

**INFLUENCE OF TRANS-BORDER TRADING ACTIVITIES ON SENIOR  
SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS' ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE IN  
ECONOMICS IN OGUN STATE, NIGERIA**

**BY**

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**(201613959)**

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**AT THE**

**UNIVERSITY OF FORT HARE**

**SUPERVISOR: PROFESSOR EMMANUEL O. ADU**

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I, Titus, Adesegun Benedict, with student number 201613959, solemnly declare that this thesis titled “Influence of trans-border trading activities on senior secondary school students’ academic performance in economics in Ogun state, Nigeria” is my original work. All sources used or quoted in the study have been indicated and acknowledged by way of reference.

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## ABSTRACT

The study investigated the influence of transborder trading activities on senior secondary school students' academic performance in economics in Ogun state, Nigeria. A descriptive survey research design involving 320 students that comprised males and females were selected through stratified random sampling technique. Two self-developed instruments were used: student questionnaire on transborder trading activities (SQTTA) with a Cronbach alpha index of 0.7845; and the economics achievement test (EAT) with a co-efficient index of  $r= 0.814$ . The results of the data collected were collated, coded, analyzed and interpreted through the use of descriptive research statistics of frequency, mean, percentages, and standard deviation while Step-wise regression analysis was used to test the hypotheses raised in the study, and the inferential statistics t-test was used to test the significant differences between the independent and dependent variables. The results revealed that there is a positive significant influence of smuggling on students' academic performance in economics concepts ( $t=4.123$ ;  $df =307$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) and a negative significant influence of school location on students' academic performance in economics concepts ( $t=0.952$ ;  $df=307$ ,  $p>0.05$ ). The study revealed that the most prevalent transborder trading activities like smuggling of used tyres, small firearms and fairly used clothes had negative influence on students' academic performance. Based on these findings, discussions were focused on the involvement of students in trans-border trading activities and the location of schools, amongst others, which has no significant influence on students' academic performance. However, it was recommended that schools should not be located near border areas in future.

**Keywords:** transborder trade, economics, smuggling, school location, human trafficking, academic performance.

## **DEDICATION**

This project is dedicated to the glory of Almighty God and also to my lovely wife Abiodun and our children, David, Deborah and Isaac

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## KEY ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS USED

<b>AERA</b>	American Education Research Association
<b>AfDB</b>	African Development Bank
<b>CBT</b>	Cross Border Trade
<b>CET</b>	Common External Tariffs
<b>COMESA</b>	Common Market for East and Southern Africa
<b>DRC</b>	Democratic Republic of Congo
<b>EAC</b>	East African Community
<b>EAT</b>	Economics Achievement Test
<b>ECOWAS</b>	Economic Community of West African States
<b>FAO</b>	Food and Agricultural Organisation
<b>FEWSNET</b>	Famine Early Warning System Network
<b>FTZ</b>	Free Trade Zone
<b>GAATW</b>	Global Alliance against Traffic in Women
<b>HGSF</b>	Home Grown School Feeding
<b>HRP</b>	Human Rights Policy
<b>HRW</b>	Human Rights Watch
<b>ICBT</b>	Informal Cross Border Trade
<b>ILO</b>	International Labour Organisation
<b>IMU</b>	International Mathematics Union
<b>IOM</b>	International Organisation for Migration
<b>IRIN</b>	Integrated Regional Information Networks
<b>JAMB UTME</b>	Joint Admission and Matriculation Board Unified

	Tertiary Matriculation Examination
<b>LCS</b>	Land Customs Stations
<b>LGA's</b>	Local Government Areas
<b>NABTEB</b>	National Business and Technical Education Board
<b>NAPTIP</b>	National Agency for the Prohibition of Trafficking in Persons
<b>NECO</b>	National Examinations Council
<b>NGO's</b>	Non- Governmental Organizations
<b>NHTRC</b>	National Human Trafficking Resource Center
<b>NSDC</b>	Nigerian Security and Civil Defense Corps
<b>OECD</b>	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
<b>OGME</b>	Ogun State Ministry of Education
<b>OSBP</b>	One-Stop Border Post
<b>SADC</b>	South African Development Commission
<b>SALW</b>	Small Arms and Light Weapons
<b>SAP</b>	Structural Adjustment Programme
<b>SIRESS</b>	SADC Integrated Regional Electronic Settlement System
<b>SSS</b>	Senior Secondary School
<b>SQTBT</b>	Student Questionnaire on Trans-Border Trade
<b>TBT</b>	Trans-Border Trade
<b>TIP</b>	Trafficking in Persons

<b>UNCTAD</b>	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
<b>UNDFW</b>	United Nations Development Fund for Women
<b>UNECA</b>	United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
<b>UNESCO</b>	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
<b>UNICEF</b>	United Nations International Children Education Fund
<b>UNIFEM</b>	United Nations Development Fund for Women
<b>UNODC</b>	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
<b>US</b>	United States
<b>USAID</b>	US Agency for International Development
<b>VAT</b>	Value Added Tax
<b>WASSCE</b>	West African Senior School Certificate Examination

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## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY**

#### **1.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter serves as an overview and introduction of the study. It is aimed at contextualizing the problem under study from international, regional and national background and perspectives. The chapter also outlines the statement of the problem, research questions and hypotheses, purpose of the study, research objectives, and significance of the study. It also presents definitions of the key terms, and highlights the scope of the study. The following section is a representation of the background to the study.

#### **1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY**

For several decades, trading in goods and services including human beings has cut across tribes, religions, sex and boundaries. Trade can be domestic (local) or across a country's geographical boundaries (international) (Titus, 2008). Several years ago, trading involved the exchange of goods for goods (Barter system) before the introduction of money as a medium of exchange (Adeyinka, 2015; Titus, 2014). Trading thus involves everyday buying and selling (Hukportie, 2014), and formal exchange of goods and services premised on the conditions of demand and supply (Afolayan, 2010).

Resulting from these, trade across a country's geo-political border becomes relatively easy, therefore, transborder trade came into being in which people from different parts of the world walk across borders to exchange products – some legally and others illegally – all with the main motive of making profits and meeting the needs of the family (Titus, 2014).

Prior to the colonial era, states in Africa were not characterized by hard geographical borders, with rulers having limited control over territory and movement of people. The Berlin Conference of 1884 led to the sharing of Africans among colonial masters, hence

creating borders based on their control over the areas. These arbitrarily created boundaries that separated regions with long standing ethnic ties and kinship often without clear geographical or social separations (Hoffman & Paul, 2015; Afolayan, 2010). Colonial borders remain the basis for national boundaries following independence of most West African countries in the 1960s, while border demarcations were not contested in principle, frail states find it difficult to control their border areas effectively.

Due to poor management, African borders are very porous with about 109 international boundaries covering about 28,000 miles, of which only less than a quarter is demarcated with about 350 official road crossing points and less border personnel to man it (Seniora & Poitevin, 2013; Golub, 2012; Raballand & Mjekiqi, 2010; Okunmu, 2008).

Borders remain pivotal to understanding the independence of a state, despite recent developments such as technological changes and globalization which appears to reduce the physical relevance of these delimitation lines between countries.

People living in border regions often have their own dynamics for cooperation which do not take into cognizance the natural constraints linked to the existence of a border (Faleye, 2015; Afolayan, 2010). The two main socio-economic practices that take place across an international border are first the movement of people and then the movement of goods for the purpose of trade. This movement is a bonding process that links people on both sides of the border; hence breaking down of artificially imposed barriers, which is a creation of the colonial masters, and this, generates interaction among the people within the border zone (Afolayan, 2010). Loyalty between cross border communities sometimes suppresses allegiance to the state which is due largely to the communities' mistrust (Bonchuck, 2012) with government agents, and also because the government fails to consider the economic well-being of borderland dwellers before erecting barriers which block their means of livelihood thus leaving them impoverished. This reason may be adduced for people's attitude of sabotaging government rules and regulations at border posts at the detriment of the country's well-being and economic development.

The line drawn by the colonial masters to demarcate the border damages the fundamental economic units of residents of border towns and these to a large extent results in a dwindling fortune for residents of borderlands. The cost of carrying out their economic activities (trade) across the artificial borders has increased due to physical barriers imposed by government to protect the artificial barriers. Residents of the border community are relatively poor, and they do not enjoy government's presence in terms of infrastructure as a result of neglect; this is presumed to be one of the reasons why they sabotage the government's national policy (Seniora & Poitevin, 2013; Browne, 2013). Ojo (2015) states that many villages' linking borders provide a hideout for smugglers and smuggling activities among Africans, with particular reference to West Africa due to porous borders and ethnic solidarity among border landers over national interests, issues relating to borders go beyond drawing mere lines on maps, but the fundamental political institution in the economic and political life of a nation established by political decisions and backed up by law without which no nation can survive (Bonchuck, 2012).

When a state disintegrates, the treaties concerning its borders remain in force as the border will continue to be in existence even if a state ceases to be one. However, borders cannot exist without the identity of individuals because the conditions for claims to nationality and exercise of rights of citizenship are defined by the border; without the border no one can lay claim to any state because borders define the boundaries of each state and not the reverse (Titus, 2008). Within its borders the state is a self-governing authority. The doctrine of autonomy remains a crucial part of thinking about states and relations among them. This doctrine of sovereignty simply means that states have total control over their territories and can impose control at their border posts (Bonchuck, 2012).

Transborder trade is an activity that increases competition among buyers and sellers. It supplies formal or informal products across borders, provides employment opportunities in neighbouring countries, and encourages entrepreneurial activities (Afolayan, 2010; Meagher, 2008). As such it cannot be treated in isolation without

emphasis on such concepts such as border, border lands, smuggling and human trafficking among others (Titus, 2008).

According to Lesser & Moise-Leeman (2009), transborder trade is a trading activity which involves lawfully produced goods and services that escape the government regulatory framework, hence evading certain tax, duties and other regulatory burdens fully or partially. Such trade involves passing through unofficial routes, such as *Fayawo* (old roads), abandoned roads or bush paths used by smugglers to move goods from one point to another (Titus, 2008) to avoid the prying eyes of custom controls (Ojo, 2015; Adeyinka, 2015). Even those that pass through official routes with border crossing points and custom offices may do so with illegal practices.

Transborder trade mostly involves the same set of people whose stay is relatively short. This type of movement can succinctly be regarded as international migration because it involves moving across a country's border which is subject to legal restrictions and regulations as laid down by the country (Afolayan, 2010). Due to increase in population coupled with rapid urbanization and the deregulation of the economy, both formal and informal trade have been on the increase. Though largely unrecognized in the African economy, transborder trade is crucial because it has led to reduction in the level of poverty and unemployment and it equally serves as a source of income, breaking all forms of gender, religious, age and ethnic barriers (Hoffman & Paul, 2015; Yusuff, 2014).

According to Tayo, Chukwuedozie, & Ozoya (2015) women's trading activities and contributions to the growth of the economy in South-West Nigeria have always been substantial in the region's rural and urban livelihoods, with an ample proportion of transborder trade in the region concerned with the provision of staple foods. In Africa, transborder trade features prominently among women's individual strategies for job creation, poverty reduction and wealth creation. According to the International Labour Organization's study conducted in 2004, transborder trade provides 60% of employment in the non-agricultural sector in sub-Saharan Africa and the main source of employment among self-employed women.

Discrimination against women calls for serious urgent attention especially those involved in transborder trade (Yusuff, 2014). This act is more pronounced in border areas due to neglect and particularly women's inability to access information about the recent developments and current best practices coupled with the fact that border areas suffer neglect in the hands of government (Bonchuck, 2012).

Tayo et al. (2015) state that women suffer from various forms of violence unleashed on them while carrying out their daily activities in order to earn a living and cater for their families' immediate needs. Such deprivations include verbal abuse, sexual harassment, and rape, confiscation of goods by government agencies, corruption and stigmatization. However, women cross-border traders in the West African sub-region are not easily discouraged; they are strong and resolute in spite of the challenges they face on a daily basis in order to survive. The majority of the women involved in cross-border trading activities in the sub-region face the burden of taking care of children, maintaining the home and generating income for the sustenance of the family. Since transborder trade is a global phenomenon, there is need to have an overview of it in different continents of the world.

### **1.2.1 Transborder Trade in Asia**

In the Asian continent, the agreement reached on border trade between India and its neighboring states has really helped their foreign trade relations (Das, 2014). Prior to this period there has been no concrete agreement among the countries on the issue of transborder trade. The commencement of India border trade with China was the aftermath of Ghandi's visit in 1988, thus normalizing relations in order to deepen bilateral agreement in all fields (Ministry of External Affairs, Government of India, 2014).

India and China agreed to establish a Joint Working Group (JWG) to resolve the boundary issue and expand bilateral economic cooperation. These agreements paved the way for restarting border trade by designated Gunji in Pithoragrah district and Pulan in Tibet Autonomous Region (TAR) as trading markets, and Lipulekh.

For instance, the series of Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) signed between India and her neighbors – China in December 1991, trade pact with Myanmar in 1994, and Pakistan in 2008 –was to shore up her image as a display of political maturity and a

nation that is interested in the peace of its region. This development led to the trade link between China, Pakistan, Taiwan, Bangladesh and Sri-Lanka to mention a few, and this has further strengthened the economic, traditional and socio-cultural bonds between these countries, providing an alternative means of income to the people living in and around border towns with a depleted economy. As a result of the resuscitation of transborder trade between India and China, this generated a lot of interest among the residents of the border villages as revealed in the number of people who cross the border for the purpose of trading. When the Shipki La route was reopened in 1994, the influx of Indian traders visiting Tibetan mart in Jiuba increased (Hindustan Times, 2014). At the domestic level, there was a substantial improvement in the domestic economy even though the border trade between India and China resulted in low economic benefits to the border people.

From this move stemmed smuggling in essential commodities since there is a legitimate basis for the exchange of goods and services across the Indo-China border. Presently, transborder trade along the Indo-China border takes place through the following land custom stations (LCS): Gunji-Pulam, Namgaya Shupki La-Jiuba and Sherathang Renqingyang border lines (Das, 2014). The significance of border trade for these nations is that firstly, at the international level it serves as an image building exercise at minimal cost in order to project India and its neighbors as mature political entities committed to peace and tranquility within its region. At the bilateral level, border trade is a major confidence building measure especially between India and China, India and Pakistan and other neighboring countries as this decreases skirmishes and mistrust and encourages positive engagements, hence stabilizing the borders by reducing frictions and more importantly gives a legal basis to the previously disputed international borders.

The opening of trade routes at the local level impacted positively on the emotional and economic well-being of the people residing in the border towns who no longer feel alienated (Das, 2014).

Items of trade comprise of primary products such as spices, flour, cycles, utensils, agricultural implements, shoes, etc., and secondary products such as goats, sheep,



horses, sheep skin, yak hair and tail which are produced for exports (Das, 2014) while in the sub-Saharan region of West Africa along the Nigeria- Benin borders, articles of trade include items such as gasoline, frozen foods, used cars called "TOKUNBO'S", fairly used clothes, etc. (Faleye, 2015; Titus 2008).

In the context of transborder trade in Asia, border trade is referred to as the exchange of commodities based on agreement reached on a bi-lateral basis on the type of product to be exchanged by residents on both sides of the border. In other regions of the world such as Africa, border trade connotes the exchange of goods and services across the border with the intention to evade payment of tax and other charges (Titus, 2008). In other words, it is a trade in local products of limited value to the people residing along the border areas. The basis for cross- border trade in the Asian region arises from two major factors. First, the remoteness of the border areas, which makes it difficult for the local people to get to commercial centres and sell their wares and even to buy items used daily within the national boundaries. The second is the traditional, socio-cultural and economic connections that border dwellers share across the border, which provide them with a natural environment for greater economic interactions (Ojo, 2015; Das, 2014).

Border trade serves as another method for border residents to earn income in the economically depressed areas not only in the Asian region but also in East Africa (Titeca, 2012), West Africa especially border towns along Owode-Idiroko axis (Titus, Dada, & Adu, 2016; Faleye, 2015; Blum, 2014; Hukportie, 2014), and in the SADC region (Kachere, 2011). In India, China and other parts of Asia, successful conduct of border trade also limits smuggling in essential items as it provides legitimacy to traditional exchange of commodities, but is reverse in West Africa as smuggling of goods across the border become the norm with its consequent adverse effect on the economy of nations such as Nigeria (Dobler, 2016; Hoffman & Paul, 2015; Ojo, 2015).

### **1.2.2 Transborder Trade in South Africa**

According to Nshimbi and Fioramonti (2013), there are 2.2 million (3.7%) migrants in the entire population of the SADC region, and of this figure Southern Africa has 1.2million while Botswana and Namibia both have 76,000 migrants respectively. The Southern

African region is easy to penetrate with sizeable transborder activities that have political and economic implications. The participation of traders from the SADC region in the Southern Africa informal sector dates back to the early 1990s. Just as formal trade, informal trade between South Africa and other member countries in the sub-region, such as Zimbabwe, Zambia, Mozambique and Botswana, has continued to increase.

The pattern of informal trading in the SADC region varies enormously when compared with other regions especially with regards to the frequency of times traders cross the border for the purpose of trading articles; while some traders cross the borders once in a year, others cross at least once in a month (Hukportie, 2014). In the same vein, cross-border traders along the Benin-Nigerian border move on a daily, weekly and monthly basis across the borders for the purpose of trade (Titus, 2008).

In a similar research carried out by Hukportie (2014), 22% traders cross the border once a month, 20% twice, and 18.7% of the respondents cross the border thrice a month, while 18% and 21.3% cross the borders more than four times and several times respectively - a contradiction to the frequency of movement of traders along the Lagos-Seme-Benin border where traders cross the border on a daily basis (Ojo, 2015; Adeyinka, 2015; Blum, 2014; Titus, 2008). However, in all cases male and female are involved in these cross border trade with the men staying for longer periods than the women (Kachere, 2011).

Africa's contribution to global trade is less than 3% in 2009, compared with that of Latin America which stood at 6% and a higher contribution of 28% by Asia, with the major challenge of how to improve the transportation of goods and services across geo-political boundaries, hence building an efficient border post and custom procedures (Habiba Ben Barka, 2012). In a recent study carried out by Ama, Mangadi, Okurut, and Ama (2013) with 530 traders in four selected borders of Botswana under the SADC region, it shows how profitable transborder trade is as income earned by those involved in the trade is over ten times more than the minimum wage of an average worker in Botswana with a gross profit margin of 54.99%.

The table below captures the demographic characteristics of the respondents in Ama et al.'s (2013) study.

**Table1.1: Demographic characteristics of the respondents (Ama et al., 2013)**

Respondents Age	Male		Female	
	F	%	F	%
18-21	9	5%	13	4%
22-25	24	12%	41	13%
26-30	60	30%	69	19%
31-35	61	30%	99	31%
36-40	26	13%	67	21%
41-45	12	6%	19	6%
46 and above	9	5%	21	7%
<b>Enrolment status</b>				
Employed in public service	22	11%	37	12%
Employed in private sector	32	16%	31	10%
Self employed	87	43%	121	38%
Unemployed	60	30%	130	41%
<b>Marital status</b>				
Single (Never married)	85	42%	140	44%
Married	58	29%	108	34%
Divorced	15	8%	23	7%
Widowed	0	0%	16	5%
Co-habiting	43	21%	32	10%
<b>Highest qualification</b>				
No schooling	16	8%	12	4%
Primary certificate	21	10%	29	9%
Junior certificate	39	19%	67	21%
Senior secondary school	61	30%	105	33%
Certificate/ Diploma	37	18%	62	19%
Others	5	3%	0	0%

Number of years in TBT	1-5	166	83%	237	74%
	6-10	29	14%	71	22%
	11-15	6	3%	11	3%

As revealed in the table, more women (62.1% (329)) are involved in cross-border trade than men (37.9% (201)). The employment status reveals that of the 201 males involved in the study, 54 (27%) were gainfully employed in both the private and public sector, while 68 (22%) female out of 329 were employed in the public and private sector. Eighty-seven (43%) males were self-employed, while 121 (38%) females were self-employed, and 130 (41%) females and 60 (30%) males were unemployed. This proves that more females partake in cross- border trade as a result of unemployment that pervades the economy. Most of the people involved in transborder trade in the study conducted in Botswana are single (never married) with a higher percentage of females (44%) than males (42%). There are also more married women than men in this trade: 34% and 29% respectively. With regard to academic qualification, 16 (8%) male respondents did not attend school at all and 12 (4%) female respondents never attended school.

Only 60 (29%) male and 96 (30%) female respondents have basic education (junior secondary school certificate), while 98 (48%) males and 167 (54%) females possess either a school certificate or diploma. Thirty-seven (18%) of the male respondents are university graduates and 62 (19%) female respondents are also university graduates.

Forty-four females have professional certificates compared with 22 males. The female respondents did not have any other academic qualification but five male respondents had other qualifications.

The table further revealed the number of years the respondents had participated in transborder trade. There were more male respondents than female who spent one to five years in trading, while those who have spent between 6-10 years indicated that women (22%) have spent more years than men (14%), and finally, for the 10-15 years

range the percentage for both male and female respondents were equal (3%). The articles of trade included grains, art works, and agricultural products and so on. One major limitation to cross- border trade in this region is the restriction at the border due to visa applications (Kachere, 2011), with the reverse being the case along the border between Nigeria and Benin republic as traders are not interested in applying for visas but instead offer bribes (Hukportie, 2014) to the government agents (immigration and customs officers) so as to have a free access to the borders to carry out their trade (Adeyinka, 2015).

