adequate feedback on my performance.	66	59	43	17	15	13	4.49	1.48
	31.0%	27.7%	20.2%	8.0%	7.0%	6.1%		
The work activities in this hotel provide direct and clear information about the effectiveness	67	71	22	22	16	15	4.50	1.55
	31.5%	33.3%	10.3%	10.3%	7.5%	7.0%		
My supervisor provides me with information about my performance in this hotel	48	71	27	17	34	16	4.16	1.62
	22.5%	33.3%	12.7%	8.0%	16.0%	7.5%		
My weaknesses are revealed from my performance in this hotel	48	94	0	39	32	0	4.41	1.40
	22.5%	44.1%	0.0%	18.3%	15.0%	0.0%		
There is room for improvement on this job	48	81	38	16	15	15	4.40	1.46
	22.5%	38.0%	17.8%	7.5%	7.0%	7.0%		

Source: *Field Survey, (2022).*

The respondents believed that there was adequate feedback on their performance, where 31.0% strongly agreed, 27.7% agreed, and 20.2% partially agreed, while 8.0% partially disagreed and 7.0% disagreed, with 6.1% strongly disagreed. A mean of 4.49 affirmed that the respondents strongly agreed that there was adequate feedback on their performance. When asked if the work activities in hotel provide direct and clear information for their effectiveness on the job, 31.5% had a strongly agreed opinion, 33.3% agreed, and 10.3% partially, while 10.3% also partially disagreed, 7.5% disagreed, with 7.5% strongly disagreed. A mean of 4.50 showed that the respondents agreed that the work activities in hotel provided direct and clear information about their effectiveness on the job and at their work posts. Responses to the following statement in the questionnaire- "My supervisor provide me with information about my performance in this hotel' showed that 22.5% strongly agreed, 33.3% agreed, 12.7% partially agreed, and 8.0% partially disagreed. In comparison, 16.0% disagreed and 7.5% strongly disagreed. A mean of 4.16 and standard deviation of 1.62 indicated that the respondents tended to agree that supervisors provided them with information about their performances in the hotel.

Furthermore, 22.5% strongly agreed that their weaknesses were revealed from their performances in the hotel, with 44.1% agreed, while 18.3% partially disagreed and 15.0% disagreed, with a mean score of 4.41 and a standard deviation of 1.40. This showed that respondents agreed that their weaknesses were revealed from their performances in the hotel. Lastly, respondents' opinions on whether there was room for improvement on their job varied; 22.5% strongly agreed, 38.0% agreed, and 17.8% partially agreed, while 7.5% partially disagreed, 7.0% disagreed with a mean score of 4.40 and standard deviation of 1.46. This showed that, on average, the respondents agreed that their job had room for improvement.

Also, to gauge the productivity capability of the targeted workers in the study area, respondents were requested to offer their opinions on the employees' performances at their working places. Their responses were presented in table 4 which showed that 40.4% of the respondents strongly agreed that there was an opportunity for employee participation, while 26.8% agreed. Differing opinion showed that 8.0% of the respondents partially disagreed that there was an opportunity for employee participation, 17.8% disagreed, and 7.0% strongly disagreed. The mean value of 4.43 and standard deviation of 1.77 showed that the respondents strongly agreed that there was an opportunity for employee participation. The table also showed that 22.1% of the respondents strongly agreed that workers were allowed to use their initiatives with 29.1% agreed while 15.0% partially agreed. Opposing responses showed that 8.0% partially disagreed and 8.0% strongly disagreed, while 17.8% of the respondents disagreed that workers were allowed to use their initiatives. The mean value of 4.06 and and standard deviation of 1.64 showed that on average, the respondents agreed that workers were allowed to use their initiatives. Furthermore, 41.3% of the respondents strongly agreed that workers were allowed to serve as checks on each other's performances. The divergent opinions showed that 7.5% partially disagreed that workers were allowed to serve as checks on each other's performance, 17.8% disagreed

and 8.0% strongly disagreed. The mean value of 4.31 and standard deviation of 1.80 showed that on the average, the respondents strongly agreed that workers were allowed to serve as checks on each other's performance. Additionally, the table 3 revealed that 30.5% of the respondents strongly agreed that workers tried to avoid absenteeism, 16.4% agreed, and 20.7% partially agreed. Contrarily, 9.9% of the respondents partially disagreed, 15.5% disagreed and 7.0% strongly disagreed. With a mean value of 4.15 and a standard deviation of 1.65, the respondents, on average strongly agreed that workers try to avoid absenteeism. Finally, the table revealed that 29.6% of the respondents strongly agreed that their customers were satisfied with services rendered by workers; 34.7% agreed, and 10.3% partially agreed. Differing views on the responses showed that 9.9% of the respondents partially disagreed that customers were satisfied with services rendered by workers, 8.0% disagreed and 7.5% strongly disagreed. The mean value of 4.46 and standard deviation of 1.56 revealed that on average, the respondents agreed that customers were satisfied with services rendered by the workers.