### **1.2.3 Transborder Trade in East African Community (EAC)**

In the East African Community (EAC) there is a rich culture of cross- border trade. Many cross\_border markets were already in existence before colonial state boundaries were erected without cross\_border procedures being strictly followed. Therefore, what constitutes transborder trade today is simply the reflection of the longstanding indigenous patterns of trade among border dwellers that make more sense than formal trade channels (Meagher, 2010).

With the formation of EAC Customs Union in January 2005, organizations and business environments were strengthened to promote formal cross- border trade, and in 2013, about 30 border points were opened to serve as an impetus for trade in maize flour, rice, beans, maize, sorghum and wheat across the borders in EAC.

Other items of trade include shoes, clothes, textiles, vehicle parts and bicycle parts, fake drugs and staple foods, covering the regions of Tanzania, Burundi, Rwanda, Uganda, Kenya, Somalia, Djibouti, Ethiopia, South Sudan, Sudan and Democratic Republic of Congo.

The traders make use of motor vehicles, bicycles, motorcycles, wheel chairs, donkeys, push carts, boats, canoes and head/hand to transport these goods from one place to another (Titeca & Timanuka, 2012).

The purpose of opening these border points was to maintain strong regional integration networks and relationships among the traders (Titeca, 2009). Most of the goods in question were illegally traded by avoiding government regulations

and duties as their goods passed through illegal routes or through falsification of the description and quantities of goods in attempt to avoid custom duties and taxes, a practice common among trans-border traders (Hukportie, 2014; Titus, 2014; Prag, 2010). In the Great Lake region comprising of DRC, Uganda, Burundi and Rwanda, cross-border trade facilitates the exchange of goods among these nations (World Bank, 2011). Trade between these nations is not formal because the traders are not registered and they do not pay income taxes, but they pay export or import taxes normally and often pass through official border crossings with the necessary travel documents (Titeca, 2009). Therefore, these traders are contributors to the national economy, despite the informality of their operation.

Transborder trade serves as a buffer to countries which do not have an adequate provision of goods for individual consumption, such as certain foodstuffs as goods are moved from the surplus zone to the lack zone to cushion the effect of inadequacy they are experiencing. Titeca and Timanuka (2012) revealed in the study conducted in the Great Lake region that the level of education among traders is generally low (Hukportie, 2014), with about 26% of those classified as small traders without any form of education at all, and 79% of them stopped their education at the primary school level. The largest chunk of these traders which accounted for 94% did not go beyond primary school, while only 20% of traders completed secondary school, and only 1% completed third university studies.

In general, traders with a low level of education (primary/vocational) are more than those who have no education with 53% and 26% respectively (UN Women, 2012). Furthermore, the mean age of small traders was a little above 30 years, 4% were children between the age range of 7-17 years, and 89% were adults with their ages ranging between 18 and 49 years, while 7% of the study were elderly people aged 49 years and above (Titeca, & Timanuka, 2012).

According to International Alert (2010), 64% of the study participants from Congo, Uganda, Rwanda and Burundi depend on cross- border trade as a primary means of subsistence with agriculture being the second largest activity for the traders

concerned (World Bank, 2011). Worthy of note is the fact that more women (68%) than men (59%) are involved in cross-border trade because it serves as a means of survival for the women (Yusuff, 2014) rather than the men (Titeca & Timanuka, 2012). These figures revealed that unemployment has compelled people towards cross-border trade as an option for survival, a trend common among cross-border traders in South West Nigeria (Ojo, 2015; Oladeji, 2010).

Other studies (Meagher, 2008; Peberdy & Crush, 2001; Little, 2007) agreed that the lack of formal employment necessitated by unsuitable economic reform programmes, for instance structural adjustment programmes (SAP) as introduced in Nigeria and some other African countries, and rising rural-urban migration (Hoffman & Paul, 2015) in search of often non-existent jobs coupled with low wages earned from formal employment push people to look for other means to complement their incomes.

Attah (2016) avers that the recent increase in the informal sector and rapid expansion of cross-border trade is a reaction mainly to the market liberalization and deregulation policies of the 1980s and 1990s. Without mincing words, poverty and joblessness encouraged the people to search for alternative sources of income which cross-border trade readily offers. According to Meagher (2003), for most African countries the consequences of SAP is the significant enlargement of informal cross-border trade that today is responsible for a majority of jobs created annually, which is an indictment on the SAP policies put in place by government that hastily exposed EAC economies to tough external rivalry, hence making a mockery of and reducing the government interventionist policy to nothing and thus creating more problems of poverty and joblessness than they were meant to solve.

The challenges confronting the traders are made even grimmer by viewing the merits of transborder trade to the household and by seeking traders' opinions about the contribution made by small business to their household's income.

#### **1.2.4 Transborder Trade in West Africa**

Transborder trade takes place within the ambit of a wider trade and developmental context on a global, regional and national level because it involves

the exchange of goods and services across a country's geo-political boundary. Since the early 1990s till date, in West Africa there is a direct link between transborder trade, trade liberalization and regional economic growth (Titus, 2014) as a result of economic liberalization and deregulation policies, increasing population growth and rapid development (Yusuff, 2014). Taxation policies and trade practices differ from one country to another and this contributed to the main cause of transborder trade between Benin, Togo and Nigeria (Golub 2012; Raballand & Mjekiqi, 2010).

According to Raballand and Mjekiqi (2010) and World Bank (2009), Nigeria is one country in Africa with differential price regime for its petroleum products and very high tariffs placed on imported goods or sometimes total ban of the product. Majority of the nation's cross-border trade passes through informal channels (illegal routes) with several unrecorded goods flowing through the economic corridors between Nigeria and her neighbours' more than those officially recorded (Hoffman & Paul, 2015). In Nigeria, over 64% of the GDP for domestic informal business within the economy is unrecorded since most of the goods pass through illegal routes to enter into the Nigerian market without the payment of any tax or duties on such goods.

Nigeria has a total of 4,047km of land borders (Hoffman & Paul, 2015) bustling with day-to-day economic life with trucks lined up waiting to cross the borders for onward movement of goods to the major cities such as Lagos, Ibadan, Port Harcourt, Onitsha and Kano before distribution to the inner markets in the remote villages scattered all over Nigeria. Numerous studies on transborder trade in Africa observed the crucial role played by ethnic, religious and kinship group's relationship. For instance, Benin, Togo and Nigeria have a long-standing relationship dating back to several decades, leading to North-South ethnic and religious separations that provided a stimulus for East-West social and commercial ties that continued till date despite natural boundaries that separated them.



This includes the Mourides in Senegal and Gambia (Golub & Hansen-Lewis, 2012); the Yoruba's in Western Nigeria and Benin (Golub & Lewis, 2012; Oladeji, 2010); the Igbos found in the Cameroons and Eastern part of Nigeria (World Bank, 2013); the Hausas in Northern Nigeria, Cameroon and Niger Republic; the Burji in northern Kenya and Ethiopia (Mahmood, 2008); the Nande in Eastern Congo (Kabamba, 2013), and the Lugbara in North – Western Uganda and North-East Congo (Titeca, 2009 as cited in Benjamin, Golub, & Mbaye, 2015).

In Benin Republic, Nigeria and Togo, the Yoruba's happen to be the largest of several ethnic groups that spread across the sub-region and are heavily involved in commercial network activities (Golub & Lewis, 2012). The Yoruba's are in the forefront of smuggling between Nigeria and the Republic of Benin right from the colonial era till date, doing business in Danktokpa market in Cotonou, Republic of Benin (Ojo, 2015; Yusuff, 2014; Titus, 2014), similar to Sandaga Market in Dakar that acts as a regional center for distribution of goods (Prag, 2010). Similarly, in Southern African communities, about 70-80 % of women participate in informal cross-border trading (Adeyinka, 2015; Yusuff, 2014). Frail states who find it difficult to police the smugglers implement highly officious trade, exchange rates and pricing policies, thereby creating avenues for smuggling to thrive. It is worrisome that many border officers (Custom, Immigration, Gendarmes, Port Health, etc.) in African countries who are poorly paid collect bribes from traders, thus encouraging illegal trading across the international boundaries, but those who cannot meet their conditions especially women in transit are harassed (Ojo, 2015).

Criminal activities along the border corridors of West African countries started in the 1960s. Firstly, it began with individuals or groups of traders, businessmen and women carting away goods across the borders as well as those involved in drug peddling and human trafficking (Addo, 2006). Three decades later, transborder trading activities have attained a new, sophisticated dimension and it has become widespread with smuggling, not only of goods but light and small firearms (Ike, 2013; Addo, 2006).

The smuggling of goods, especially ivory, timber woods, cocoa and petroleum products across geo-political boundaries is very common along the West African route linking Cote d' Ivoire, Ghana, Togo, Republic of Benin, Nigeria and Burkina Faso (Addo, 2006). These goods are smuggled in either with vehicles or through human portage (Hukportie, 2014) by using clandestine bypass and illegal routes across the borders (Ojo, 2015; Adeyinka, 2015; Titus, 2014) to dodge special regulations and taxes (Hukportie, 2014; Prag, 2010; Lesser & Moisse- Leeman, 2009), hence making more income through these commodities. In spite of the efforts of cross-border security agencies such as the Nigeria Police Force, customs service, immigration services, and the Nigerian Security and Civil Defense corps (NSCDC). Nigeria borders can aptly be described as porous, granting access to all sorts of transborder criminal activities such as human trafficking, smuggling, drug trafficking, armed robbery, money laundering and illicit arms trafficking among others (Okeke, Oji, & Okechukwu, 2014, p.45). Trade articles along border lines include gasoline, petroleum products, plastic goods, rice, large quantity of liquor, cigarette, light firearms (Aluko, 2012), second- hand clothing, fairly used "Tokunbo" cars and tyres, electrical appliances and other items such as frozen foods and groundnut oil (Faleye, 2015; Ojo, 2015; Titus, 2014; Afolayan, 2010; Titus, Dada, & Adu, 2016).

Pioneer studies conducted in Southern and Eastern Africa all reported similar findings; therefore from the foregoing, it is obvious that transborder trade alleviates poverty and contributes to the well-being of people in sub-Saharan Africa (Titeca & Herdt, 2012; Kachere, 2011; Weseka, 2010; Cassanelli, 2010). The lopsided distribution of affluence across the globe positioned some countries at a disadvantage, thus making such countries a haven of international smuggling, while other countries serve as in-between hubs that provide channels to the developing countries.

The preceding remarks bring us into the components or derivatives of transborder trade which includes smuggling and human trafficking. In the following sub-section smuggling of goods across various continents shall be looked into briefly

while a more detailed explanation will be carried out under the review of relevant literature in Chapter two of this study.

### **1.2.5 Smuggling between US and Mexico (North America)**

Smuggling is defined by Ojo (2015) as an activity which cuts across all the nations of the world. Smuggling is a global phenomenon which usually occurs between developed nations and developing nations. Smuggling of drugs between the international boundaries of Mexico and United States of America has been on for quite some time. Mexico serves as the transit route for drugs going into the U.S land border through the use of commercial trucks with partitions hidden within legitimate cargo conveying pepper, banana, toilet paper and medical supplies (Berestein, 2010;U.S Department of State, 2008). According to International Debates (2010) intelligence report of the international drug center, Mexican drug cartels are operators and benefactors of trade in firearms trafficking along the US-border corridor.

The issue of drug trafficking has generated a lot of heat between the United States of America and Mexico for many years. Despite the mutual benefits for both nations, there is still need for concerted bilateral efforts to combat trade in narcotics (Forman, 2009) to avoid the destruction of lives. According to a study conducted, it was discovered that, the drug smuggling business between U.S-Mexico borders is not a male dominated affair; women too are actively involved in drug trafficking in recent years with a rapid expansion. The involvement of women in drug trafficking on this corridor is shaped by economic and cultural factors that strongly affect their lives, but these factors and effects vary significantly depending on the women's social class, position and place within the drug cartel (Campbell, 2008).

### **1.2.6 Smuggling in South Africa**

In South Africa, smuggling especially that of alcohol dates back to the precolonial apartheid era. Africans living in towns were disallowed from engaging in lawful participation in formal or informal business. In an attempt to survive, they opted

for an underground operation as a strategy for economic survival which later developed to be a subculture among South Africans.

According to Erasmus (1994), smuggling which has become a subculture of south Africans have youths operating as spies for smugglers of liquor, a common practice equally rendered by border residents dwelling between Nigeria and the Republic of Benin as found out in a study conducted by Afolayan (2010).

They provide vital information to smugglers about the movement of government agencies officials such as customs and police. Furthermore, they assist the smugglers to avoid custom officers by taking them through secret detours to go unnoticed with their wares (Aluko, 2012; Oladeji, 2010; Meagher, 2010; Titus, 2008) without the payment of tax and other duties at the point of entry.

### **1.2.7 Smuggling in West African Countries**

Smuggling of goods is a common practice among West African communities. In Ghana, cocoa is smuggled continuously to Cote d'Ivoire where it attracts higher prices (Okeke, Oji & Okechukwu 2014) and this quite visibly occurs along the corridors of Nigeria–Benin borders (Oladeji, 2010). It is a strongly held belief among the West African population especially border residents that smuggling is a potential resource (Nugent, 2002) due to the unrecorded interregional trade among African countries (Ojo,2015; Golub & Mbaye, 2009).

The porosity of the Cameroon, Chad and Niger border posts paved way for smuggling of goods (West African Network for Peace Building, 2013). In Nigeria arms smuggling (Aluko, 2012), armed banditry and human trafficking (HRW, 2014) is a common phenomenon along the Cotonou-Badagry route which covers a distance of 773 kilometers. According to Addo (2006), in West and Central Africa insecurity in the maritime sector encouraged the illegal movement of people, drugs and weapons. Timber, cocoa, ivory, petroleum and diamonds are smuggled across border corridors of the ECOWAS sub-region of Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana, Togo, Benin, Nigeria and Burkina Faso. In order to evade levies and increase their own income level, the smugglers make use of human portage and vehicles to smuggle goods through illegal routes (Okeke et al., 2014, p.53). Due

to the porous nature and insufficient appropriate mechanisms to monitor illegal movements and activities across the borders, cross-border crimes and instability in the region has continued unabated which is a bad omen for the economy of a country.

West African migrants from poor neighboring countries troop into Nigeria because of the buoyant economy, with most of them without valid immigration papers; a situation caused by the porous nature of the Nigerian border (Somerville, 2013; Okunmu, 2008) allowing for clandestine and illegal migration into the country.

Almost every border post leading to Nigeria is used for drug and human trafficking, illegal migration and illicit trading in arms (Aluko, 2012). The implications of allowing illegal migrants from neighboring countries through the borders is that they are involved in theft, armed robbery, civil unrest, violence both in rural and urban settlements, and all these have led to general insecurity of lives and property (Adetula, 2015) – a situation that led to the closure of the Nigerian border in 2015 few days to the general election to avoid the infiltration of foreigners from participating in the elections and the prevention of importing arms and ammunitions to cause mayhem during election periods.

### **1.2.8 Human Trafficking**

Alongside the movement of goods across borders is the trafficking of human beings along various borders across the globe. Human trafficking is an age long practice that portrays nations used as corridors for this illicit trade as insensitive to human dignity. In June 2012, the International Labor Organization (ILO) reported that there were approximately 20.9 million forced labour and sex trafficking victims in the whole world (Siskin & Wyler, 2013). Human trafficking is centered on border controls. Border controls in the ECOWAS sub-region of Nigeria, Togo, Ghana and the Republic of Benin are feeble, thus making it easy for the border to be crossed easily and the entire population moving from one nation to another (Somerville, 2013; Okunmu, 2008). Similarly, in the North African region of Morocco, Mauritania, Algeria, Tunisia, Libya and Sudan, borders particularly close to the desert are porous due to lack of state authority at border points (Browne,

2013), hence easing human trafficking and illegal migration. UNODC (2012) established that of the 136 nations in the world, 118 countries exploited human trafficking victims between the years 2007 and 2010. ECOWAS as a sub-regional Organisation with 15 members, has 11 members, namely Ghana, Togo, Benin, Burkina Faso, Nigeria, Niger, Côte d'Ivoire, Guinea, Sierra Leone, Gambia and Mali, involved in child trafficking.

Statistical records available revealed that over 200,000 children are trafficked in West and Central Africa (Okeke, Oji, & Okechukwu, 2014, p. 54). Human Rights Watch (HRW, 2014) reported that in 1998, about ten to fifteen thousand young Malian children were engaged as workers in plantations across Côte d'Ivoire, while in Nigeria four thousand children were trafficked from the south-south geo-political zone specifically Cross River State to various parts within and outside the country, and Benin Republic registered over three thousand children that were trafficked between 1995 and 1999 (HRW, 2014).

In the whole of Africa, child slavery and human trafficking which are variants of cross border crimes are on the increase most especially in Nigeria. The large size of the Nigerian market easily attracts smugglers and illicit drug dealers. Nigeria and Benin are among the main sources for the thriving human trafficking business in West Africa (IRIN, 2010; UNESCO, 2006; UNODC, 2009; Salah, 2001). Of late, West Africa has repeatedly featured in cases of cocaine seizure made by the United States (US) Drug Enforcement Administration (Adetula, 2015). According to a recent report, Texas is second to California in human trafficking especially children in the United States with New York and Ohio in the top 5 bracket (NHTRC, 2013). Children between the ages of 11-14 years are either recruited or forced into prostitution for domestic sex trafficking. In the United States, the most vulnerable target groups include:

- i. Those who lack family support;
- ii. Have disruptions in their schooling;
- iii. Those who have records of sexual or physical abuse;

- iv. Those without supervision, care or basic necessities of life such as food, clothing and shelter;
- v. Those whose parents use drugs or are alcoholics;  
and
- vi. Those exposed to domestic violence.

Global Slavery Index (2013), reported that the incidence of modern slavery as a result of human trafficking is highest in Mauritania, Haiti, Pakistan, India, Nepal, Moldova, Benin, Cote d' Ivoire, Gambia and Gabon. Conversely, when compared out rightly, the countries with the highest members of enslaved people are India, China, Pakistan, Nigeria, Ethiopia, Russia, Thailand, Democratic Republic of Congo, Myanmar and Bangladesh accounting for almost 76% of the total estimate of 29.8 million confined people worldwide. About 27% of trafficking victims detected worldwide are school age children who are exploited and coerced into the commercial sex industry (UNODC, 2012). These children are forced to beg in order to earn a living, and are also used as domestic servants and child soldiers in period of conflict (HRW, 2014), as messengers, cooks, porters and as sex slaves.

According to UNESCO (2009), children of school age, whose parents because of poverty could not send them to school, entrust their wards into the hands of traffickers with the promise to send them to school but instead use them as hawkers, house maids and slaves, thereby depriving them of education and their fundamental human rights. Rafferty (2008) claims that traffickers employ various methods of physical and psychological deception and coercion (NHRTC, 2013), including the use of threats or violence and manipulation through drug and alcohol dependencies on their victims. Flowing from the above on the issue of human trafficking is gender as it relates to both male and female on transborder trade and its effect on the academic performance of students in senior secondary schools in Ogun state.

### **1.2.9 Concept of Gender**

Gender, according to Santrock (2005), prescribes sets of role behaviours expected of male and females in their thinking, actions and feelings. According to

the social cognitive theory, an adolescent's gender development is based on observation and copying of others' behaviour, also by rewards and reprimands of gender-appropriate and gender inappropriate behaviour. Yang (2010) defines gender as social traits and opportunities related with being male or female and the relationship between men and women, boys and girls as well as those between men and women that are socially built and are learned through the course of socialization.

Between the years 2000 and 2010, the gender similarity Index rose from 0.84 to 0.91 (UN Statistics Division, 2012). Statistics revealed that in 2010, 55% of girls and 60% of boys were enrolled in primary school (2010 UIS data). However, gender similarities are almost exclusively concentrated in the rural North. About 34% of primary-age rural girls do not attend school in the rural North compared with 25% of boys. On the contrary, only 4% of girls and 3% of boys from Southern rural areas, and less than 1% of boys and girls respectively from Southern urban areas are out of school (Accelerating Progress to Nigeria, 2013).

Female under achievement under the searchlight of sociologists of education was focused largely on gender differences. Olubunmi (2011) concluded that gender differences are intolerable; hence it would be germane and proper to treat males and females in schools differently due to their natural predispositions.

#### **1.2.10 School Location**

Location of schools is concerned about where a school is sited. This may be rural, semi-urban or urban areas. For the purpose of this study, schools found in border towns are classified among rural areas, while those found in cities are classified as non-border areas. Students whose schools are located in rural areas are educationally disadvantaged when compared with their counterparts who school in urban center (Orji, 2013). For instance, it has been observed that schools in rural locations especially those in border towns are confronted by different challenges such as isolation, abject poverty and limited employment opportunities for school leavers. Schools located in rural areas are denied of resources such as libraries, electricity supply and technology, while those in the urban centres have



these resources in place that will contribute to effective teaching and learning (Kiumi, Kibe, & Nganga, 2013).

The prevalence of poverty in many rural communities, on the other hand, hinders parents' ability to provide for and support their children's education with resources at home that can spark and sustain interest in learning in the absence of teachers. Research on the U.S.-Mexico border revealed that school districts cited along the U.S.–Mexico border face a unique set of challenges (Sloat, Makkonen, & Koehler, 2007). Students whose parents are poor with low quality education living within a 20 mile range of the border are served by schools located within the border towns. Apart from speaking Spanish as their first language, students who stay close to the border lack access to health, social and housing services. As a result of job uncertainty in the border region, students' enrolment and attendance in schools has been fluctuating (Sloat et al., 2007). Due to the fluctuation in the attendance record of students crossing the border to attend schools, it has been difficult to adequately forecast revenue, plan and meet staffing needs which affects the school curriculum.