Table 4. Descriptive Analysis of Employee Performance Appraisal

Employee Performance Appraisal	SA	A	PA	PD	D	SD	Total	
	F	F	F	F	F	F	Mean	Standard Deviation
	%	%	%	%	%	%		
There is an opportunity for employee participation	86	57	0	17	38	15	4.43	1.77
	40.4%	26.8%	0.0%	8.0%	17.8%	7.0%		
Workers are allowed to use their initiatives	47	62	32	17	38	17	4.06	1.64
	22.1%	29.1%	15.0%	8.0%	17.8%	8.0%		
Workers are allowed to serve as checks on each other's performance.	88	32	22	16	38	17	4.31	1.80
	41.3%	15.0%	10.3%	7.5%	17.8%	8.0%		
Workers try to avoid absenteeism	65	35	44	21	33	15	4.15	1.65
	30.5%	16.4%	20.7%	9.9%	15.5%	7.0%		
Our customers are satisfied with services rendered by our workers	63	74	22	21	17	16	4.46	1.56
	29.6%	34.7%	10.3%	9.9%	8.0%	7.5%		

Source: Field Survey, (2022)

Table 5 showed the descriptive analysis of respondents (Management) on employee productivity. Here, it could be seen that 31.9% of the respondents strongly agreed that the work quality of employees improved because of the motivation derived from the reward system, 34.7% agreed, 9.9% of respondents partially agreed, 7.5% partially disagreed, while 8.0% disagreed and 8.0% strongly disagreed with mean = 4.51 and standard deviation = 1.58; meaning that, on the average the respondents (Managers) agreed that the work quality of employees improved due to the motivation derived from the

reward system. Furthermore, 23.5% of the respondents strongly agreed that workers completed tasks with speed while 31.5% agreed and 19.7% partially agreed. Other opinions showed that 9.9% partially disagreed, while 8.0% disagreed and 7.5% strongly disagreed with a mean of 4.28 and standard deviation of 1.52. Table 5 revealed further that 23.0% of the respondents strongly agreed that workers discharged their duties efficiently while 31.5% agreed and 19.7% partially agreed; with 9.9% partially disagreed, 8.0% disagreed and 8.0% strongly disagreed. The mean value of 4.28 and standard deviation of 1.52 showed that in overall; the respondents agreed that workers discharged their duties efficiently.

Additionally, 23.9% of the respondents strongly agreed that workers gave attention to priority tasks in the hotels while 31.9% of the respondents agreed and 19.7% partially disagreed. On the contrary, 9.9% of the respondents partially disagreed, and another 7.5% disagreed and 7.0% strongly disagreed. A mean value of 4.34 and a standard deviation of 1.49 revealed that respondents agreed that workers gave attention to prioritising tasks in the hotel. Also, table 5 showed that 13.1% of the respondents strongly agreed that workers put in necessary work effort while 54.0% agreed, 7.5% partially agreed. Contrary opinions revealed that 10.3% of the respondents partially disagreed that workers put in necessary efforts to accomplish their tasks on the job, 8.0% disagreed and 7.0% strongly disagreed. The mean value of 4.33 and SD of 1.42 showed that the respondents agreed our workers put in the necessary commitment on the job. Table 5 revealed that 20.7% of the respondents strongly agreed that customers were given maximum attention and care with 46.9% agreed and 9.9% partially agreed. Other opinions revealed that 7.5% of the respondents partially disagreed, 7.5% disagreed and 7.5% strongly disagreed. The mean value of 4.43 and standard deviation of 1.47 showed that the respondents agreed that customers were given maximum attention and care. Furthermore, 24.9% of the respondents strongly agreed that workers spent less time to achieve reliable results, 30.0% agreed while 19.7% partially agreed. On the contrary, 9.9% of the respondents partially disagreed with 8.0% disagreed and 7.5% strongly disagreed.