Learners in rural areas are disenchanted towards education because to them it is of no benefit schooling when there will be no jobs after graduation (Orji, 2013; Owoeye & Yara, 2011). As a result of this, the academic performance of rural based learners is affected which limits their chances of moving up the education ladder. Sheldon (2012) notes that schools in rural areas in the Republic of Benin and Nigeria tend to harbour untrained or unqualified teachers, which is detrimental to learners.

Furthermore, due to the distance factor, most rural schools rarely get visited by school inspectors or quality assurance officers for that matter. This implies that teachers in rural schools are prone to paucity of supervisory advice from higher professional colleagues which invariably affects the quality of instruction delivered to the learners in schools located in the rural areas. This problem can be addressed by government by granting incentives (rural allowance) to teachers whose schools are located in rural areas so as to encourage the teachers

Besides the dearth of social amenities such as potable water, electricity and good houses, a substantial percentage of teachers transferred to schools in rural areas in most cases reject their posting, seek for immediate transfer to schools in urban centres, while those who could not secure transfer become perpetual late comers. The effect of this is that schools in rural areas are under-staffed especially those within a distance of a 20 mile radius to the school resulting in the inability to recruit and retain well qualified teachers who understand the borders' cross cultural issues (Sloat et al., 2007).

In addition, schools in rural areas lack facilities. For instance, in a report carried out by UN global initiative on education in Nigeria in 2013, it was observed that most African schools in the rural areas have dilapidated buildings, with missing or broken desks and chairs and improper ventilation and sanitation facilities (Accelerating Progress to Nigeria, 2013). These circumstances, according to the report, had a significant, negative effect on school attendance and hampered schools' efforts to enhance the teaching and learning process.

#### **1.2.11 Why Economics?**

Ever since economics was first taken as a school subject in the West African School Certificate Examinations in 1967, the number of schools that teach the subject and candidates enrolment for economics in the West African Senior School Certificate Examination (WASSCE) and of recent the National Examinations Council (NECO) and National Business and Technical Education Board (NABTEB) has increased (Adu & Adeyanju, 2014).

Economics as a subject concerns itself with the study of man's activities such as production, distribution, exchange and the consumption of goods and services capable of satisfying human wants and desires (Titus, 2008).

Economics can also be defined as the study of choice which consumers, business managers and government officials make to attain their goals given their scarce resources. It could also be referred to as the study of how people make choices under conditions of scarcity and the results of those choices for human society (Adu & Galloway, 2015).

Economics is also defined as the study of how society manages its scarce resources at its disposal to satisfy the needs of its citizens. In all the definitions given, two fundamental (basic) issues stand out clearly: scarcity and choice. The underlying philosophy of economics rests on the fact that it is a subject relevant to everyday living, thus its integration into the national school curriculum for senior secondary school. The National Policy on Education (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2013 revised) assimilates the theoretical foundation of economics with real presentations, thus economics as a social science subject being taught in senior secondary schools enables students to live evocatively within the varying economic world. It is as a result of this that the National Curriculum and Ogun State syllabus for senior secondary school (SSS) (2011) succinctly describe the subject, Economics as having the following aims:

- To prepare students with the rudimentary principles of economics necessary for useful living and higher education.
- To equip the learners to be practical and prudent in the administration of scarce resources.
- To prepare students so as to have respect for the self-esteem of labour and appreciation of economic, racial and communal values of the society.
- To prepare students to get knowledge for the practical solution to economic problems of the society, Nigeria, developing countries, and the world at large (Adu & Galloway, 2015, p.13).

From the aforementioned aims comes the question: Why does one study economics? To answer this question, Adu (2012) gave the following reasons:

- The study of economics enhances students' understanding of the complex nature of economic activities around them.
- It allows students to develop knowledge of various government policies on free education and therefore reduce unemployment.

- Economics enables students with rudimentary skills for investigating economic problems to prepare them better for decision- making positions.
- It allows the government to promote growth and development and enhance the quality of citizens' life.
- Knowledge of economics is useful to examine fascinating designs of socio-economic behaviour.
- It helps the society to understand and alter inequalities in the distribution of income and opportunities.

In view of the above, every society is faced with three fundamental economic problems of what to produce, how to produce, and for whom to produce. These problems are solved through the study of economics. Economics as a subject being offered at senior secondary level has become popular. The popularity of economics as a subject, however, does leave behind some shortfalls. The shortfalls include, among others, insufficient teaching materials and poor methods of teaching, and these effect the teaching and learning of economics (Adu & Galloway, 2015).

There has been an increasing academic interest recently in the particular social, economic and political circumstance of population living within border towns. The researcher therefore established the existence of a knowledge gap as most earlier works address the movement of people and goods across borders, (Faleye 2015; Adetunji 2015; Blum 2014; Ogalo, 2010), border insecurity and management (Odozi 2015; Seniora & Poitevin 2013; Browne 2013; Okunmu, 2008), and transborder communities and problems of armed smuggling (Aluko 2012), with little or no attention paid to the effects of transborder trading activities on students' academic performance in economics, hence the need for this study.

### **1.3 Statement of the Problem**

Trading activities between Nigeria and the Republic of Benin along the border areas have been on for decades. With the upsurge in population of people in border towns and consequent increase in student enrolment and teacher

recruitment, schools were established in the border towns to cater for the needs of the populace within these areas (OGME, 2010). School enrolment figures in Ogun state public schools rose from 293,324 in the 2010/2011 academic session to 387,915 by 2012/2013 and further to 506,002 by the end of the 2012/2013 academic session (Afinsulu, 2013).

At present, researchers have worked on human security across cross border flows (Odozi, (2015; Blum, 2014; Okunmu, 2008), on risk management along border lands and transborder trading and movements (Browne, 2013; Matsuyanma, 2011; Adeyinka, 2015; Titeca, 2012), and on gender dimension to cross border trade (Yusuff, 2014), but none of these studies have delved into the area of the effects of transborder trading activities on the academic performance of students whose schools are located close to border areas as in southwestern part of Nigeria. Transborder trade is increasingly becoming more complex with a majority of the actors falling between the age group of 20-40 years, accounting for 44.2% representing those who have completed secondary education, 25, 8% professionals and 10% degree holders (OECD, 2009), while a negligible percentage of between 16-18 years act as border crossers in the Benin-Nigeria border axis (Meagher, 2008).

The activities of the border crossers whose age range falls within the age bracket of 16-18 years calls for urgent attention (Adeyinka, 2015). Titeca & Timanuka (2012) states that 4% of children whose age range falls between 7-17 years are involved in cross border trade, hence the likelihood of students whose schools are close to the border participating in transborder trading activities cannot be ruled out. Ike (2013) notes that occupations of travelers across the borders of ECOWAS varies among the traders, Ike's (2013) study identified 5.4% of the respondents are professionals, 4% civil/public servants, and 2.4% missionaries, while 2.2% are clearing agents, 38.7% trader/market women, 13.1% drivers/conductors, 5.3% artisan/mechanics, 7.6% students, and 6.8% unemployed respectively.

**Table 1.2: Demographic characteristics of youth smugglers (Ojo, 2015, p. 48)**

<b>Sex</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
Male	48	96
Female	2	4
Total	50	100
<b>Age (Years)</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
15- 20	34	68
21-25	4	8
26-30	4	8
31-35	4	8
36-40	4	8
Total	50	100
<b>Level of Education</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
No Education at all	4	8
Primary School	7	14
SSCE	38	76
Bachelor	1	2
Total	50	100

Table 1.2 displays 50 respondents comprising of 48 male and 2 female respondents respectively. Majority of the respondents in this study fall within the age range of 15-20 years (68%) while the remaining 32% of the sample population fall within the age range of 21-40 years. Only one (2%) out of the fifty respondents used in this study has a university education, majority 38 (76%) of the respondents, obtained senior secondary school certificates (SSCE), 7 (14%) possess first school leaving certificates, and the remaining 4 (8%) respondents had no formal education.

From the statistics above, the position of Adeyinka (2015) on the participation in cross- border trade has been corroborated. The bulk of those involved in smuggling goods across the border from the table above falls within the age bracket of 15-20 years which is 68 % of the sampled population in the study

carried out by Ojo (2015) with majority been male with 96 %, a contrast to the findings of Ike (2013) which aligned with a study carried out in Botswana that revealed 61% female and 39% male participants (Ama et al., 2013). I disagree with the methodology adopted in the skewedness of the population sample used by Ojo (2015) because of the number of females sample used in his study according to the table above.

Statistics obtained from UNIFEM report of 2008 estimated that in West Africa, transborder trading activities is a source of employment supporting at least 3.2 children on the average and in addition 3.1 dependents that are neither spouses nor children beneficiaries. This report clearly indicates that 70-80% of those involved in transborder trade are mostly women moving goods across borders with little or no resources required as start-up capital (UNIFEM, 2008).

Students whose schools were located in rural communities such as border towns where infrastructural facilities are grossly inadequate (Kiumi, Kibe, & Nganga, 2013), dearth of qualified teachers (Sheldon, 2012) and derelict buildings with broken down chairs and tables coupled with poor sanitation, inadequate and poorly maintained school infrastructure, and a lack of appropriate teaching materials have contributed to the dwindling learning outcomes (Accelerating Progress to Nigeria, 2013). As such, these students are prone to be part of illegal trading activities that are inimical to economic development of Nigeria and the educational advancement of our students (Owoeye & Yara, 2011). A recent study conducted by Ama et al. (2013) with 33% female traders respondents and 30% male traders respondents had a secondary school certificate, while 21% of females and 19% of males had a junior certificate.

**Table 1.3: Results of students' percentage distribution in academic performance In Economics WASSCE 2006 to 2010 (Amuda et al., 2016, p.290)**

Year	Gender	Grades							
		Distinction		Credit			Pass		Fail
		B2 (%)	B3 (%)	C4 (%)	C5 (%)	C6 (%)	D7 (%)	E8 (%)	F9 (%)
2006/07	M	13(92.9)	36(87.8)	24(60.0)	58(78.4)	79(74.5)	269(72.9)	265(59.8)	512(52.9)
	F	1(7.1)	5(12.2)	16(40.0)	16(21.6)	27(25.5)	100(27.1)	178(40.2)	456(47.1)
	<b>Total</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>41</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>74</b>	<b>106</b>	<b>369</b>	<b>443</b>	<b>968</b>
2007/08	M	0	54(64.3)	15(75.0)	122(81.3)	127(66.1)	267(62.2)	468(70.0)	456(63.6)
	F	0	30(35.7)	5(25.0)	28(18.7)	65(33.9)	162(37.8)	201(30.0)	261(36.4)
	<b>Total</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>84</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>150</b>	<b>192</b>	<b>429</b>	<b>669</b>	<b>717</b>
2008/09	M	14(63.6)	84(63.6)	84(67.2)	31(59.6)	159(64.1)	154(58.6)	271(65.5)	646(68.8)
	F	8(36.4)	48(36.4)	41(32.8)	21(40.4)	89(35.9)	109(41.4)	143(34.5)	293(31.2)
	<b>Total</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>132</b>	<b>125</b>	<b>52</b>	<b>248</b>	<b>263</b>	<b>414</b>	<b>939</b>
2009/10	M	30(62.5)	106(66.3)	61(71.8)	58(73.4)	91(72.8)	181(72.1)	427(67.4)	517(64.1)
	F	18(37.5)	54(33.7)	24(28.2)	21(26.6)	34(27.7)	70(27.9)	207(32.6)	289(35.9)
	<b>Total</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>160</b>	<b>85</b>	<b>79</b>	<b>125</b>	<b>251</b>	<b>634</b>	<b>806</b>

M = Male, F = Female, (percentage) = percentage.

Table 1.3 above revealed the results of students' percentage distribution and academic performance in Economics in 2006/07. Out of the total number of 2055 male and female students that wrote economics in their final examinations, 968(47.1%) (F9) failed, 812 (39.5%) passed, while the remaining 275(13.3%) had C6 and above without any distinction. For 2007/8, the total number of students that sat for the examination was 2261, indicating an increase in student enrolment for economics. Of this figure, 717 (31.7%) scored a (F9) fail, 1098(48.6%) passed, 446 (19.7%) students scored C6 and above, without any student with an A score.

In 2008/09, 2195 students enrolled for the exam – a slight drop from the previous year enrolment figure. Out of these, 939 (42.8%) scored a (F9) fail, 677 (30.8%) obtained a pass score, while 579 (26.4%) of the students scored C6 and above, and no distinction score was obtained by any of the student enrolled for the examination. For 2009/10, the total number of 2188 students enrolled for economics shows a further decline when compared with the enrolment of 2008/09. No student had a distinction (A) score, and only 22.7% (497) students scored C6 and above, 40.5% (885) students had a pass grade (P), and the remaining 36.8% (806) scored (F9) and failed (Amuda, Ali &Durkwa, 2016).



The table shows that students' performance in economics is not encouraging and this should be of great concern to parents, teachers, principals, administrators, policy makers and of course the students themselves. There is no refuting the fact that the place of economics in the economic and social development and advancement of any society cannot be overemphasized.

This is due to the fact that it is found useful in trade, both domestic and international, business, daily existence, national economic development strategies, as well as contributing to the intellectual development and discipline of its recipients (Adu & Adeyanju 2014).

Apart from the above, 10.5million children that are out of school are in primary schools in Nigeria, the highest figure in the whole world (UIS Estimate, 2010). Moreover, the trends are not promising. In the last decade there has been a drastic reduction in the net enrollment figure: in 1999, the percentage of enrolled students was 61.3% and it reduced to 57.6% in 2010. Similarly, after an initial improvement from 84.2% to 102.6%, the gross enrollment rate fell to 83.3% in 2010 (World Bank, 2013). The reasons for this decline have become a subject of debate. This could be attributed to a prolonged mass teachers strike in 2007 that paralyzed academic activities and the stoppage of the Home Grown School Feeding (HGSE) programme in a majority of states, discouraging enrollment (Accelerating Progress to Nigeria, 2013) of students in schools. As a result of this fact, such students can be used for cross- border activities since they are not attending school. Table 1.4 reveals the percentage of out of school children in the 36 states of the Nigerian federation in 2011 according to the April 2013 working paper of UN Secretary-General's Global Initiative published in 2015. The table reveals that a greater proportion of the out of school children is from the northern part of Nigeria. The situation became worse with the activities of Boko-Haram in the North-East region of Nigeria where schools were forced to close down to avoid the students been abducted and teachers also threatened. A cursory look at the table reveals that majority of students from the six states that make up the north-east geo-political zone of Nigeria comprising of Borno, Adamawa, Yobe, Bauchi, Gombe and Taraba states respectively are the most affected when compared with the remaining five geo-political

zones in Nigeria. In the north-west geo-political zone, there is a disturbing trend on the percentage of out of school children because the figures from this state are equally high like that of the north-east despite the fact that there were no threats to education in this region as experienced in the north- east region.

A group attributed this trend in the north-west to the stoppage of the home grown school food programme which was embarked upon by the federal government but stopped in the main stream. The disruption of the home grown food programme and some other factors contributed to the reduction in the enrolment rate of students in schools across the federation. The figure for the north central geo-political zone comprising of six states, namely Niger, Benue, Kwara, Kogi, Nasarawa and Plateau state respectively, is lesser than that of the north-east and north-west geo-political zones. For both primary and junior secondary school enrolment figures in the north central zone of Nigeria, the percentage of out of school children is considerably lower when compared with the other two geo-political zones in northern Nigeria.

The south-south geo-political zone comprising of Akwa-Ibom, Cross River, Bayelsa, Rivers, Delta and Edo had a considerable lower percentage of out of school children in the primary and junior secondary schools when compared with the three northern geopolitical zones of north -east, north-west and north central zones. The south- east geopolitical zone comprising of Abia, Imo, Enugu, Ebonyi and Anambra states has a slightly higher percentage out of school children when compared with that of states in the south-south geo-political zone. The south-west geo-political zone has six states, namely Lagos, Ekiti, Osun, Ondo, Oyo and Ogun states, and the lowest percentage of out of school children with the exception of Oyo State whose figures for both primary and junior secondary out of school children outweighs that of the south-east and the south-south zone.

**Table 1.4: Percentage of out-of-school children in Nigeria by State, 2011  
(Adapted from Accelerated Progress to Nigeria, 2013)**

Northern Nigeria			Southern Nigeria		
Geog. Zone/State	Primary	Junior Secondary	Geog. Zone/State	Primary	Junior Secondary
<b>North-Central</b>			<b>Southeast</b>		
Benue	19.0	11.7	Abia	5.9	2.7
Kwara	23.0	6.9	Anambra	3.9	3.7
Kogi	8.6	29.2	Ebonyi	18.0	4.7
Nasarawa	22.7	18.1	Enugu	14.6	7.9
Niger	50.0	52.3	Imo	4.8	3.2
Plateau	14.5	15.3			
<b>Northeast</b>			<b>South South</b>		
Adamawa	32.9	30.0	Akwa Ibom	7.3	6.5
Bauchi	58.2	65.4	Bayelsa State	8.4	3.4
Borno	73.4	69.4	Cross Rivers	9.5	8.3
Gombe	38.6	41.3	Delta	8.6	6.5
Taraba	31.9	27.2	Edo	6.9	4.4
Yobe	63.5	64.3	Rivers	12.6	7.2
<b>Northwest</b>			<b>Southwest</b>		
Jigawa	61.6	64.5	Ekiti	2.9	2.9
Kaduna	23.2	22.3	Lagos	4.3	6.3
Kano	40.0	44.3	Ogun	4.3	6.3
Katsina	55.1	63.9	Ondo	6.0	2.4
Kebbi	69.1	67.6	Osun	7.5	3.3
Sokoto	65.3	68.9	Oyo	23.3	18.2
Zamfara	76.2	65.5			

One trend noticed from this table is that every state of the federation is faced with school children dropping out of school with the percentage varying from one state to another. For Ogun State, which is the focus of this study, the table reveals that more students drop out of school in their secondary than in the primary school period which a 4.3% and 6.3% respectively.

This figure may appear small, but it sends a signal to the researcher that with this trend, according to the statistics, of students who drop out of school may likely be involved in one way or the other in transborder trade because the proverb states "The idle hand is a devil's workshop".

As a result of the aforementioned, the researcher finds it imperative to carry out a study on the relationship that exists between transborder trading activities and the academic performance of senior secondary school students in economics in Ogun State, South- West, Nigeria. In order to find out if there is any relationship between transborder trading activities and students' academic performance, the researcher raised four hypotheses to guide the study.

#### **1.4 Research Questions**

- I. What are the articles of trade at border towns in Nigeria?
- II. What is the composite effect of transborder trading activities, human trafficking, and smuggling on students' academic performance in economics?
- III. What are the relative effects of transborder trading activities, human trafficking, and smuggling on students' academic performance in economics?
- IV. Which of the three variables (transborder trading activities, human trafficking, and smuggling) would predict students' academic performance in economics?
- V. Does gender have influence on students' academic performance in economics?

#### **1.5 Hypotheses**

Hypotheses are either stated as null or alternate hypotheses.

A Null hypotheses is that which is stated so that no difference or relationship is hypothesized. It makes a prediction that in the general population no significant difference or relationship exists between groups on a variable (Creswell, 2014; Sanni, 2011). It is a non-directional hypothesis (e.g. school location has no significant effect on students' academic performance) and is written as  $H_0$ ,  $H_{01}$ ,  $H_{02}$ , etc.

The research or alternate hypothesis is a statement of what one expects to find from an experiment or test. It is a directional hypothesis and usually written or

made in the positive. (E.g. school location will affect students' academic performance). It carries the symbol H1, H2, etc.

For the purpose of this study, the researcher used the null hypothesis to make a prediction that in the general population no relationship or significant differences exists between groups on a variable (Creswell, 2014). Therefore, the following null hypotheses will be tested at a 0.05 level of significance:

H<sub>01</sub>: There is no significant relationship between transborder trading activities and students' academic performance in economics.

H<sub>02</sub>: There is no significant relationship between smuggling and students' academic performance in economics.

H<sub>03</sub>: There is no significant relationship between school location and students' academic performance in economics.

H<sub>04</sub>: There is no significant relationship between human trafficking and students' academic performance in economics.

## **1.6 Objectives of the study**

This study aims to:

- Examine the influence of transborder trading activities on students' academic performance in economics.
- Examine the relationship that exists between smuggling and students' academic performance in economics
- Identify the influence of school location on students' academic performance in economics.
- Identify the influence of human trafficking on students' academic performance in economics.

### **1.7 Purpose of the study**

The purpose of this study is to determine the influence of transborder trading activities on students' academic performance of senior secondary school (SSS II) in economics in Ogun State South-West, Nigeria. This study is also aimed at filling the gap in knowledge as most researches earlier carried out examined the movement of traders across borders and security implications of transborder trade.

### **1.8 Significance of the study**

The empirical results of this study will provide a basis for future planning by the government, interested private participants in education, non-governmental organizations (NGO's), as well as parents affected by transborder trading activities in border areas of Ogun State and beyond, and its effects on the academic performance of students whose schools are located within the border towns.

The study will contribute to the body of knowledge in social science education as it will help educational planners in the various ministries of education at both the state and federal level in the choice of site when locating schools in the future. Furthermore, researchers, teachers, the school management, state and federal ministries of education, communities and learners will benefit from the outcome of this research work. The researcher could use the findings to develop seminars and training workshops for ministries of education officials in other states, teachers, and parents and for other stakeholders in the education industry. It is expected that the findings of this research will stimulate further research studies on other areas of transborder trading activities not only in Ogun State of Nigeria but in other nations and states or provinces in the world sharing boundaries with neighbouring countries.

## **1.9 OVERVIEW OF THE METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY**

### **1.9.1 Research Approach**

The study adopted a positivist research paradigm whose epistemology used the quantitative method research approach of a descriptive survey research. Quantitative data were obtained through the use of questionnaires and economics achievement test to examine the effects of transborder trading activities on students' academic performance in economics. The quantitative approach as a traditional mode of research involves a highly systematic procedure with carefully worked out rules guiding it.

### **1.9.2 Sampling**

Selection of respondents (students) and schools were done using the stratified sampling technique. All the eight senior secondary schools and the choice of local government areas (LGA's) and Ogun state were based on stratified sampling technique. Schools and respondents (students) in the study were selected using stratified random sampling for them to be representative.

### **1.9.3 Research Instruments**

The study employed questionnaires and achievement test to gather quantitative data from the respondents (students).

### **1.9.4 Data Collection**

Quantitative data were collected through the use of questionnaires to determine the level of involvement of the students in transborder trading activities while the economics achievement test was used to collect data on their academic performance.

### **1.9.5 Data Analysis**

Quantitative data were analyzed statistically by using descriptive statistics in form of frequency, percentages, means and standard deviation. The inferential statistics of step-wise regression and t-test were used to analyze the data gathered on research questions and research hypotheses respectively through

the Statistical package for the social sciences (SPSS) 24. A detailed research methodology is presented in chapter three of this study.

### **1.10 DELIMITATION/SCOPE OF THE STUDY**

In terms of its scope, this study focuses on transborder trading activities and its effect on senior secondary school students' two and three (SSS 2 & 3) academic performance in economics in border areas/towns of Ogun State South- West, Nigeria.

### **1.11 DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS**

For the purpose of clarity, the following were assigned contextual and operational definitions for the following terms in the course of the study:

#### **1.11.1 Border**

This is a social grouping based on historical and residential claims to a region or area by nationals of two different countries. It is not merely a haphazard line dividing two nations (Blum, 2014; Browne, 2013).

#### **1.11.2 Border residents**

A group of people who have forged a strong sense of border identity as a result of their long stay together in a particular border area or region (Titus, 2008). For this study, border residents are a group of people from different tribes, culture and religion living within and around the border towns.

#### **1.11.3 Borderland**

A substantial area where economic and social life are directly and significantly affected by proximity to an international boundary (Afolayan, 2010; Adedoyin, 2009), but for the purpose of this study, the word borderland means land close to the border or boundary between two countries.

#### **1.11.4 Transborder trade**

This is the exchange of merchandised goods or human beings between neighboring countries which are separated by arbitrarily drawn boundaries that sometimes cuts across homelands of ethnic or language groups (Titus, Dada, &



Adu, 2016; Titeca & Timanuka, 2012). The term transborder trade, cross- border trade and informal cross- border trade will be used interchangeably in this study.

#### **1.11.5 Academic performance**

This can be described as the learning outcome, which is what the learner has achieved (Fredrick, 2011). In this study, academic performance will refer to the accomplishment of a low, medium or high given task.

#### **1.11.6 Smuggling**

This is a highly organized system of income-generating activities that deprive the state of revenue from taxation and foreign exchange (Adeyinka, 2015; Titus, 2014). For the purpose of this research, smuggling implies movement of goods and persons through bush paths and old roads for the purpose of evading tax.

#### **1.11.7 Human trafficking**

The movement of people from one location to another for the purpose of slavery, child labour or as commercial sex workers with or without their consent. The scholarly definition of human trafficking says that it is the act of recruiting, transporting, providing or obtaining a person for compelled labor or commercial sex acts through the use of force or coercion (Siskin & Wyler, 2013).

#### **1.11.8 Gender**

Yang (2010) refers to the social attributes and opportunities associated with being male and female and the relationships between boys and girls, as well as the relations between men and women. For operational purposes, gender is the difference between male and female.

#### **1.11.9 Economics**

This is a social science subject that studies human behaviour as a relationship between ends and scarce means which have alternative uses. It is a subject entrenched in the senior secondary school national curriculum (2011) offered in secondary schools in Ogun state, South-West, Nigeria.

## **1.12 ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY**

The study comprises five chapters

**1.12.1 Chapter 1** gave an introduction to the study from an international, regional and national background or context of the problem under investigation. It also highlighted the statement of the problem, research questions and research objectives, purpose and significance of the study, among other preliminary issues.

**1.12.2 Chapter 2** reviews literature related to the problem being investigated under subheadings derived from the research hypotheses. The theoretical framework is articulated as well as a discussion of other variables affecting transborder trading activities.

**1.12.3 Chapter 3** describes the methodology used for data collection, giving justification for the choice and relevance of the research paradigm, approach, design, instrumentation, and data collection procedures.

**1.12.4 Chapter 4** presents, analyses, interprets, and discusses data.

**1.12.5 Chapter 5** gives a summary of the study, conclusions and recommendations.

## **1.13 SUMMARY**

The purpose of this chapter was to highlight the background to the study, the statement of the problem, research hypotheses, the scope of the study, and the significance thereof. Terms were defined operationally and conceptually, according to how they have been used in the current study so as for them to be easily contextualized by readers. The use of gender pronouns was explained so as not to confuse the readers. An attempt was also made to explain the interconnectivity of the study throughout to preserve the character of being one research report or thesis. In a nutshell, Chapter One and its contents were examined with a view to providing the research plan or blueprint of this study. This leads us to Chapter Two wherein both the theoretical framework and literature review are dealt with in- depth analysis.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **2.0 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

The previous chapter focused on the introduction and conceptualization of the study. It highlighted the background to the study from international, regional and national perspectives. The statement of the problem under study, research questions and hypotheses; objectives and, purpose of the study and its significance were also discussed. An overview of the research methodology, definition of key terms as well as the research study chapter outlines also formed part of chapter one.

In this second chapter, the researcher focuses on two major aspects of the study, that is, the theoretical framework which informs and directs this study, and a review of the literature related to the study. An articulation of the theoretical framework is presented, highlighting its main attributes and how it informs the current study. A detailed discussion on the review of related literature is also made in this chapter under the sub-headings derived from the research hypotheses. The issues, ideas, and concerns in relation to the effects of transborder trading activities on senior secondary school students' academic performance in economics concepts are critically analyzed.

#### **2.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

This section discusses the theoretical framework that provided the organization and direction of the study. Imenda (2014) asserts that a theoretical framework is the soul of every research project. It determines how a researcher formulates the research problem, how one goes about investigating the problem, and what meaning(s) the researcher attaches to data accruing from such an investigation. From another perspective, the theoretical framework can be viewed as a "blueprint" for the entire dissertation inquiry, serving as a guide on which to build and support one's study (Grant & Osanloo, 2014). The authors aver further, that it

also provides the structure to define how one will philosophically, epistemologically, methodologically, and analytically approach the research as a whole. These definitions of a theoretical framework suggest that formal theory may inform and direct research in the provision of explanations to certain contextual issues and relationships. In simple terms, a theoretical framework consists of the selected theory (or theories) that underpins the researcher's thinking with regards to the researcher's understanding. It also highlights the concepts and definitions that are relevant to the research topic. In other words, it can be described as the foundation from which all knowledge is constructed (metaphorically and literally) for a research study (Grant & Osanloo, 2014).

### **2.2.1 THEORY AND FUNCTIONS OF THEORY**

According to Kerlinger (1970) as cited in Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2007), theory is a set of interrelated concepts, definitions and schemes that present a systematic view of phenomena by specifying relations among variables, with the purpose of explaining and foreseeing the phenomena. In reality what theory does is to gather all of the fragmented observed data into a logical conceptual framework with wider acceptability. Theories can be empirical, critical or grand theory.

#### **Functions of theories**

- It is a prospective source of further information and discoveries;
- It leads to discovery of new hypotheses and unraveling questions that were initially left;
- It discloses gaps in knowledge;
- It identifies critical areas where further investigation is required; and
- It enables a researcher to hypothesize the existence of previously unknown phenomena (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007).

The use of theory in a quantitative research by the researcher is to provide an explanation or prediction about the relationship that exists between variables in

the study. It is imperative to have deep knowledge about the nature and use of variables as they form a basis for research questions and hypotheses. A theory describes the how and why of the relationship of a variable serving as a link between or among the variables, therefore this research work is hinged on the rational choice theory.

### **2.2.2 THE RATIONAL CHOICE THEORY**

The rudimentary doctrines of rational theory emerged from neo-classical economics, based on a variety of models according to Yusuff (2014) who assembled together what they described as a 'skeletal' model of rational choice theory. This theory is used for designing socio-economic and individual behaviour based on an individual's actions. According to Zafirovski (2016, p.3), rational choice systematically and constantly maximizes satisfaction derived by consumers or gains producers as a way of maximizing profit. Rational choice theory's main focus is based on actors. Actors are seen as acting purposively or as having intentionality. This implies that actors have goals or ends towards which their actions are targeted. Actors have preferences based on values and utilities, i.e. when people choose the option that gives them the most happiness. The major focus of this theory is that any action by an individual is an intentional behaviour which is beneficial for the actor in one way or the other (Zafirovski, 2016).

According to rational choice theorists, individual behaviour is a function of their wants, needs and goals targeted at some particular challenges that are premised on the information at the disposal of the individual which he/she acts on. The relationship between individual wants and the challenges they confront are purely technical. Since it is practically impossible to achieve all set goals and desires, therefore there is need to make a choice between available alternatives and deduce a method on how to achieve such.

Rational individuals choose the alternatives that are likely to give them the greatest possible satisfaction and forego others (opportunity cost). Rational choice and action as exhibited by actors in the economy is geared towards

constant maximization of utility. What differentiates rational choice theory from other forms of theory is that it denies the existence of any kind of action other than being purely rational and calculative because the action of the rational consumers is not based on impulse but on a deliberate choice when all factors are duly weighed (Yusuff, 2014).

The argument for this research work is based on the belief that economic activity of transborder trade is embedded in rational choice theory as any individual before opting for transborder trading will have to weigh the merits and demerits of such decisions. Since transborder trade does not require much capital to start with, it becomes an easy option for women who see it as a means of easing economic repression (Faleye, 2015; Habiba Ben Barka, 2012). Actors based on rational choice theory are of the opinion that before individuals take action they calculate what the expected outcome is likely to be and choose that best suited for them (Milgrom, 2004 as cited in Yusuff, 2014). This theory is the dominant theoretical model in macroeconomics which assumes that individuals choose the best action according to stable preference functions and the constraints facing them. It should be noted that rationality cannot be directly tested scientifically but empirical tests can be carried out on some of the results obtained from the models that will be developed.

Rational individuals are believed to choose the best alternative that is likely to grant them their goals at a minimal cost. Conversely, it simply means that irrational choice and action is characterized with choosing and applying the most inefficient means of attaining maximization of utility (for consumers) or profit (producers) simply that which fails to maximize or attain it (Zafirovski, 2016, p.1-36). Rational choice theorists make use of two methods in decision-making: involvement decision and event decision. A situation where choices are made to be part of an act or behaviour and the ability to continue or withdraw from such behaviour after weighing the cost and benefit of such action is referred to as involvement decision. On the other side of the coin is event decision. Event decisions are those in which the strategies of carrying out an action are

determined. If these strategies are difficult, such course of action or behaviour will be jettisoned and vice versa.

Along the line, as cross-border traders discover that the benefits accruing from cross border trade far outweigh the cost; they develop coping strategies to minimize costs and difficulties that are connected with the trade.

This goes a long way to explain why there has been a steady rise in women's involvement in transborder trade in recent times; bringing to fore the fact that an activity becomes attractive if its potential benefits outweigh the potential danger and cost connected with it. The key elements of rational choice paradigm are:

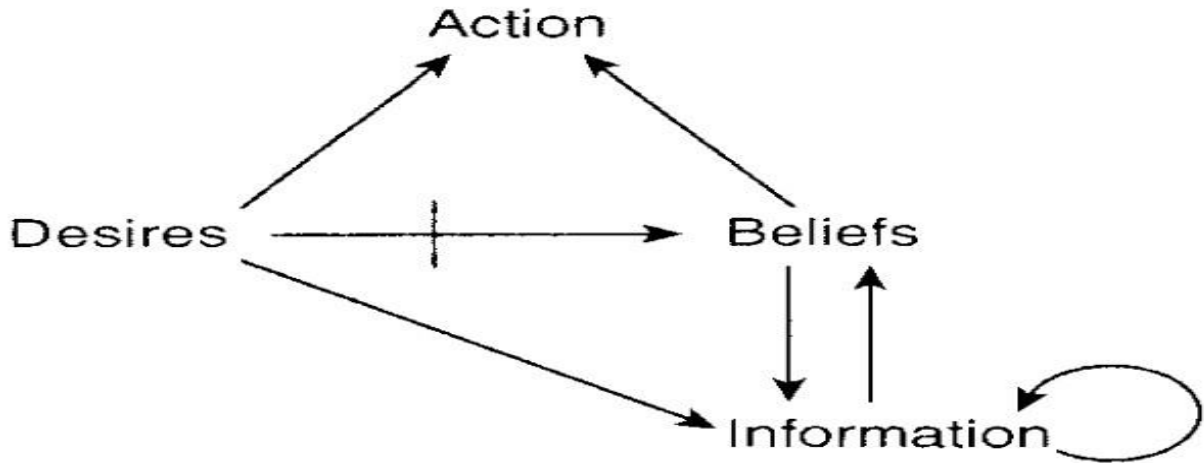
- Identifying, selecting and applying the best possible alternative;
- Process;
- Identifying the problem/ opportunity;
- Analysis of causes-what, why, where, how and who;
- Developing/identifying alternatives;
- Choosing the best alternative- risk propensity and risk-factor;
- Implementation-putting chosen alternative into action; and
- Evaluation/feedback (Zafirovski, 2016, p. 24).

### **2.2.3 BASIC ASSUMPTIONS OF RATIONAL CHOICE THEORY**

The rational choice theory on which this research work is premised has the following underlying assumptions:

1. They act on the basis of information that they have about the conditions under which they are acting;
2. Individuals are seen as being motivated by the wants or goals that expresses their preferences; and
3. That It is impossible for individuals to achieve all of the things that they want.

Based on these assumptions the diagram below is a schematic representation of the basic assumptions highlighted above.



**Figure 2.1: Schematic representation of rational choice theory (Elster, 2009, p. 28)**

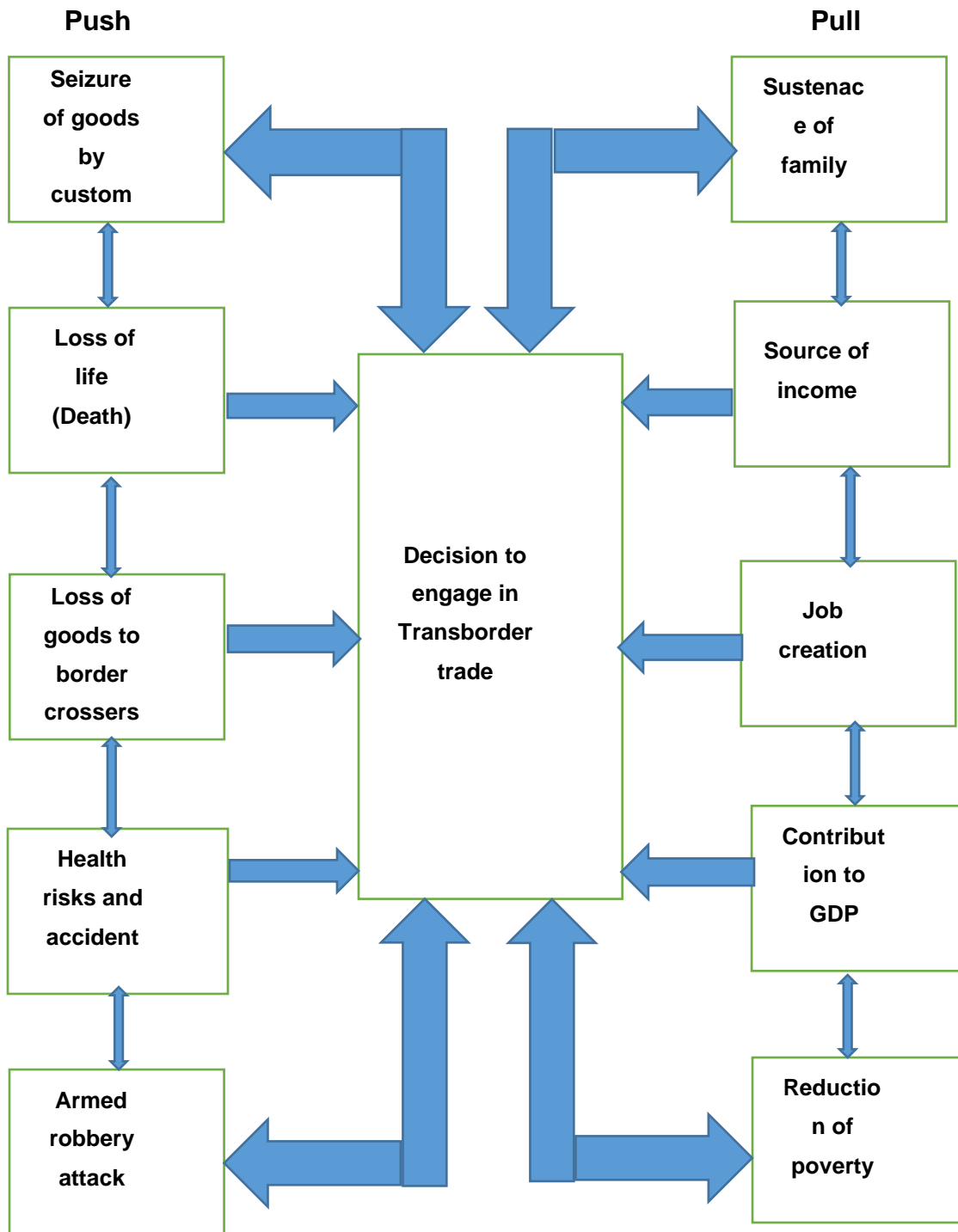
The above figure is the theoretical framework that this study is hinged upon. It can be inferred that the action of the traders (cross-border traders) is based on their desires as expressed in their preferences. These traders are motivated by their wants or goals and this forms the core of their belief system.

Since it is not possible for an individual to achieve all of his/her set goals, it is inevitable that choices must be made after a careful decision from alternatives available, hence the issue of rational behaviour. A rational human being (consumer) *ceteris paribus* will choose that goods or product with minimal cost that will give him maximum utility (benefits). Maximization of utility refers to the market behaviour as exhibited by consumers and this is expressed through their choice. While profit maximization is assumed for producers, rational choice and action is defined in orthodox economics by choosing and applying the most efficient means of maximization of utility, including profit, as the assumed end or “revealed preference”, simply that which maximizes or attains it (Zafirovski, 2016). Once a choice is made, one product or activity or price would be forgone, hence the principle of opportunity cost. This principle of opportunity cost applies to the individual, businessmen and government alike. The reason is that all the wants cannot be satisfied and as a result one will be satisfied at the expense of the other.



In the case of the cross-border trader, he/she will prefer the option that gives the highest profit yield with little investment than run at a loss. For those involved in transborder trade, their action is based on the amount of information at their disposal in terms of the risks and benefits of getting involved in transborder trade. Once they weigh the costs and benefits and discover that the benefits of transborder trade outweigh the cost, as rational human beings they get involved in the trade based on their belief and the intention of satisfying their desires. In essence, there is a link between the action and the beliefs of those involved in transborder trade based on the information at their fingertips (Elster, 2009). It is the desire and beliefs that inform the decision or action that will be taken by the actor, in this case the cross-border trader. The desire of the cross-border trader is a function of the information he/she has and this information shapes the beliefs that in turn determines the action that would be taken.

**Fig. 2:2 Push-Pull Analysis of Transborder trade**



Source: Author's conception

The figure 2.2 represents the author's conception of the pull-push model of transborder trade. Factors that attract people into the act of transborder trade are herein referred to as pull factors, while the factors that discourage or repel traders from transborder trade are known as push factors. Reviewed literatures revealed the strength and weaknesses of these factors.

The push factor includes seizure of goods by custom officials and other government agencies operating at border posts. Items confiscated at the border are contraband goods such as frozen foods; rice, tomatoes, fairly used clothes, fairly used tyres and fairly used cars (Titus, Dada & Adu, 2016; Faleye, 2015, Ojo, 2015, and Yusuf, 2014) been imported into the country by cross border traders. Apart from the items mentioned others include: small arms and light weapons (Aluko, 2012, Aduloju & Opanike, 2014 and Addo, 2006). The customs and other regulatory agencies at the border seize these products because these activities negatively impact (Udoh, 2015; Hoffman & Paul, 2015) the Nigerian economy and also endangers the security of lives and property of the citizenry.

Apart from the seizure of goods at the border entry point, these traders sometimes loss their lives (death), due to gun exchange at borders (Ojo, 2015; Prag, 2010) between the traders and customs officials and other regulatory agencies who try to prevent goods from entering the Nigerian market, which in most cases is not palatable to the traders and are ready to reject such moves by all means.