Table 5: Descriptive Analysis of Employee Productivity based on Managers' opinions

Employee Productivity	SA	A	PA	PD	D	SD	Total	
	F %	F %	F %	F %	F %	F %	Mean	Standard Deviation
The work quality of our employees has improved	68 31.9%	74 34.7%	21 9.9%	16 7.5%	17 8.0%	17 8.0%	4.51	1.58
Our workers complete tasks with speed	50 23.5%	67 31.5%	42 19.7%	21 9.9%	17 8.0%	16 7.5%	4.30	1.51
Our workers discharge their duties efficiently	49 23.0%	67 31.5%	42 19.7%	21 9.9%	17 8.0%	17 8.0%	4.28	1.52
Our workers give attention to priority tasks in this hotel	51 23.9%	68 31.9%	42 19.7%	21 9.9%	16 7.5%	15 7.0%	4.34	1.49
Our workers put in the necessary time on the job in this hotel	28 13.1%	115 54.0%	16 7.5%	22 10.3%	17 8.0%	15 7.0%	4.33	1.42
Our customers are given maximum attention and care	44 20.7%	100 46.9%	21 9.9%	16 7.5%	16 7.5%	16 7.5%	4.43	1.47
Our workers spend less time to achieve reliable results	53 24.9%	64 30.0%	42 19.7%	21 9.9%	17 8.0%	16 7.5%	4.31	1.52
Our customers provide positive feedbacks on the actions of our workers	49 23.0%	68 31.9%	20 9.4%	38 17.8%	21 9.9%	17 8.0%	4.16	1.59
Our workers are good at time management	74 34.7%	62 29.1%	22 10.3%	19 8.9%	20 9.4%	16 7.5%	4.48	1.61
Our workers have shown great consistency on the job	72 33.8%	46 21.6%	16 7.5%	42 19.7%	21 9.9%	16 7.5%	4.27	1.67

Source: Field Survey, 2022.

With a mean of 4.31 and a standard deviation of 1.52, the respondents agreed that workers spent less time achieving reliable results. Also, the table 5 revealed that 23.0% of the respondents strongly agreed that customers provide positive feedback on the actions of workers, 31.9% agreed and 9.4% partially agreed. The contrary views showed that 17.8% of the respondents partially disagreed while 9.9% disagreed and 8.0 strongly disagreed. The mean value of 4.16 and standard deviation of 1.59 implied that, on average, the respondents agreed that customers provided positive feedback on the actions of workers. Additionally, the table 5 revealed that 34.7% of the respondents strongly agreed that their workers were good at time management, 29.1% agreed, and 10.3% partially agreed. Contrarily, 8.9% of the respondents partially disagreed, 9.4% disagreed and 7.5% strongly disagreed. With a mean value of 4.48 and a standard deviation of 1.61, the respondents strongly agreed that workers were good at time management. Finally, the table 5 revealed that 33.8% of the respondents strongly agreed that workers had shown great consistency on the job, 21.6% agreed, and 7.5% partially agreed. Differing views on the responses showed that 19.7% of the respondents partially disagreed that workers had shown great consistency on the job, 9.9% disagreed and 7.5% strongly disagreed. The mean value of 4.27 and standard deviation of 1.67 revealed that, on average, the respondents agreed that workers had shown great consistency on the job.

The study tested the hypothesis that there will be no significant relationship between the performance management system (reward system) and employee productivity in the hospitality

industry in Lagos state, Nigeria. Table 6 showed the Pearson product-moment correlation result of the test of the relationship between the reward system and employee productivity. The table 6 revealed that the R value = 0.685. This implied that a 68.5% correlation existed between the reward system and employee productivity. The p-value of the analysis was seen to be 0.000, which was less than 0.05 alphas. With this, the analysis is statistically significant. The implication here is that there is a significant relationship between the reward system and employee productivity.

Table 6: Pearson Product Moment Correlation Result between Reward System and Employee Productivity.

		Reward System	Employee Productivity
Reward System	Pearson Correlation	1	.685**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	213	213
Employee Productivity	Pearson Correlation	.685**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	213	213

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

Source: Field Survey, (2022).