One major constraint equally faced by the traders is loss of goods to border crossers. Traders make use of border crossers to move their goods across the border stealthily by avoiding the prying eyes of the customs (Tyson, 2015; Yusuf, 2014) making use of border crossers popularly referred to as "Kelebe's" (Afolayan, 2010) and sometimes the border crossers disappear with the goods into thin air. Other push factors is the attendant health risks and accidents (Ojo, 2015) the traders suffer in the course of doing business. Sometimes the vehicles develop fault on the way which may take several days before repairs is carried out on the vehicle. The number of days spent on the road expose the trader to

different health hazards such as malaria, hypertension and other forms of ailments.

As a corollary to the earlier mentioned point, the traders are faced with armed robbery attacks due to the number of days spent on the highways to fix their vehicle. In the process, trader's loss a lot of money and goods to armed robbers and in addition may suffer bodily injuries.

On the other side of the spectrum are pull factors which include sustenance of family, job creation, source of income, ability to reduce poverty, and contribution to GDP. People get attracted to transborder trade as a result of their ability to sustain their family through the profit they make from the business. Mostly women are involved in transborder trade (Yusuff, 2014; Saana, 2012) and are bread winners in their families from the earnings realized from transborder trade.

Furthermore, the level of unemployment has been reduced (World Bank, 2015) as most jobless people are involved in transborder trade to earn a living and sustain their families. Besides that, those who have really profited from the trade create further employment by employing more hands to assist them in the business as the scope of the business is enlarged.

Also transborder trade serves as a source of income (Tyson, 2015) to those involved in it and their dependents and in turn creates employment opportunities thereby reducing the poverty level especially for people in border areas. In the light of this, the gross domestic product (GDP) of the nation is increased as more people are involved in income generating activities.

### **2.3 THE DEVELOPMENT OF BORDER AND BORDERLANDS**

When one remembers that the White man scrambled for African countries and partitioned the land at a distant conference table without any consultation with the inhabitants, one will be convinced that a lot of damage was done. Many ethnic groups and members of the same family found themselves located under different European administration. Boundary lines bisected family lands and separated the owners against their wishes. There is little wonder why most cross-border studies maintain that African boundaries are basically porous, and for this reason boundaries are not seen as a barrier to the cross border traders who are involved in the movement of goods and persons.

To buttress this point, Njoku (2013) claimed that African boundaries encourage both formal and informal cross-border trade, creating an avenue for split Africans to come together and trade. Nigeria and the Republic of Benin were divided by a 770km stretch of land comprising of three different sections namely the Atlantic coast to the Okpara River coast covering a distance of 203km; the Okpara River thalweg is 161km and the Okpara to the Niger River is 407km. The colonial boundary between Okpara and the Niger rivers was purely a line of demarcation that was not properly traced or marked on the ground (Afolayan, 2010). The present day international border between the Republic of Benin and Nigeria came into existence in 1889 as an inter-colonial border between British and French territories. The establishment of border demarcations separated the Yoruba ethnic groups in Nigeria from other nationalities forcing them to identify with Dahomean Fon – their foes (Afolayan, 2010).

This separation was not only geographical but economic and political. Adeola & Oluyemi (2012) state that Nigeria and Benin Republic share many linguistic and racial commonalities which explains the dynamism of cross-border migration between these two countries. Historically, southern and central Benin was part of old Oyo Empire, the Kanem-Borno Empire was part of the Republic of Chad; a sizeable component of Niger Republic was part of the Sokoto Caliphate, while the present Southern Cameroon was part of Northern and Eastern Nigeria (Uchehara, 2010).

Even today, the artificial boundaries separating the immediate neighbours overflow with similar peoples, cultures and aspirations. Because of these historical claims, Nigeria and her neighbors suffer insecurity. The cultural kinship coupled with Nigeria's policy of good neighborliness informed Nigeria's participation in joint economic, industrial and agricultural ventures with their Benin counterparts, such as the cement factory at Onigbolo (Queme Province) and sugar factory at Save (Zou Province); both towns are located in the Republic of Benin (Afolayan, 2010).

According to Afolayan (2000), borders are lines drawn arbitrarily to separate one nation's boundary from another wherein a nation exercises their influence and control and carries out activities. The border should not be perceived as just an illogical line dividing nations but a social alliance with historical and residential connections cutting across boundaries of nations (Titus, 2008).

Membership and social alliance of this community is based on uninterrupted residency in the border region for a long period of time and not on ethnic or national bias. A border is defined as a frontier, a boundary between two countries. Afolayan (2000, p. 13), asserted that in an international border the movement of goods and persons are the two major socio-economic processes that take place. This movement brings together people on either side of the border, hence destroying man-made borders that often generate interactions.

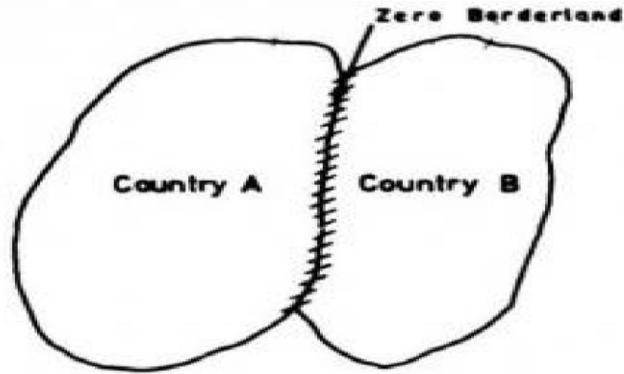
Movement of goods and persons are normal, daily activities that take place across borders. Therefore, for the purpose of this research, borders are seen as encompassing the borderland. Borderlands are referred to as regions lying along and across the boundary separating one country from another. Titus (2008) describes it as "the sub-national areas whose economic and social life is directly and significantly affected by proximity to an international boundary" (p.28).

Borderlands are remarkable for their regional affinity as expressed in a common outlook: "A common subculture, customs, speech and work" (Afolayan, 2010). According to Aluko (2012), borderlands in all parts of the world have common

characteristics which include: grouping of people along ethnic and cultural lines; informal relationships based on transborder trade; common interactions, and presence of government security agencies to enforce laid down rules and regulations pertaining to the control of movement across a country's geo-political boundaries.

Bonchuck (2012) observed that borderlands are areas very close to an international boundary but suffer neglects due to the far distance which deprives them of access to modernization and investment as a result of their location to the main cities in the states and with their socio-economic life directly and significantly affected by its proximity to an international boundary (Aluko, 2012). Afolayan (2000) adds that borderlands can be described as an extension beyond the limits of an area in which a nation exercises its influence. Three types of borderlands can be identified depending on the pattern of movement and the level of trading in which activities are carried out within each of them. The three types of borderlands are:

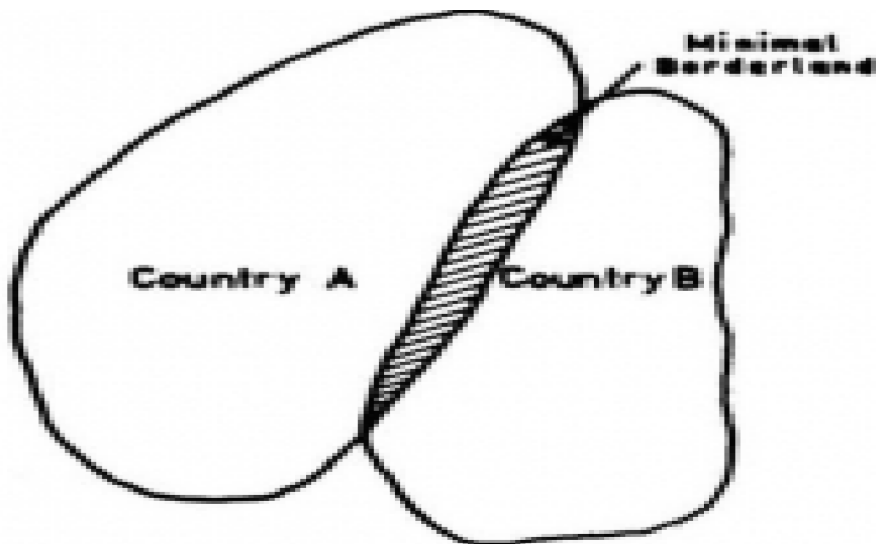
(1) Closed, inert or zero borderlands: In this type of borderland there is no prominent activity that takes place across the border. This type of borderland is conterminous with the boundary and the boundary serves as an almost line of demarcation with no borderland space. Neighboring countries with such borderlands have nothing in common, that is there is no connectivity of any type either culturally, ideologically or ethnically. There is no historical link between the borders residents on either sides, even where such exist there is an insignificant occurrence of socio-economic or spatial interaction between them. Examples of this type of borderland are the border areas in the Sahara and on the northern edges of Sahel-Saharan countries (Afolayan, 2000, p. 50).



**Figure 2.3(a): Zero borderlands (Afolayan, 2000)**

Open, transit or minimal borderlands: Just as the name depicts, it is open and active as trading activities carried out on specific market days ensures the border is kept alive. Border residents who live in open borderlands possess little or no ethnic or cultural relationship with one another.

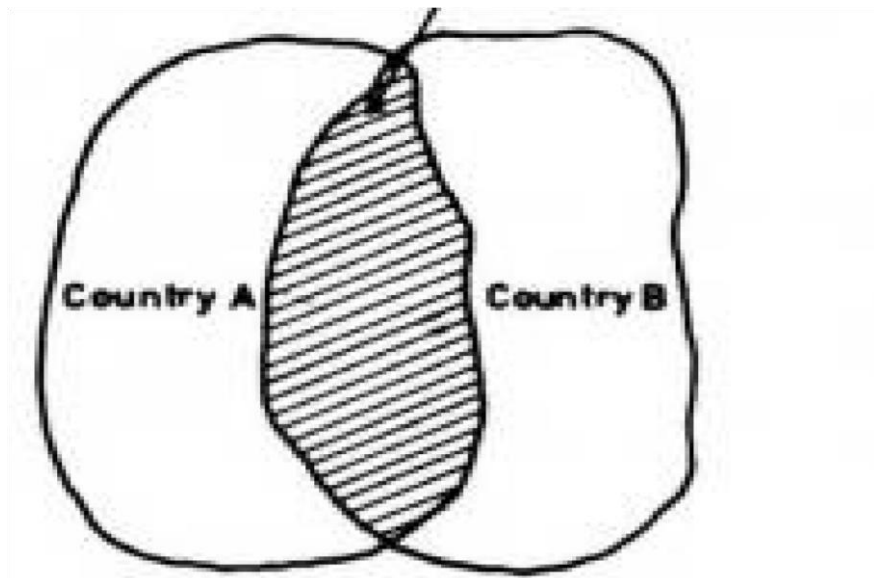
Such border towns are merely transfer routes for goods. It was this reason that necessitated warehouses that spring up along these border routes where exchange of currencies thrive in informal markets. Goods are exchanged on a periodic basis across the borders.



**Fig. 2.3 (b): Minimal borderlands (Afolayan, 2000, p. 51)**



(2) Porous, nation-peripheral or maximal borderlands: Borders located in West Africa can best be regarded as porous and actually are free-trade zones whose operation is independent and autonomous from states or nations attached to it and operated on the basis of marked geographic contracts (Igue & Soule, 1993 as cited by Titus, 2008).



**Fig. 2.3 (c): Porous borderlands (Afolayan, 2000, p.51)**

The following are signs of autonomy:

- The use of numerous currencies whose exchange rate is determined at the parallel market.
- Lack-luster or non-performing customs/immigration control.
- Strong communal ties among communities split by boundaries established by colonial division (Bonchuck, 2012; Afolayan, 2010; Meagher, 2008).
- Increased production of farm products and manufactured goods.
- Increased influx of people on a daily basis (Faleye, 2015).

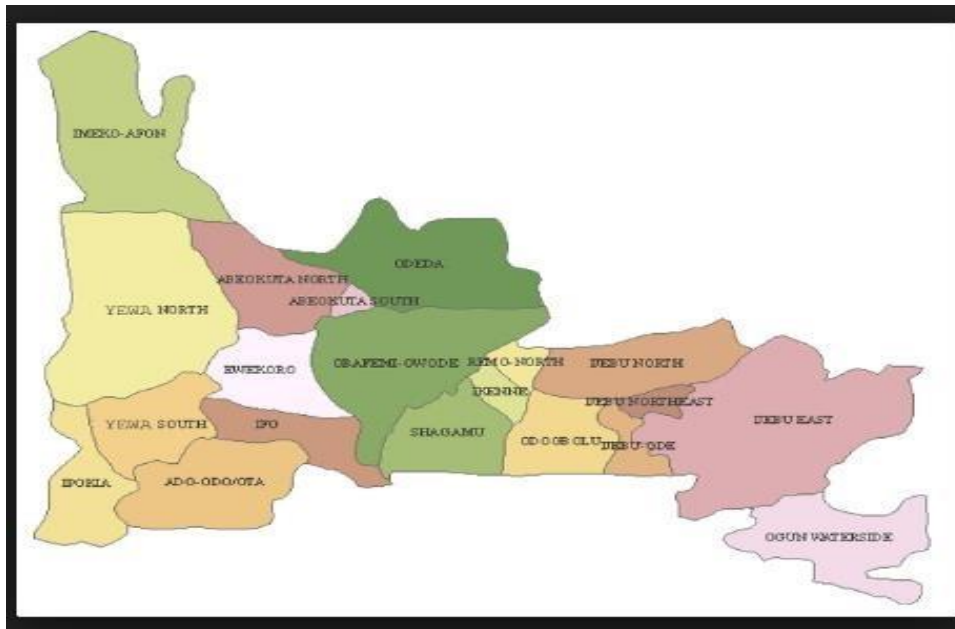
People come into contact at borders for physical, economic and socio-cultural reasons. Border residents have common linguistic, ancestral and ethnic affiliations that date back to several decades (Golub, 2012). The geographical limit of a border depends on the landed area occupied by residents living on each side of the divide; the wider the area covered the more extensive the borderland and vice-versa.

Border residents maintain a high level of cooperation without recourse to the economic policies operated at the center. Due to the porosity of the borders, the states find it difficult to regulate the activities of cross-border traders effectively and this encourages smuggling and the illegal influx of underground migrants. These conditions are necessitated by factors such as differences in prices, wages and standard of living, disloyalty to the state by citizens, and weak, corrupt and under-equipped customs/immigration officials (Ike, 2013).

In the Nigerian – Benin border areas along Okuta, Gbanojo, Igolo, Idiroko, and Seme border towns, simple folks are known to filter daily across borders bringing into Nigeria tomato puree, fresh and roasted fish, clothes, stock fish, liquor, jewelry, fruits and other food items (Faleye, 2015; Meagher, 2010; Titus, 2008). They exchange these through the medium of the Naira for detergents, provisions, cocoa seeds and food. At the end of each day's activities, business has been successfully transacted bringing pleasures to the border landers on both sides of the boundary by the simple fact of crossing "artificial" boundaries. However, whenever borders are closed down, life comes to a standstill for the border landers.

For the purpose of this study, our understanding of borderlands with particular reference to the Nigerian – Benin axis will be made to cover the Nigerian Gate way state of Ogun State whose local government areas (LGA) are seen in terms of their dual links with the districts in the adjacent areas of Benin. Ogun state, which is the focus of this study, emerged out of the defunct old western region in 1976 and has the seat of government in Abeokuta. It is a state in the south west geo-political zone of Nigeria which shares boundaries with Lagos state to the

south, Oyo and Osun states to the north, Ondo state to the east, and the Republic of Benin to the west (Balogun, 2013). The state has three senatorial districts, namely Ogun West, Ogun East and Ogun Central, with a total number of 20 local government areas which include Abeokuta North, Abeokuta South, Ado-Odo/Ota, Yewa North, Yewa South, Ewekoro, Ifo, Ijebu-East, Ijebu-North, Ijebu North East, Ijebu-ode, Ikenne, Imeko-Afon, Ipokia, Obafemi-Owode, Ogun Waterside, Odeda, Odogbolu, Remo-North and Sagamu.

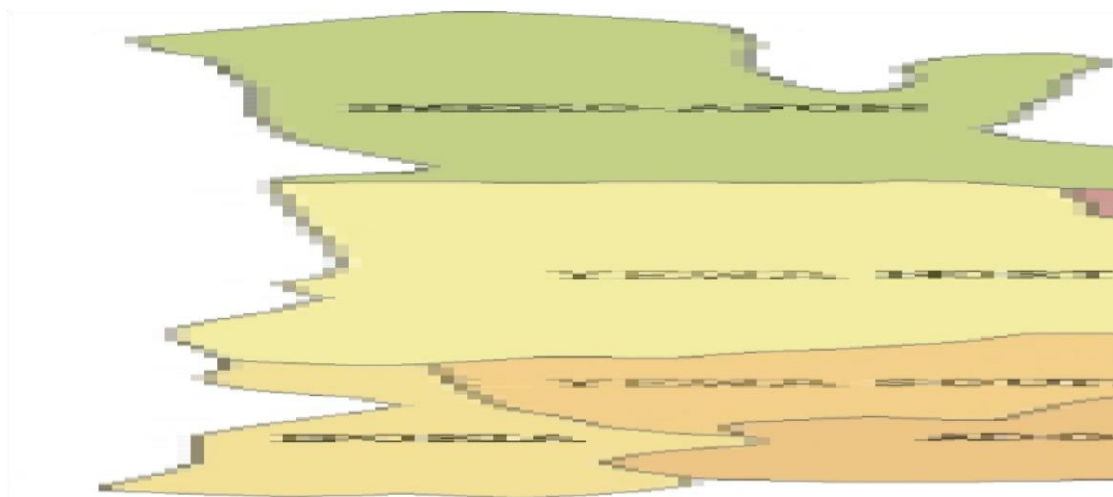


**Figure 2.4(a): Map of Ogun State showing the local governments (Balogun, 2013)**

The main ethnic group in the state is Yoruba which consists of several dialects such as the Egba, Awori (Egbado), Ijebu and Remo (Ogun State History, Tourists Attraction and Hotels, 2011). Other dialects are the Ikale, Ilaje and Owu. The state is situated between latitude 6.2°N and 7.8°N and longitude 3.0°E and 5.0°E, with a land mass of 16,409.26sqkm.

Accordingly, for this study, the Yewa South LGA of Ogun State and rural districts of Ifonyin include Itakete in the central Oueme Province (Benin), Yewa North and the rural districts of Ipobe, Ketu in the Northern half of the Oueme province

(Benin), and other areas included are Ipokia, Maun, Ijohun, Owode, Ado-odo and Ere, Imeko-Afon, etc. which lie within the Ipokia and Imeko-Afon LGA of the state.



**Figure 2.5 (b): Map of study site (Balogun, 2013)**

To clarify, Figure 2.1 was conceived by the author to indicate the LGA in which the transborder trading activities take place, which is herein referred to as the study site. It covers approximately five local government areas of Ado-Odo/Ota, Ipokia, Imeko-Afon and Yewa North and Yewa South respectively, all in the Ogun west senatorial district of the state.

#### **2.4 TRANSBORDER TRADING ACTIVITIES AND ARTICLES OF TRADE**

The movement of people across borders is mainly for economic transactions. Across Sub Saharan Africa, Migration is seen as a way out of poverty and a major source of living (Udoh, 2015) due mainly to the over-dependence on foreign goods. Titus (2008) states that people move on a daily basis within and outside their geo-political area for the purpose of trade

According to Adeyinka (2015) and Titeca & Timanuka, (2012) transborder trade is an economic activity that is both internal (i.e. within one's nationality) and external (across a country's geo-political area). In the West-African sub-region,

Nigeria's GDP is larger than that of the combined GDP of all the other states in the sub region put together with a lion share of 31 % of the annual West-African budget compared to Cote D'Ivoire's 12.6% as the second largest contributor (Udoh, 2015).

Trading at the border entails daily activities of buying and selling, semi-formalized marketing activities and formal trading transactions determined by the market forces of demand and supply. The current sociopolitical and economic environment in Sub-Saharan Africa and its attendant increase in the population of the unemployed have compelled the people to seek alternative means of livelihood, some of which are dangerous and most times resulting in transborder trade and migration (IOM Southern Africa Newsletter, 2010). It should be noted that most people involved in transborder trading activities need to keep body and soul together and as a result of this the little money they are able to garner from friends and relatives is what they use as startup capital. Through this means a lot of them have been able to support their families. In a recent study (Faleye 2015; Ojo, 2015; Titus, 2014), the researchers averred that the main articles of trade for border crossers along the Benin-Ikoko axis were textiles (28.1 %), food stuffs (24.5 %), fairly used tyres/motor parts (11.6 %), batteries/electronics (6.2 %), fairly used "TOKUNBO" (Imported) cars and tyres (4.3 %), jewelry (16.6%), plastic and detergents (3.2%), spirits/beer/cigarettes (9.1%), frozen chicken /turkey and tinned foods (34.6%), second hand clothing materials from Europe and the United States (10.4%), and material and ready-made clothes (8.2%).

Agricultural products, among others, boomed due to the reduction in the global oil prices, with Nigeria mostly hit due to the monoculture nature of her economy and a significant reduction in the income earning capabilities of the citizens which had a dastardly effect on both men and women and the border economy in general. Meanwhile, Afrika & Ajumbo (2012) observed that transborder trade generates about 43% of income for Africa's population even though it is regarded as illegal commercialization of cross-border activities that deplete the local industries' productive capabilities, hence causing high level of unemployment in the

countries concerned (Ike, 2013). This illegality has increased the level of unemployment in Nigeria as many industries have to close down as a result of the influx of imported goods into the Nigerian market selling far below the goods produced locally.

Traders believe that trading across the border is beneficial and this assertion was buttressed by two-thirds of traders involved in a survey conducted by Afolayan (2000). Points mentioned in support of the above assertion include easy accessibility to customers (18.3%), 11.0% mentioned availability of cheap items, while 10.3% of the respondents were of the opinion that ECOWAS protocol made travelling documents easy. Others include 9.8 % of respondents who complained about hassles faced at the border points and 6.1% cross borders easily because of familiarity with border officials. A total of 4.8 % of the respondents claimed that the trade was profitable, 3.6 % mentioned easy communication with border residents, and a few of the respondents (1.7 %) mentioned reasonable transport fare, while 1.5 % agreed that the exchange rate was fair.

One-third of the traders (respondents) in the survey had contrary opinions: 16% are bitter about the presence of large number of customs/immigration officials as well as their exploitative acts at the border, while 4.9% of them complained of experiencing a great deal of difficulty at the checkpoint, which made crossing tiresome. The problems experienced in obtaining travelling documents and the floating exchange rate (Njikam & Tchouassi, 2011) were also problems of transborder trading as identified by 6.5 % of the traders. The remaining proportion of the traders (5.4 %) mentioned other factors, including language barriers.

In line with the argument above, three specific types of informal trade across the Benin-Nigeria border can be identified. They are the illegitimate trade in petrol from Nigeria to Benin; the illicit importation of Nigerian manufactured goods into Benin; and the (re-) exportation of banned products such as frozen foods, used tyres, rice and a host of other products to Nigeria from Benin (Faleye,2015; Ojo, 2015; Titus, 2008). These hydra headed problems of informal trade across

borders require different policy approaches, both at the national, regional and international level to solve this problem.

According to the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNDFW) in the SADC region, women constitute about 70% of the informal cross- border traders, while in Western and Central Africa regions women constitute nearly 60% of informal traders (Ojo, 2015; Yusuff, 2014). Traders engage in transborder trade as a source of generating income, and about 54% of these female traders have little or no education (Ojo, 2015) who generate capital on their own or through loans or borrowing from friends and relatives (Njoku, 2012).

Traders involved in transborder trade are generally insolvent and as a result may not be able to meet or provide the collateral banks or other financial institutions require, hence their inability to raise capital. These traders can also be formally registered firms that evade payment of taxes, duties and regulations with the aim of avoiding border crossing posts.

Broadly speaking, participants engaged in transborder trade can be classified under the following three groups presented in Table 2.1.

**Table 2.1: Types of transborder traders (OECD, 2009)**

<b>Group A</b>	<b>Group B</b>	<b>Group C</b>
Informal (unregistered) traders or firms operating entirely outside the formal economy	Formal (registered) firms fully evading trade-related regulations and duties, e.g. avoiding official border crossing points	Formal (registered) firms partially evading trade-related regulations and duties by engaging in illegal practices  (e.g. under-invoicing)

Goods traded across the borders are categorized into three groups namely; non-processed, manufactured and re-exports goods. As demonstrated in Table 2.1, both West Africa and eastern African countries trade in livestock while the central and southern African countries are engaged in minerals and handicrafts, but in all, African countries generally are involved in foodstuffs and non-foodstuffs trade.

Manufactured and re-export goods consist mainly of substandard manufactured goods, imitations and illegal imports originating from the Asian continent (Afrika & Ajumbo, 2012).

Table 2.2 comprises a summary of goods traded cross borders within the African continent.

**Table 2.2: Categories of articles of trade (ADB Africa Economic Brief, 2012, p. 3)**

Classification	Products	Category
Non-Processed	Fruits, dried and fresh fish, marine products, wild vegetables, roots/tubers, spices, poultry products, livestock, grains, pulses, unprocessed beans	Food stuff
Manufactured / Semi-Processed	Hides and skins, paintings and handicrafts, woven clothing (kenteh), Iron implements, mortars	Non-foodstuff
	Sugar, edible oils, new and used clothing, dairy products, packaged beverages, soft drinks and juices, salt, agro-chemicals, cosmetic and toiletry products, confectionery and wheat products, plastic products ,beer etc.	Industrial Products
	Hard wood, precious metals, jewelry, gum Arabic, insects and insects products, rare poultry and game.	Minerals and Forest Products
Re-Exports	Manufactured foodstuffs, tobacco, petroleum products, electronic appliances, shoes, apparel, tools, spare parts and simple machines.	Re-Exports
Sub-standards and counterfeits	Fuels, precious metals, dairy products, banned goods.	Miscellaneous.



Right below the table above is another table that shows the products in various categories from the various sub-regions of the African continent.

**Table 2.3: Product categorization according to regions (ADB Africa Economic Brief, 2012, p. 3)**

Regions	Non-Processed foods	Manufactured foods	Re-Exports	Value of goods
Eastern Africa including Horn of Africa	Food stuffs and non-food stuff, livestock	Low quality manufacture d and processed foods	Low quality goods from Asia, contrabands, counterfeits, and substantial goods	\$50-\$1,000
West Africa	Foodstuffs and non-food stuffs			
Central Africa	Minerals, Jewelry, forestry products, food and non-foodstuffs			
Southern Africa	Handicrafts and foodstuff and non-foodstuffs			

## **2.4.1 CHARACTERISTICS OF TRANSBORDER TRADE**

1. Trade in staple foods and low quality consumer goods. Official statistical figures from Ugandan Bureau of Statistics 2012 revealed that goods exported across the border from Uganda to the rest of EAC equaled \$165 million representing 29% of the official exports that flowed into EAC in 2012 alone (FEWSNET).

Records from the East African Record Bulletin in 2013 show that 3 million tons of staple foods comprising of foodstuffs, non-food stuffs and livestock were traded informally in the region including Ethiopia and south Sudan. A 2011 report released by the national cross-border trade strategy recorded RWF 33.2 billion for informal and RWF 21.9 billion for formal trade in Rwanda (World Bank, 2015). In the ECOWAS region, cross-border trade is not based on staple foods alone but also on items such as frozen agricultural products, rice, petroleum products, used cars and tyres and electronics (Faleye, 2015; Ojo, 2015; Titus, 2014).

2. Transborder trade mainly involves individual traders, especially women with little capital (World Bank, 2015; Njoku, 2012; OECD, 2009) to commence trade. A current survey of four border posts in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Rwanda and Uganda confirmed that 85% of traders are women and 77% of these numbers earn their living through cross-border trade (World Bank, 2015), while in Benin and Nigeria 80% of women earn income as a result of their involvement in cross-border trade, and 70% Sierra Leonean women earn income from cross-border trade (FAO, 2008). As a result of the involvement of women in transborder trade, the level of unemployment is gradually reducing.

3. As a corollary to the above, since cross-border trade is women dominated and being perceived as illegal either partially or wholly (Tyson, 2015), traders offer bribes to customs officials to avoid seizure of their wares and circumvent border control posts by smuggling goods through alternative routes (Adeyinka, 2015; Ojo, 2015; Yusuff, 2014, Titus, 2014; Meagher, 2008; Afolayan, 2000) to cross borders or by walking through bush path (World Bank, 2015).

4. Traders who are mostly women derive income (earning) and also create employment opportunities (Yusuff, 2014). In a longitudinal study by the World Bank between 2001 and 2011, the study revealed that with the increase in the number of people involved in local cross-border trade, poverty has been reduced in border areas (Tyson, 2015). For instance, in the border lands of Uganda, DRC and Burundi the poverty level was reduced to 23% (World Bank, 2015). According to the report, this is made possible because of the income earning opportunities offered by cross-border trade in agricultural produce.

5. In addition, cross-border trade permits the local cross-border population the opportunity to realize the benefits of the trade through the small-scale value-chain that exists largely within the borderland itself, especially where the border landers see themselves as one indivisible entity irrespective of the boundary line that draws an 'artificial' demarcation between them (World Bank, 2015). Due to common historical and linguistic links, border residents tend to favor one another by allowing the movement of goods and persons across their territories without any form of restrictions, hence the artificial demarcation line drawn which is intended to separate the people is of no significance to the border landers.

6. According to Saana (2015), transborder trade makes available numerous economic opportunities and incentives. For instance, differences in prices of goods and the unstable currency exchange rate across the borders was capitalized upon by traders between Burundi and Rwanda (Afrika & Ajumbo, 2012; OECD, 2009). Avoidance of border officials or offering of bribes enables cross-border traders to undercut the prices of competitive formal traders. Sometimes they pass through bush paths or old roads (Adeyinka, 2015; Titus, 2014; Afolayan, 2000) or under-invoicing or misclassification of their consignments in order to save cost (OECD, 2009).

7. Another common characteristic of transborder trade is that most border posts have poor infrastructure, absence of transparency, and a high level corruption and weak control over traders who cross the border for trade based on agreements or regulations at the regional or sub-regional levels (Tyson, 2015).

## **2.4.2 DETERMINANTS OF TRANSBORDER TRADE IN AFRICA**

Several factors are responsible for the proliferation of transborder trade globally but most especially the African continent. Although the major causes differ from one continent to the other, theoretically speaking the main reasons for transborder trade in Africa could be classified as:

1. Lack of trade facilitation: Crossing borders formally can take days at times and this has made trading along the border to be lengthy, expensive and risky (Titeca & Timanuka, 2012; Golub, 2012). This affects the costs of clearing goods, payment of processing fees, rates and taxes generally far and above the value of goods being traded informally (Ojo, 2015).
2. Documents required by traders involved in transborder trade should be less stringent and there should be a downward review of the existing tax rules to cater for transborder traders who contribute to the overall GDP of the nations concerned. According to UNECA (2010), in Sub-Saharan Africa it takes an average of twelve days for products clearance while in Western Europe products are cleared in less than four days.
3. According to a research work by Blum (2014), moving goods formally across the border may be dangerous because of the shortage of infrastructure at borders which include among others poor warehousing facilities (UNECA, 2010), ineffective and understaffed border agencies and institutions, poor transport networks, and availability of community markets. Inadequate public and private transportation systems cause delays, coupled with bad roads making traders to sometimes pass the night on roads (Ojo, 2015) and in the process forcing them to miss community market days and their consumable goods especially agricultural produce to perish. The absence of veterinary services in cattle market areas coupled with long trekking distances to cover increases the mortality rate and weight loss of the livestock causing the traders to run at a loss (UNECA, 2010).

4. Limited access to finance: According to Njoku (2012), most traders have limited access to finance due to insolvency and also no collateral to assess loans from financial institutions (UNECA, 2010).
5. Due to the absence of financial institutions such as micro-finance banks and other commercial banks in the rural areas, it becomes difficult for traders to have access to financial services. Since policymakers generally regard cross- border trade as illegal, the scope and opportunities for developing border trade related finance facilities have not been adequately explored. Access to finance could provide a tremendous incentive for informal traders to join the formal economy. Small scale operators find it extremely difficult to compete with the big traders who have the financial and operational wherewithal to take risks for quick business. Instead the small scale cross- border trader relies on the application of homogenous tactics which include carrying the goods through bush paths in small quantities so as to avoid paying heavy taxes and other charges (UNECA, 2010).
6. Inadequate communications and transport: Most rural areas located around border posts do not have access to communication facilities. Furthermore, the problem of storing and packaging their produce creates further bottlenecks to the flow of cross- border trade. Goods moved with rickety vehicles especially perishable products are wasted and destroyed as a result of delays sometimes experienced at the border posts coupled with the bad conditions of the road (UNECA, 2010) and the vehicle itself. According to Ojo (2015), along the Lagos–Seme road it takes some vehicles days to deliver the goods due to bad roads and poor conditions of the vehicles.
7. Lack of adequate records regarding the volume of transactions as most informal trade is unrecorded, under-valued, under-invoiced and underpriced (UNECA, 2010). The turgid nature of trade flows across the borders and the assorted nature of the products traded on a daily basis

ranging from agricultural products (mostly unprocessed) to clothing materials, counterfeit drugs, light arms, etc.

8. Stiff competition from counterfeit and substandard goods produced outside the region demoralize domestic producers leading to importation of low quality and dangerous goods into the market. The entrance of these products into the markets has both economic and health implications for the people and a drain on the nations income (UNCTAD, 2008).
9. Foreign exchange restrictions: The bottlenecks caused by the deteriorating exchange support systems gave an impetus to the practice of transborder trade which led to legitimate businessmen and women operating at the mercy of parallel market operators (black market) at the various border check points. Instead of sourcing foreign currency from the banks, they resort to the black markets to meet their foreign exchange needs in order to stay in business.

### **2.4.3 EFFECTS OF TRANSBORDER TRADE**

Depending on border specificities, regional and local circumstances, cross-border trade influences the consumers, producers and government differently. According to Hukportie (2014), transborder trade accelerates the economic development of Ghana and this has assisted in drastically reducing the level of unemployment (UNECA, 2010) especially for those living close to the border. Apart from reducing unemployment, government revenue is increased from tickets issued to those who cross the borders to trade. Conversely, at Nigeria's end of the border, the custom officers and immigration officials make money at the expense of the Nigerian government from the bribes they collect from cross-border traders and under-invoicing of goods that come in through the Seme border (Ike, 2015; Hoffman & Paul, 2015; Raballand & Mjekiqi, 2010).

Yusuff (2014) states that women in cross-border trade become financially independent as a result of their involvement in this trade and are therefore able to

meet the financial obligations of their families from the income realized in the trade. In addition, (Saana, 2015 and Tyson, 2015) avers that 80% of women in both Benin Republic and Nigeria earn income due to their involvement in cross-border trade, while in Sierra-Leone 70% of women earn income from cross-border trade.

Women involved in transborder trade are able to break the back bone of poverty and ease competition as a result of their involvement in transborder trade, even though these women encounter myriads of problems in the course of crossing the border to trade (Shamu, 2005). Such problems identified by Shamu (2005) include multiple control posts along the border; insecurity and harassment from government agents (customs and immigration officers inclusive); language barriers; the problem of currency exchange (Njikam & Tchouassi, 2011) mainly between CFA and the Nigerian naira which make them patronize informal (Black) market operators, and a host of other problems.

According to a United Nations Conference on Trade and Agreement (UNCTAD, 2010) report, the social and cultural identities of the trading population especially those resident in border towns provide an operational base for the development of powerful transnational traders, national and micro-networks from neighboring border areas and emergence of periodic markets. Traders in the border zones have the opportunity to carry out the right technique in order to exploit opportunities emerging from the weaknesses in the government trade and economic policies. This is feasible because the traders have long experience conducting this type of trade as they are used to the terrain in which the trading activities takes place.

Furthermore, Saana (2015) reports that there is a tremendous increase in the size of the regional market in West Africa. It has grown from 78million in 1960 to 265million by 2005 and it is estimated to hit an all-time high figure of 485million by 2030. This upward shift in the population will have a remarkable impact on the development of transborder trade because of the prospective market for food supplies and distribution during periods of economic recession.

The implementation of common external tariffs (CET) and the establishment of free trade zones (FTZ) partly in some countries will widen the opportunity of trade for transborder traders. In the ECOWAS sub-region, the population has doubled from 132million in 1980 to 265million in 2005 indicating a growth rate of 322% in the production of crops to cater for the increased population (UNCTAD, 2010).

Apart from increase in crop production, egg production equally experienced an increase of 266%, while meat and chicken accounted for 215% and ruminants 158%. A continuation of this trend in the next 20 years will have a positive effect on intra-regional as well as transborder trade, especially if the trade policies are fully implemented with major infrastructure and communication products put in place. The adoption of CET will ease the flow of goods across borders and this will make goods get to the locals who are far from the central markets located in the heart of the cities.

The flexibility enjoyed by the actors to do what their resources permit based on an individual's perception of market risk informs the level of competition and the constraints of demand and supply. According to UNCTAD (2010), cross- border traders operate without any observable guiding principles, though there may be specific group regulations to resolve conflicts when the need arises, restrictions to market entrance are reduced in some cases, or unstated agreements are reached to encourage traders.

In terms of revenue generation, governments lose because traders evade payment of tax and duties accounting for the shortfall in revenue accruable to the government. Nations that have low revenue bases but higher incidence of transborder trade along their borders such as Ethiopia, Benin, Togo, Niger, Mali, Congo, South Sudan and Somalia may experience macroeconomic discrepancies as a result of income losses.



#### **2.3.4 PROBLEMS OF TRANSBORDER TRADE**

Participants in transborder trade who are involved in the movement of goods and persons in West Africa and other countries of the world are confronted with the following challenges:

There is an increase in the level of transborder crimes such as smuggling (Faleye, 2015; Ojo, 2015; Njoku et al., 2013; GAATW, 2011), human trafficking (Titus et al., 2016; World Report, 2016; Thipanyane, 2015; HRW, 2014; UNODC, 2009, 2012; Brown, 2010; Rafferty, 2008; Salah, 2001), drugs trafficking (NHRTC, 2013; Berestein, 2010; Campbell, 2008), and illegal arms trafficking (Adetula, 2015; Opanike & Aduloju, 2015; Seniora & Poitevin, 2013; Aluko, 2012) across the borders of different nations which of course is a threat to the security of lives and properties.

The unrestricted movement of citizens across the sub region as a result of the treaty on the free movement of goods and persons in member countries of ECOWAS and other groupings in other sub-regions. Tension is generated among citizens of the receiving nations especially when the labour market is taken over by the immigrants, thereby leading to high level of unemployment in the recipient nations.

For instance, in Nigeria when majority of teachers from neighboring Ghana were gainfully employed and equally qualified Nigerians could not get jobs in the early 80s and even today in the construction industry where nationals of other nations are willing to take up employment at far below the minimum wage level. In South Africa, a case of xenophobia recently occurred where foreign citizens were attacked by South African citizens who saw them as the cause of their joblessness.

- (a) Another notable problem is the issue of corruption of government agents (customs, immigration, gendarmes, etc.) at border posts in different regions of the world. These agents endanger the security and economic well-

being of the nation (Dobler, 2016; Opanike & Aduloju, 2015; Ojo, 2015; Ike, 2013; Blum, 2014; Habiba Bin Barka, 2012; Matsuyama, 2011). They collect bribes at the port of entry and permit all shades of goods and persons to go through the borders at the detriment of the country in question.

(b) Flowing from the above point is the porous nature of the Nigerian border and borders of other nations (Somerville, 2013; Titeca & Timanuka, 2012; Okunmu, 2008). The Nigeria-Benin border is very porous, hence it is a fertile ground for international terrorist groups (Adetula, 2015; Opanike & Aduloju, 2015) such as Boko Haram in Nigeria (HRW, 2014, Parker, 2012; Shepler, 2012), Al' Qaeda in Islamic Maghreb, ISIS in Syria, and Al' Shabaab in Somalia (Hashim, 2015). These terrorist groups have destroyed many homes, lives and properties and their activities have caused a tremendous increase in the number of internally displaced persons (IDPs) in all countries where their dastardly inhuman acts have been carried out.

(c) Increased number of time spent (hours, days and weeks) in completing paper work, processing of permits and licenses, payment of administrative fees, etc. at the border (Amoako-Tuffor, Balchin, Calabrese, & Mendez-Parra, 2016) are amongst the serious problems of transborder trade.

As a result of this long delay at border posts, it adds to the final cost in which goods will be sold to the consumers and if the goods waiting for clearance are a perishable products the owners of the consignment will run at a loss – a situation not acceptable to cross- border traders. These long clearance procedures pave the way for corrupt government agencies, customs and the likes to collect bribes from the traders and an avenue for them to enrich themselves at the expense of the state.

(d) Multiple border posts and check points: The number of check points from one border to another is numerous, hence the introduction of One- Stop- Border Post (OSBP) in the East African Community (EAC) among member states to reduce the number of check points to facilitate the exchange of

goods at border posts and reduce transit times at the border (Amoako-Tuffor et al., 2016).

#### **2.4.5 SUGGESTED SOLUTIONS**

Governments at international, regional and local levels are disturbed with the trend of events at the informal sector of the economy in which transborder trade falls within. As a result of this, several agreements were reached at regional and sub-regional levels to identify the problems of transborder trade and to proffer solutions.

In the SADC region, Jouanjean et al. (2015) suggests the elimination of barriers to trade by simplifying the custom procedures and the creation of a common custom union. Pearson (2011) agrees that coordinated border management (CBM) guidelines and systems should be developed to ensure that the clearing of goods is undertaken 'behind the border' in order to reduce disruptions to the movement of goods and persons across the border to save time and cost.

According to Amoako-Tuffor et al. (2016), the automation of customs administrations and harmonization of IT systems within the SADC region and other regions accounts for free flow of goods and people. Additionally, intermediaries (middlemen/agents) should be removed through the creation of SADC integrated regional electronic settlement system (SIRESS), hence facilitating easy cross-border regional payment transactions to boost intra-SADC trade.

In the EAC, the suggestion includes the OSBPs which allow for one single inspection of cargo by all agencies (customs, immigrations, standards and agriculture authorities, drugs enforcement, etc.) on one side of the border without repeating the inspection on the other side. According to Amoako-Tuffor et al. (2016), this will considerably reduce transit times and ease congestion at all borders. USTIC (2012) further suggested that clearance of goods can be facilitated by using risk-based inspections. This implies that only cargo goods that pose higher risk are inspected. For instance, in Kenya 60%

of all cargo was inspected and 51% in Tanzania and this still resulted in delays of clearing goods, but in Zambia where only 8% was inspected based on the risk-based inspections there was no delay at the border (World Bank, 2014) save for Kenya and Tanzania where there was delay in trade and border crossing.