Discussion of Findings

In line with the objective one, the findings confirmed that one of the characteristics of the reward system in the hospitality industry in Lagos state, Nigeria is the adequacy of the pay package. The majority of the respondents, about 77% gave positive responses to confirm ths assertion in table 2, comprising of 36.2% strongly agreed (SA), 31% (Agreed) and 10% partially agreed (PA). Another characteristic is that good employees were normally recognised by the management and rewarded with bonuses in addition to their normal salary package. The majority, about 74% gave positive responses to affirm ths assertion in table 2, comprising of 40.4% (SA), 24% (Agreed) and 10% (PA); while the majority, about 77% comprising of 41.3% (SA), 23.5% (Agreed) and 12.2% (PA) affirmed that the hospitality industry had adequate fringe benefits for all employees in the study area. Another characteristic of the reward system in the hospitality industry as shown in table 2 is that the reward system is prioritised (comparable to other hotels) as majority of about 74% were positive to this assertion with 36.4% (SA), 29.7% (Agreed and 8.1% (PA). This implied that all the hotels have a harmonised reward system, and there was a flow of communication among all the hotels' management. This finding reduced labour turnover and the mobility of workers in the hospitality industry. Another

characteristic was that there was a good structure in place that captured in time those employees that were due for promotion, as the majority of about 68% gave positive responses comprising of 42.3% (SA), 15.5% (Agreed) and 10.3% (PA) to affirm that employees were not unnecessarily delayed when it was time for promotion.

Concerning the objective 2, the respondents agreed that Employees Performance Appraisal and Employees Performance Feedback motivated Employees' Productivity in the hotel industry. About 79% majority in table 3 comprising of 31% (SA), 27.7% (Agreed) and 20.2% (PA) affirmed posssitively that there was adequate employee performance feedback. Likewise, the majority of about 69% in table 3 comprising of 22.5% (SA), 33% (Agreed) and 13% (PA) affirmed positively that there was adequate Employees Performance Appraisal that allowed enough employee participation in the management style of the industry. Also, the majority of about 67% in table 4 comprising of 40.4% (SA) and 26.8% (Agreed) affirmed positively that there was adequate Employee participation in the Employees Performance Appraisal exercise that allowed enough employee participation in the management of the industry.

In line with the objective 3, the study showed that the most favoured reward package in the study area was the salary with bonuses/fringe benefits. The majority of about 79% in table 2 comprising of 41.3% (SA), 23.5% (Agreed) and 12.2% affirmed positively that there was adequate fringe benefits including bonuses that motivated employee for higher productivity in the industry. An in-depth interview with all the senior managers of the hotels revealed that the fringe benefits encompass incentives, appreciation, health benefits, bonuses and other salary packages that might varry from one hotel to another depending on whether it was a one-star hotel, 2-star, 3-star, 4-star or 5-star hotels. The in-depth interview also revealed that salary and bonus packages are the most prominent and highly favoured in the reward system packages.

The study also showed that reward system ((β =.106, t = 2.843, P <.05), (r = 0.685)), has a relative influence and significant relationship with employee productivity. Thus, in explaining objective 4, this study showed that Reward is an important factor in enhancing employees' productivity. Therefore, in tune with the objective 5, the reward system should be well harmonised and maintained to improve continuous employee productivity in the industry.

Conclusion and Recommendations

This study was designed to investigate the effect of reward management on employee Productivity in the hospitality industry in Lagos state, Nigeria. The population for this study comprised of all the one hundred and three hotels registered under booking.com as hotels in Lagos state. The Yamane formula was used to arrive at 82 hotels as samples for this study. Also, the study used purposive sampling, considering the availability of the respondents to select four (4) respondents per hotel. A multistage

sampling method was used to select 328 employees. The research instruments used for data collection were questionnaire and indepth interview. Data were analysed using descriptive and regression statistics tools. The results showed the existence of a well-structured reward system in the study area, characterised by employees' recognition for jobs well done in the hotel, availability of adequate fringe benefits and bonuses for employees together with competitive salary packages and timely promotion, without delays for employees that performed well. The study further showed that most preferred reward packages include salary and bonus packages. The reward system ((β =.106, t = 2.843, P <.05), (r = 0.685)) was shown to have relative influence and significant relationship with employee's productivity. The study concluded that reward management practice is a very important factor in enhancing the productivity of employees, as evidenced by the study.

It is recommended that the Organisation should take reward management system very important for effective and efficient employees' productivity.

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