In the case of ECOWAS, Amoako-Tuffor et al. (2016) suggested that sharing border management responsibilities within a common control zone should reduce the delays being experienced at the borders especially for fragile agricultural products and this can only be possible by creating joint border posts in order to reduce the number of check points along various border routes and also to ensure sanity at the border posts.

## **2.5 SMUGGLING AND STUDENTS' ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE**

Border dwellers create avenues for traders to enhance movement through their territories for non-local traders not only by entering into a pact with custom officials and guards within the border but also by enabling these traders to avoid conflict with officials and government agencies by leading the traders through secret routes around the border post. This stress-free passage is easily attained during the dry season, where the river beds are crossed at a number of points using remote bush paths and old roads called "*Fayawo*" (smuggling routes)(Titus, 2014; Meagher, 2010).

Aluko (2012) asserts that transborder communities acting as corridors for smuggled goods, including the illicit shipment of small arms and light weapons (SALW) into the economy, occupy key positions in respect of the security of lives and properties of the citizens of the country. This is due to the fact that while it serves as the points of destination for the goods coming into the country, it also attracts people with diverse backgrounds with different intentions that could be of security risk to the country.

Smuggling in West Africa is thriving because of the inconsistency of government policy over borders and the gross inefficiency of government agencies manning the borders which gives smugglers easy access to evade border rules. These and

other factors give rise to crime across the borders from West to central Africa and to other parts of the world. Cross-border crime in West Africa is not as organized like that of North America.

According to Ike (2013), West African countries such as Cote d'Ivoire, Ghana, Senegal and Nigeria are points of arrival for international migrants while Lagos and Dakar are preferred cities with teeming inflow of people from other parts of the subcontinent. Nigeria, which shares borders with francophone countries, has to contend with influx of people and as a result Lagos has become the melting pot for the citizens of these countries.

One factor that sometimes leads people into the act of smuggling, which is an integral part of transborder trade, is the desperation to make quick money as those involved in this illicit business are mainly tax evaders (Yusuf, 2014; Prag, 2010; Meagher, 2008). However, in a study carried out by Brenton, Bucekuderhwa, Hossein, Nagaki, and Ntagoma (2014) along the Lake Chad border region, they concluded that contrary to widely held opinion that border crossers are engaged in informal activities, they (traders) are ready to pay the normal duties and wish to be treated as distinguished business men and women rather than being seen and treated as mere 'smugglers'. Ike(2013) observed that the porous border of West African countries have continued to prompt transborder crime and instability in the sub region due to inappropriate instruments put in place to monitor movement and illicit activities across these borders.

Ojo (2015) argues that smuggling is not new in South East Asia with several attempts by the states to pin down smugglers for many centuries. Smuggling of drugs dates back to the 19<sup>th</sup> century with Chinese and Armenian trade networks. Tagliacozzo (2002) posit that another illegal trade in the region is that of human trafficking.

Just like in other parts of the world, human trafficking has occurred for decades in South East Asia. It should be noted that cross-border criminal activities undoubtedly dent good governance and security, negatively impacting on the rule

of law, economic activities and growth of the economy, human rights and general sociocultural advancement within the sub region.

The urge to meet the basic needs of life of food, clothes and shelter is the driving force of so many people into transborder trade (Adeyinka, 2015). The theory of rational choice is of relevance to this study to give an insight into how it could be used to assist this category of people. Because of the oil boom in Nigeria, from 1970 to date Benin and Togo have been competing to serve as the point of distribution for illegally imported goods into Nigeria, as well as serving as a transit corridor for Niger and Benin Republic. Benin has the advantage of sharing a long border with Nigeria, similar to that of Togo with Benin, hence traders must cross through Benin or circumvent Burkina Faso and Niger to Nigeria. This demerit is particularly severe for perishable goods that require refrigeration for its protection from being destroyed (World Bank 2010).

Moving of goods through the Republic of Benin attracts a transit fee of 6.3% which contravenes the WAEMU's free trade provisions for member nations (Golub, 2012). In the Republic of Benin, goods declared for domestic use at the entry point are quite often smuggled into Nigeria because Nigerian protection is so high; the sea ports are not functional and the rigid exchange rate regime of Nigeria's currency (naira) and the government's refusal to liberalize trade made smuggling lucrative and attractive even after the payment of import duties in Republic of Benin (World Bank, 2009). This also occurs for products banned outrightly in Nigeria such as frozen poultry products, fairly used cloth and used tyres, as well as goods facing high tariffs such as rice.

### **2.5.1 THE EFFECTS OF SMUGGLING**

Since the early 1970's when exportation of crude oil began in Nigeria, there was a dramatic turnaround in the economy of the country and this led Togo and Benin to compete in serving as point of entry of smuggled goods into Nigeria (Golub, 2012). Traders smuggle their wares through the border by circumventing the custom officers or sometimes offer bribes in order to cross their merchandise from one end of the border to another.

Smuggling generates ripple effects on the political, social and economic life of a nation. Half of the government tax revenues generated in Benin and Togo are derived from taxes on trade (Golub, 2012) especially goods coming into the Nigerian market through the Lome-Cotonou- Seme border. Togo's main source of revenue comes from custom duties and VATs while for Benin their main source is traceable to taxes and fees on transit goods, mainly used cars whose final destination is Nigeria, but in the case of Nigeria, substantial revenue is being lost to the activities of smugglers through the evasion of taxes, under-invoicing and non-declaration of goods at the border custom control points (Golub, 2012; Prag, 2010; The Sunday Punch, 2009; The Guardian, 2009). Transborder trade is a crucial source of income and employment for both Togo and Republic of Benin. According to Perot (2002), the used cars market in Benin alone generated about 9% of Benin's GDP in 2001. Revenue from fairly used cars and other vehicles is substantially high in both Benin and Togo, while income is equally generated from rice, fairly used clothes and sugar.

The volume of imported cars from Europe and other parts of the world into Benin serves as a major revenue earner and income generating venture for the Benin government as local businesses such as food vendors, mechanics, hoteliers, painters, drivers, car body shops and a host of others make lots of money and employ people to assist in the business. On the flip side, it is the Nigerian economy that suffers the brunt in form of massive unemployment and reduction in revenue accruing to the purse of the government (Udoh, 2015; Hoffman & Paul, 2015; Ojo, 2015).

According to World Bank report of 2009, the high protectionist economic policy adopted by the Nigerian government gave rise to smuggling of goods from the Republic of Benin and Togo end. Despite paying import duties on commodities such as frozen foods, rice and clothes in Benin, it is still cheaper for border traders operating in the two countries to sell these goods in Nigeria. It is therefore not a surprise that much effort is concentrated on goods such as fairly used cars and clothes, rice, vegetable oil and frozen poultry products because they are

under heavy protection by the government of Senegal and Nigeria (Benjamin et al., 2015, p. 390).

The determination of the Nigerian government to curb the despicable activities of smugglers is taking a heavy toll on budgetary allocation for security and security agencies (Soyombo, 2009). This fund could have been diverted into the education stream especially for schools in rural areas (border communities) where most of the structures are derelict with broken desks and chairs, inadequate sanitation facilities, absence of electricity, laboratories and so on (Accelerating to progress in Nigeria, 2013; Kiumi et al., 2013). The provision of necessary infrastructural facilities in the rural communities with adequate staffing and quality instructional materials would enhance the academic performance of secondary school students whose schools are located in border communities.

The illegal influx of imported goods and products is at the detriment of related industries that produce these goods domestically and hence cause unemployment. For instance, the smuggling of second-hand textile materials from Europe and the United states of America is so massive that it has destroyed the growth of textile industries at home (Prag,2010; Raballand & Mjekiqi, 2010;The Guardian, 2009).

Along the Benin–Nigeria border warehouses are constructed and operated by private traders with markets on both sides of the border. Apart from the textile industries, the automobile industries especially of used cars create a lot of income, generating about 9% of the country's GDP in 2001 and employment in the Republic of Benin for other sectors of their economy such as hoteliers, food vendors, mechanics, painters, body shops, etc. (Golub, 2012). However, in Nigeria the unemployment market grows by the day since the ports charge exorbitant rates for goods to be cleared, hence diversion of these imports to the ports of Benin.

As a result of increase in the rate of unemployment that could be traced to the effect of smuggling activities which render our local textile industries impotent, students whose schools are located in border towns do not see the need for education (Orji,2013; Owoeye & Yara, 2011), hence only a negligible percentage



of 2 % in a study carried out by Ojo (2015) revealed that those involved in transborder trade are graduates, which could be as a result of their poor performance in their final exams.

A study by Ojo (2015) revealed that 96% of the respondents agreed that smuggling of goods across the border is highly risky with only 4% raising a dissenting voice. Such risks, according to the study, includes confiscation of the smuggled goods and impounding of the vehicles used in conveying the goods by custom officers. When this happens the traders run at a loss and go bankrupt.

Apart from the goods being seized and the vehicles impounded, accident is one factor associated with smuggling of goods. In an attempt to escape arrest from custom officers, the smugglers get involved in accidents which sometimes could be fatal resulting in loss of lives and properties (Oladeji, 2010; Ojo, 2015). Apart from accidents, the transborder traders are faced with the challenge of armed robbers who collect their money at gun point. This takes place mostly for traders who smuggle their wares through the bush path as an escape route.

Another hazard involved in smuggling of goods is the exchange of gun shots between custom officers and the smugglers which in most cases results in loss of lives on both side of the divide. In 2012, there was a reprisal attack on custom officers by smugglers in Ilashe community in the Owode-Ildiroko axis of Ogun state for the death of one of the community members – a situation that led to the death of three customs officers.

According to Ojo (2015, p.57), residents of communities in border areas suffer serious consequences from smugglers' activities as these activities have effect in the following ways: Firstly, the communities explained that whenever there is a clash between smugglers and custom officers, extra-judicial killing always occurs whereby innocent members of their community lose their lives.

Secondly, within the community, smuggling activities has brought about an increase in the illicit use of drugs especially among the youths of the community. The resultant effect of this is that students are now found using drugs and most of them has become drug addicts whose dependence and survival is now drug-based.

Thirdly, the rate of prostitution and premarital sex has increased in border communities with a high incidence of teenage pregnancy (Ojo, 2015). This has a serious, adverse effect on the future of these young girls whose educational carriers are disrupted or sometimes come to an abrupt end.

Furthermore, child labour is on the increase in these communities with a corresponding increase in the dropout level of students from schools. The implication of this is the negative impact of smuggling on schools in border towns as most of the students (boys) are involved in smuggling activities acting as spies for smugglers or sometimes taking them through routes unknown to custom officers for a fee, while the girls are involved in selling local gin and herbs for custom officers and Kelebe's at night (Ojo, 2015, p.58; Titus, 2008).

As a result of this, the students have lost interest in education and prefer smuggling to schooling because they make money for getting involved in these transborder trading activities. Not only that, the authority of the parents over their wards in border communities has reduced drastically since most of these students fend for themselves.

Communities within border towns have also been stigmatized as havens for criminals and criminal behaviours and this negatively impacts on the image of residents of such communities. From the foregoing consequences of smuggling activities on students' academic performance, the prominent concern is how these problems can be solved. Ojo (2015) suggests that students need to be counseled about the implications of their involvement in smuggling on their future.

The problems identified with transborder trade have resulted in major changes to the individual, society and member states of ECOWAS and to the freedom of most goods and persons in West Africa generally. Also, instability in the ECOWAS sub region hindered efforts at creating a peaceful and stable integrated economic forum that gives a free hand conducive for investment, trade, growth and development in the sub region.

Another component of transborder trade that will further explain the basis for this study is the menace of human trafficking on both male and female school age children that will be briefly introduced.

## **2.6 HUMAN TRAFFICKING AND STUDENTS' ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE**

The UNODC (2005) describes human trafficking as “the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harboring or receipt of persons, by means of the use of threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, or of abduction, of fraud, of deception, or of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation”.

Human trafficking could more precisely be described as enslavement and abuse of people for several years. It could also be referred to as labour trafficking, sex trafficking or both and can take place anywhere, either in cities, towns, villages, schools, homes, or shelters (NHTRC, 2013).

Human trafficking in West Africa is enormous with trafficking in children particularly spreading rapidly across eleven of the fifteen member states of the ECOWAS including Ghana, Togo, Benin, Burkina Faso, Nigeria, Niger, Cote Ivoire, Guinea, Sierra Leone, Gambia and Mali. Available statistics indicate that the scale of the problem is massive with about 200,000 children trafficked in West Africa and Central African Republic (ILO, 2013).

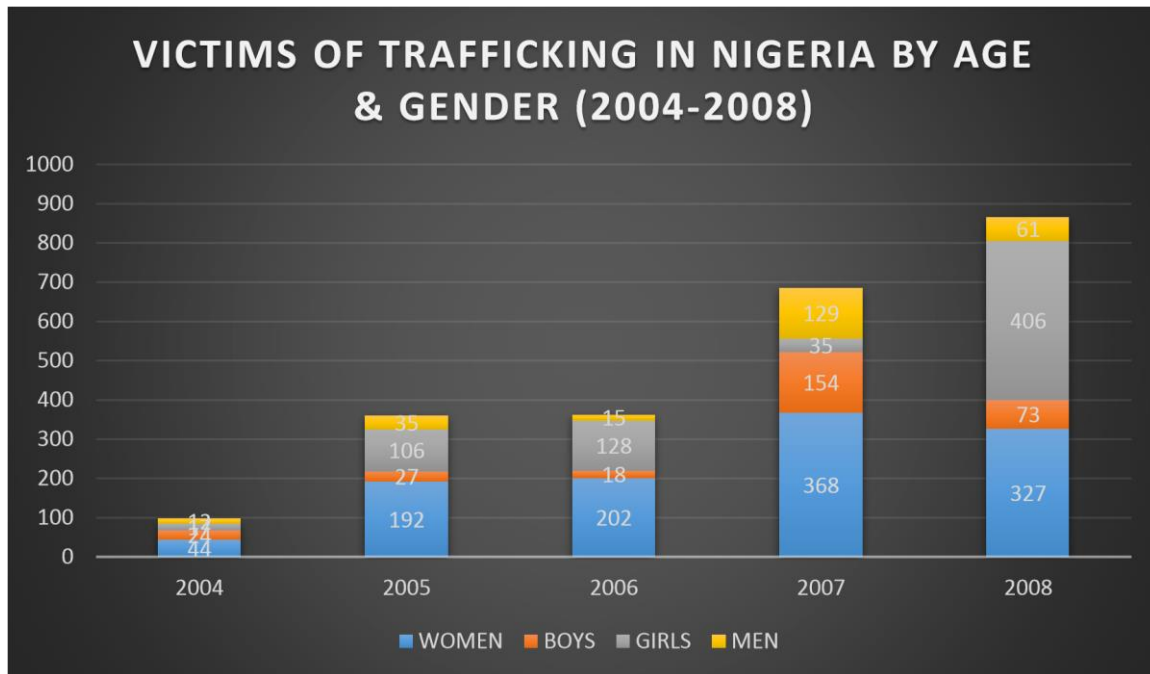
According to Thipanyane (2015), ILO estimated that over US \$150 billion is realized as illegal profits by traffickers trading persons and US \$99 billion out of the 150 can be traced to commercial sex exploitation. In 2014 the Global Slavery Index (2014) estimated that 31.5 million People were held in slavery worldwide and from this figure 21 million are victims of forced labour while 4.5 million are victims of forced exploitation. From these statistics, Nigeria and DRC rank among the top 10 largest number of enslaved people with other nations such as India, China, Pakistan and Russia.

Nigerian children are engaged in child labour, including agriculture where they are used in farmlands for planting and harvesting of agricultural produce (TIP, 2014; Human Rights, 2013; IRIN, 2010) and as suicide bombers in the North–East region of Nigeria by the deadly Islamic militant group Boko Haram (HRW, 2014). Traffickers use myriads of tactics such as coercion, threats, controlled access to food and water, isolation as well as physical and psychological manipulations to have a firm grip over their victims and rule out any chance of escape by destroying their physical and psychological defenses (Rafferty, 2008; IOM, 2007).

The following table shows the percentage and age bracket of children who are supposed to be in schools that were trafficked.

<b>Table 2.4: Statistics on children’s work and Education (UNESCO, 2015)</b>		
<b>Children</b>	<b>Age</b>	<b>%</b>
Working %	5-14 years	31.1
Attending school %	5-14 years	76.2
Combining work and school %	7-14 years	26.8
Primary completion rate %		76.0

This table reveals that 26.8% school age children combine work with education which is against the UNESCO Education for All goal of 2015 as encapsulated in the agreement reached in Joitem, Thailand in 1999 where it was unanimously agreed by nations present including Nigeria that children have the right and access to free education. A total of 76.0% completed primary school while 24% of school age children did not complete primary education despite the fact that UBE made education compulsory and free the first nine years of schooling from Primary 1 to JSS 3 (Accelerating Progress to Nigeria, 2013).



**Figure 2.5: Victims of trafficking in Nigeria by age & gender (2004-2008) (NAPTIP, 2009)**

Figure 2.5 represents a five year report (2004-2008) of categories of people trafficked in Nigeria. From this table statistical records prove that females are trafficked more than males. From this table the rapid progression of the number of trafficked women is on the increase on a yearly basis except for 2008 when the figure dropped from 368 to 327. The same pattern is noticeable for girls: there is a steady increase from 2004 until 2007 when there is a sharp drop from 128 to 25, but by 2008 there was an exponential increase in the number of girls trafficked during the reporting period which is not a good omen for the educational development of the girls. Trafficking in persons is of a global concern with a clear pattern; the only difference is in terms of proportion.

For further illustration, Figure 2.6 graphically shows victims of trafficking in Zambia by age and gender from 2004 to 2006 to substantiate the claims made earlier from various scholars on trafficking in women and girls across the globe.



**Figure 2.6: Victims of trafficking in persons in Zambia by age and gender (2004 - 2006) (UNODC, 2009)**

This figure reveals that in Zambia the largest proportion of trafficked human beings are women and girls in the three years (2004-2006) covered by the report. In 2004, 100% of human trafficking in Zambia were girls while in 2005 an equal percentage (49%) of boys and girls were trafficked with just an insignificant figure of 2% representing women trafficked in that year. In 2006, 62.5% girls, 25 % boys and 12.5% women were trafficked – a clear departure from the trafficking pattern in Nigeria where more women and girls were trafficked compared to boys and men.

According to UNODC(2012), Nigeria plays a tripartite role in child trafficking; it acts as a source, a transit (Ering, 2011), and the end point nation (Thipanyane, 2015) for child trafficking who are used at the local level to work on farms, as street beggars, house helps, mining, quarrying, and street hawking (TIP,2014; IRIN, 2010). Nigerian school age children are transferred to Equatorial Guinea

where they are compelled to work as house helps, market labourers, vendors, and launderers (TIP, 2014).

Apart from Equatorial Guinea, children trafficked from Nigeria are taken to Saudi Arabia where they are used as beggars and street traders acting as vendors (USDOL, 2015; TIP, 2014). Girls from Nigeria (Edo and Delta states) are transferred to Europe especially Italy to work in brothels as pimps for commercial sexual exploitation (TIP, 2014). Furthermore, the children from the Republic of Benin, Ghana and Togo are trafficked to Nigeria, where many are forced to work in granite mines (TIP, 2014). Boys from Niger Republic are exposed to forced labour, including forced begging in Nigeria, by corrupt Islamic teachers (USDOL, 2015).

The high level of poverty (Brown, 2010) combined with high level of unemployment and corruption (Thipanyane, 2015) with a flawed education system has created an insecure atmosphere causing youths' vulnerability to participation in armed conflict with various insurgent groups, including ethnic-based militia organizations such as movement for emancipation of Niger Delta (MEND), criminal gangs, cultist groups, extremist groups, and partisan political organizations such as party "Youth wings" (Parker, 2012; Gambrell, 2012). Eight year old children are recruited forcefully into such groups (Shepler, 2012). It is worrisome that youths are involved in drug trafficking (Ering, 2011) which makes them a veritable tool in the hands of cults and militia groups for destruction of human properties and life. Also, the attrition rate of students in schools has increased which portends a great danger to the overall development of the students concerned and the society at large (IRIN, 2013).

According to HRW (2014) and Hembra (2014), eleven year old boys (Watch List, 2014) recruited and used as soldiers by the insurgent group Jama'atu Ahlis Sunna Lidda'awati wal-Jihad, commonly referred to as Boko Haram, are engaged in fighting, planting of bombs, acting as spies and suicide bombers, while girls kidnapped by Boko Haram are used as domestic labour, sexually exploited

(Raghavan, 2013), and some are trained as suicide bombers (HRW, 2014), whereas their counterparts in other regions of the nation are in schools.

The insurgents (Boko Haram) use children as suicide bombers to destroy schools and also kidnap hundreds of women. The use of under-aged children to carry out dastardly acts caught the attention of government when in Damaturu Yobe state fifteen people lost their lives and 46 suffered serious injuries when a 10year old girl blew up herself. As a result of this incident, over 1,300 hostages were rescued by government forces while none of the 219 abducted Chibok girls kidnapped by the insurgents could be rescued (HRW, 2016).

Boko Haram's incessant attacks on primary and secondary schools in Northeast Nigeria has continued unabated, killing 59 boys and abducted 276 girls in 2014 in Chibok, Borno State (Watch list, 2014; Hembra, 2014). Teachers are threatened and intimidated by the insurgency group and this has led to mass closure of secondary schools in Northeast Nigeria (Watch list, 2014; Raghavan, 2013; IRIN, 2013), while many students especially girls have been withdrawn from school to avoid being kidnapped (HRW, 2014). This will adversely affect the academic performance of these students when they eventually return back to school.

From the UNICEF report of 2015, 120 schools were forced to close down in ten districts of the far-north for the 2014-2015 school year due to threats from Boko Haram against school directors and community members. Based on the 2013-2014 enrollment figure, 33,163 children representing 43% of girls are out of school or forced to seek for schools outside their native communities; 29,000 students totally lost the 2014-2015 academic year due to closure of schools. About 104 host schools including 3 pre-primary and 101 primary totaling 66,077 students have been identified in about eight districts in the far- north, while 3,750 internally displaced students (41%) have been identified in these schools.



**Table 2.5: Overview of children’s work by sector and activity (UNESCO, 2015)**

Sector/Industry	Activity
Agriculture	Production of cassava, cocoa and tobacco, herding livestock’s, fishing activities.
Industry	Mining and quarrying, granite and gravel and breaking granite into gravel. Harvesting sand, gold mining and processing, construction activities.
Services	Domestic service, auto repair, conducting mini-buses, street hawking, street begging including Almajiri.
Categorical worst form of child labor	<p>Commercial sexual exploitation as a result of human trafficking, begging, domestic service, street hawking, mining and quarrying of gravel and granite and work in agriculture including cocoa, as a result of human trafficking.</p> <p>Used in illicit activities for armed groups, sometimes as a result of forced recruitment, including participating in extortion, intimidation, armed robbery and drug trafficking, used in armed conflict.</p>

Table 2.5 summarises the gloomy picture of the future of trafficked children and the work by sector activity the children are engaged in forcibly against their wish.

According to the UNICEF report of 2015, Nigeria is notorious for being at the forefront of cross-border trafficking and internal trafficking of persons. The opportunity for education and a chance for self-development in preparation for the future is destroyed when a child is trafficked. Rafferty (2008) identified that victims of human trafficking suffer psychological and emotional trauma which in later years result in defective verbal and memory skills, language and cognitive deficiencies, developmental delays due to the aforementioned points, and repetition of classes because of poor academic performance.

As a result of this inhuman practice, students of school age who are supposed to be in school and actively involved in learning are forced into labour and others into early marriage (Titus et al., 2016) against their wish – a practice common in the northern part of Nigeria where girls of between the ages of 12 and 15 years are forcefully given out in marriage against their consent in violation of their human rights Article 21 of the African Charter of the Rights and Welfare of the Child (Titus et al., 2016). The question that begs answering is what the reasons are for trafficking human beings, especially school age children.

### **2.6.1 REASONS FOR HUMAN TRAFFICKING**

Human trafficking is a menace that has eaten deep into the fabrics of some nations in the world. Scholars from different parts of the world and various government and nongovernmental agencies have also looked into the various reasons that allow human trafficking to thrive. Some of the reasons for human trafficking are identified and explained below.

#### **Poverty**

Despite the abundance of human, material and natural resources in Nigeria, it is still rated as one of the poorest nations globally with a GDP per capita income of \$1,250 (2012 est.) for a population of about 170 million. The level of unemployment has reached a crescendo resulting in poor living conditions and a general lack of opportunities for economic ventures. A higher proportion of the people (about 72% in West Africa) live below the poverty line, therefore populations living in a state of political and economic instability often tend to move out to seek greener pastures and at the end become victims to traffickers who lure them with employment opportunities (Thanh-Dam, 2006; Fong, 2004). Specifically in the Republic of Benin, which is a relatively poor country, about 47% of the population lives below the poverty line (Brown, 2010) and about 46% of the population between the ages of 5 and 14 are involved in work (UNICEF, 2009) – a situation which is of great concern because children in this age category are supposed to be in school learning but they are deprived of education.

According to ILO (2005), in the whole of Sub-Saharan Africa, the child labour figure stands at 26.4%. Same reports estimate that between 980,000 and 1,250,000 children have been trafficked globally into a situation of forced labour (Brown, 2010). The economic situation is so endemic that most parents cannot cope with the upkeep of their children and as a result the children are exposed to the vagaries of trafficking in persons mainly for financial purposes.

The rural areas of Nigeria, like that of other west African countries such as Togo and Benin where majority of the population resides, are with little or no industries, hence job opportunities are limited (IOM, 2008). Apart from this, most of the students in this area cannot proceed beyond secondary schools due to the poverty level of their parents and as a result it is easy for them to fall prey to traffickers (Salah, 2001).

Families' financial difficulty is a causative factor for child trafficking. The level of poverty especially for children from polygamous homes with poorly educated parents and a large family size contribute to the low level of education and training of their wards. Most children from this type of family background are made to withdraw from school and forced to assist the family by working as domestic servants or they get engaged in other menial tasks to earn money with the consent of their parents who ignorantly and voluntarily release their wards to traffickers with promise to send them to school and get jobs for them (UNODC, 2006).

### **Perversion of cultural traditions**

In Nigeria and some part of Africa, the extended family system practice entrusts child care into the hands of larger family members and this makes for a social balance in the system where members of the family that are well-to-do assist the less fortunate members of the family to cushion the effect of poverty. This assistance is rendered to families to ensure that their physiological needs are taken care of, but this gesture of rendering assistance has been hijacked by human traffickers to recruit innocent children for other subterranean activities (IOM, 2008; Salah, 2001).

Sometimes the parents or guardians out of ignorance request the help of traffickers themselves without the knowledge of the conditions to which the child will be subjected to, thinking that they will be well-educated or will acquire other skills for future development in life (UNICEF, 2006).

In some cases, traditional practices lead to trafficking of women and girls. The custom of early marriage is a typical example. This is a practice common in the northern part of Nigeria where young girls of between the ages of 8-13 are given out in marriage instead of being in school (Titus, et al., 2016). Acute poverty sometimes motivates families to marry out their young girls that are regarded as economic burdens to men old enough to be their father as a survival strategy. Statistics reveals that 40% of young girls from Central Africa, and 49% from West Africa marry early (UNESCO, 2005), when compared to 27% in East Africa and 20% in northern and southern Africa respectively. The traditional practice of early marriage was an elixir needed for the expansion of the human population. The women folks were trafficked as brides to men from another migrant community based on agreement.

According to UNICEF (2000), extended families in Ghana, Zimbabwe and the western part of Kenya demand for virgin girls as young as eight years as brides for the older men – a practice that is gaining ground in the areas earlier mentioned in order to be assured of their purity. Flowing from the above is the preponderance of women and girls' exposure to human trafficking.

### **Vulnerability of women and children**

Women and children especially girls are prone to trafficking as a result of the society's perception of the female gender. Added to this is the social and cultural prejudices suffered by the female folks (UNIFEM, 2002). The society considers the women and girls as weak and inferior to their male counterparts and this to a large extent contributes to women and girls being target for human traffickers who recruit them forcefully or by abduction (HRW, 2014), as practiced by Boko Haram in some parts of northern Nigeria, or through deception with a promise for a better

lifestyle (Salah, 2001) but which in reality they make them operate in the most despicable living and working conditions (UNICEF, 2005).

A cursory inward assessment reveals that, at the local level, inherent practices of discrimination against women and girls lead to a cultural climate where the practice of trafficking is seen as a norm rather than an exception.

In situations where the families can no longer execute their moral responsibilities they give out the girls as a gift (UNICEF, 2005) – a common practice in northern Ghana and some parts of Togo – or sometimes hire them out to serve as domestic servants – a practice frequent among the rural people of Shaki, and Iseyin in the south western part of Nigeria, the Igedes in the middle belt (North central) of Nigeria, and Hausa-Fulani in the core north of Nigeria (UNESCO, 2006). According to UNICEF (2001), young girls in Burundi are given out in marriage at an early age in order to maintain the integrity of the family in war times when the family is held hostage or as refugees. Girls who cannot cope with marital stress run away but in most cases they end up in brothels as commercial sex workers in places where they seek refuge – a common phenomenon among girls in Kenya and Ethiopia (UN ECOSOC, 2003) who run away from their parents to avoid been forcefully married but sometimes end up in the hand of traffickers who take undue advantage of their situation.

### **Quest for quick money**

Despite the weakness of women and young girls to trafficking, another issue is the quest of people to make quick money, hence they fall prey to traffickers. Young women who are easily deceived about the prospects of making lots of money by travelling abroad and the opportunity to live in opulence thereafter are vulnerable and fall prey to human traffickers because of their desperation (Okeke et al., 2014;UNICEF, 2003). Traffickers take full advantage of their naivety to exploit them forcing them into prostitution, domestic servitude, involuntary marriage and forced labour among others (UNESCO, 2006).

## **Civil unrest**

In a state of unrest or protracted civil uprising leading to war, people flee into neighboring countries to seek refuge and as a result of this they are exposed to violence, sexual exploitation and terrible working conditions. In order to ensure the protection of their lives, some are forced to trade sex for survival (UNICEF, 2002).

As a result of the insurgents' attack on the north east of Nigeria, over 2 million people have been displaced within some states in Nigeria, while others were forced to relocate to the neighboring countries of Cameroon and Chad with most of the women and girls abducted in the process and used as sex slaves by the Boko Haram militia group (HRW, 2014; Parker, 2012).

## **Lack of vocational and economic opportunities for youths in the rural areas**

Children in rural areas are not opportune to have vocational centres in the villages where they can hone their skills. As a result, majority of them are involved in menial jobs and farming due to their inability to secure legitimate and fulfilling employment opportunities (UNIFEM, 2002). Traffickers who visit such villages promise their family members to take them to the cities where they will get good jobs and learn some trade and even promise to establish a business for them (Salah, 2001). Through this they become easy prey in the hands of traffickers who on arriving to cities force the children into domestic slavery and sometimes into prostitution depending on the sex of the trafficked child. Some are forced into street begging (HRP, 2013) by the traffickers especially young boys and girls brought in via corrupt Islamic clerics (Mallams) from the northern part of Nigeria – an abuse of the fundamental human rights of the child. Pupils enrolled in Islamic schools beg and get engaged in menial tasks as shop keepers and food vendors at bus terminus and public places in order to support the Mallams who teach them.

## **Unequal access to education**

This is discrimination between the boy and girl child in terms of access to education. Within the traditional African setting it is erroneously believed that sending a female child to school is a waste of resources hence preference is given to their male counterparts, and this accounts for the reasons why girls are given out in marriage at very tender ages by their ignorant parents (UNIFEM, 2002). In Turkey and likewise in Ethiopia, enrolment figures for basic and secondary education is positively skewed towards the male population (UNESCO, 2012; Dayioglu & Turut-Asik, 2004).

Preferences are given to boys instead of girls in many societies. In the Republic of Benin, 72% males and 62% females were enrolled in primary schools but this dropped to 40% and 27% respectively for secondary schools (UNICEF, 2009) – an indication that the girls are disadvantaged. The same applies to females in Turkey where according to the population census of 2000, the level of illiterate women is higher at 19.4% when compared with that of men at 6.1% (Dayioglu & Turut-Asik, 2004).

Girls abandon their education to take up menial jobs to sustain and maintain their parents and siblings. The total literacy level in Benin is 44% out of which 23% are women, which is contrary to the earlier report that females are disadvantaged. Given a level playing ground, the females will be ready to learn. Women are portrayed as an unprofitable investment because it is widely believed that they will leave their family after marriage and therefore are sent out to work (UNODC, 2006).

## **Influence of religious rituals**

The urge to fulfil one of the pillars of Islam (visit to Mecca) by the young and old Islamic adherents exposes the girls and women to be lured into exploitative migration as commercial sex workers due to their desire to visit Saudi Arabia for holy pilgrimage (TIP, 2014; UNICEF, 2006). Young girls from nearly all the northern states are potentially susceptible to trafficking mainly because of their

urge to fulfil the Islamic rites, which the rich Muslims Alhaji's use the opportunity to traffic them to Saudi Arabia under strong oaths of secrecy contrary to the commonly held opinion that trafficking for commercial sexual exploitation is limited to the girls from Edo State in the southern part of Nigeria. In the Northern Region, religion is used as a means to lure innocent women just as it is in the South, where the majority of trafficked persons are Christians (UNICEF, 2006).

Traffickers and their sponsors also exploit religious doctrines to ensure that trafficked persons do not renege promises and pay their debts. The recruited girls and women are sometimes forced to swear to oaths of secrecy before voodoo priests in traditional shrines and are equally threatened with death in case they try to escape or break the covenant.

### **Sexual exploitation**

Reports (IOM, 2013; UNODC, 2009) have shown that women and girls trafficked from within and outside of the African continent are sexually abused. Most tourists from Europe holidaying in resort homes in Malawi demand for young girls who are sexually exploited, and even the ones taken to Europe suffer a similar fate. The main reason behind human trafficking is the level of poverty in the land that made the women easy prey for traffickers who take advantage of their disadvantage to exploit them.

HRW (2003) reported that trafficked girls from Togo that are exploited and made to serve as domestic servants and are paid measly in return for their labour. Others work in agriculture plantations. Reports further state that West African children are equally trafficked and used as workers on tea, cocoa and cotton plantation for a paltry sum of money (HRW, 2003).

### **2.6.2 TRAFFICKING PATTERNS**

Human trafficking from one destination to another legally or illegally is propelled by the same factors. In most cases, it is a movement from a "lack" zone to "abundant" zone. Commonly affected with this movement are women and



children of school age. In West Africa, there is a clear-cut trafficking pattern according to the UNODC (2006) report that states movement of children primarily occurs from rural areas to metropolitan centres rather than across the borders, i.e. within the territory of a nation.

The second distinct pattern is that which involves crossing the borders of a nation. In this wise, male children are trafficked across the border as far as Europe and the Middle East to work forcefully in cocoa or coffee plantations and some in the fishing industry. Females, on the other hand, are used as domestic servants, street beggars and commercial sex workers against their wish (ILO, 2001).

The third identified trafficking pattern in West Africa is that of adult women trafficked from Nigeria to Europe and the Middle East to work forcefully as nannies, house maids and forced commercial sex workers. Women from the Republic of Benin are ferried to Belgium, France and Germany while those from Togo are moved to Lebanon and Europe. In the case of Nigerians, the destination of women trafficked has always been Italy,

Netherlands, South Africa, Cote d'Ivoire and Spain; These young women are cajoled with promises of employment (U.S. State Department, 2004) and instead are forced to work as domestic servants, workers in agricultural farms and some as commercial sex workers against their wish. UNODC (2006) indicates that women from the Republic of Benin were ferried to Europe (Belgium, France and Germany), while those from West African sub regions (Niger, Nigeria and Togo) are forced into prostitution in the Benin Republic.

### **2.6.3 EFFORTS AT CURBING HUMAN TRAFFICKING**

Against the backdrop of these challenges of human trafficking, government and nongovernmental agencies in different nations of the world are making concerted efforts to proffer solutions at curbing this menace. According to Thipanyane (2015), ECOWAS' initial plan for action against trafficking in persons (2002-2003) is aimed at curbing this inhuman treatment of man to man. In West Africa, laws against human trafficking were promulgated by eleven nations, namely Benin, Burkina Faso, Ghana, Liberia, Mali, Mauritania, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Gambia and Togo, though

the legislation differs from one country to another in definition but not limited to child trafficking (Niass, 2010).

In the African continent, Nigeria is the first to pass an anti-trafficking in persons and other related matters law and also set up an agency, National Agency, for the prohibition of trafficking in persons (NAPTIP) which was established in August, 2003. At the sub regional level various legal and institutional frameworks were set up to combat the cankerworm that has eaten deep into the fabrics of nations in the world in various dimensions. Below are some of the legal and institutional frameworks embarked upon to find a lasting solution to the problems of human trafficking:

- The ECOWAS Convention relating to the free movement of persons and goods (1975);
- The ECOWAS Community Treaty revised in 1993, and the Protocol relating to the free movement of persons and goods;
- The West African States Convention on Extradition (1994);
- The ECOWAS Declaration on the Fight against Trafficking in Persons (2001);
- The ECOWAS Initial Plan of Action against Trafficking in Persons (2002-2003);
- The Multilateral Cooperation Agreement to Combat Child Trafficking in West Africa (2005);
- The African Union Ouagadougou Action Plan to Combat Trafficking in Human Beings, especially women and children, adopted in Tripoli in November (2006);
- The Joint ECOWAS/ECCAS Plan of Action on Trafficking in Persons, especially women and children in West and Central Africa (2006-2009);
- The ECOWAS Plan of Action against Trafficking in Persons (2008-2011) (Niass, 2010).

In the SADC region, the regional plan of action on trafficking in persons (2009-2019) is a ten-year plan targeted at human traffickers. SADC introduced Act 7

Prevention of Trafficking in Persons passed in 2013, while Act 32 Sexual Offences and Related Matters of 2007 makes provisions for several offences pertaining to the trafficking of persons for sexual purposes and the sexual exploitation of children specifically. Due to this practice the developmental years of the students would have been wasted, their personal growth, educational enhancement and employment opportunities will be hampered with dire consequences on children's future, family and the society at large.

## 2.7 SCHOOL LOCATION AND STUDENTS' ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE

Schools are multifaceted, vibrant systems that influence students' academic, affective, social and behavioural learning (Crick, Green, Barr, Shafr, & Peng, 2013; Gu & Johansson, 2013). The operating environment within schools affects the quality and degree of students' learning and potential results.

Student academic performance is actually a theory of a broad array of skills, experiences and outcomes across a number of different domains, from social-emotional learning and health, to creative, critical thinking and qualities of democratic citizenship (Bascia, 2014).

The location of a school or better still the environment in which school is located determines to a large extent the level of student achievement. Orji (2013) opines that school location implies an urban-rural setting. Urban schools are those schools in the municipalities, or schools found within the towns and rural schools are those located in the villages or semi-urban areas. School location refers to the community in which the school is sited, such as a village, hamlet, or rural area with a population of less than three thousand people. For a small town a population ranges of about three thousand to fifteen thousand people, while a town has a population of about fifteen thousand to about one hundred thousand people, and a city one hundred thousand to about one million people (Idialu, 2013).

Economics, just like any other subject, is influenced by the area in which the school is located. This affects both the teachers and the learners alike. For instance, a school located in a serene environment such as the GRA and the ones beside motor parks, noisy environments and commercial nerve centres and border towns cannot be compared in terms of suitability for learning, hence the location of a school determines the academic performance of a student (Titus et al., 2016; Idialu, 2013).

One of the main view points on schools' impact on student learning is known as school climate. School climate consists of a range of school factors that broadly shape students' school experiences. As many states and local government focus efforts on promoting and measuring various aspects of schools, a variety of definitions and frameworks have been developed (Pickeral, Evans, Hughes, & Hutchison, 2009).

The school climate framework conceptualizes schools as consisting of particular variables, and in many cases associates these variables with student academic achievement through statistical analysis (Bascia, 2014).

Fredrick (2011) views school location as one factor that influences students' academic performance in some subject areas. He opines that parents look at such factors as the location of schools (urban or rural) and the distance to the school before enrolling their wards (Fredrick, 2011). Idialu (2013), states that provision of education in schools outside the towns is normally faced with difficulties and problems as teachers, especially the qualified ones, reject appointment and posting to schools in rural areas. Even the villagers refuse to send their wards to school with the excuse that these students render assistance to them; parents are cautious in entrusting their daughters to male teachers, while some villages have few children to be enrolled for primary school, lack of motor able roads, and lack of available books and teaching materials. Distance of school from home, noisy environments and other variables are capable of hampering effective teaching and learning. To this end Owoeye and Yara (2011) note that many parents are of the opinion that students whose schools are

located in towns perform better than their colleagues in village schools. According to Iwuagwu, Don, and Ojemhenkele (2016), one of the factors that influence academic performance is where the school is sited.

If a school is sited in a noisy area, like near an airport, the market place or a commercial nerve center, this will affect the teaching and learning process and subsequently the students' academic performance.

Apart from the classrooms, the students learn in different school locations and settings. For instance, extracurricular activities such as clubs and sports are study sites of students' informal learning, where students come in contact and interact with teachers and peers and develop skills that supplement their academic work (Bascia, 2014). For example, sports activities can foster teamwork, boost students' overall confidence within a school setting, and allow students to engage in different kinds of relationships with adults around physical skills development.

According to Akagbogu and Ajiwoju (2015), schools located in rural areas are in dearth of facilities such as qualified teachers, well equipped laboratories, conducive learning environments and social amenities. For those in urban areas (towns/cities), qualified teachers, laboratories, conducive learning environments and social amenities are made available.

The physical structure of the school forms a part of the school environment. Clean, well-maintained and appropriately resourced facilities have been linked to higher achievement scores, fewer disciplinary incidents, better attendance, and more positive attitudes toward learning among students (Bascia, 2014). However, location in this context refers to the geographical position of the school which can be rural or urban areas. Nevertheless, the differences in rural and urban areas indicate the differences in the academic achievement of students in language learning, but for the purpose of this study location in its geographical context is rural communities where a country's border is located.

Where a school is sited is one of the factors that determine the academic performance of students' academic performance. In a study conducted by Ezendu

(2003) on the relationship between the classroom and students' cognitive achievement in senior secondary school geography, he averred that schools' location implies schools in cities/towns or villages. Similarly, Quirck (2008) views location as a relative term that distinguishes one particular place or area from the other.

Agbaje and Awodun (2014) add that, towns/cities are areas that are beautiful with variety and densely populated, while rural areas are those areas with few people living on a subsistence and a boring and arduous environment. Similarly, Akpan (2008) states that schools in urban centres can boast of electricity, potable water and adequate teachers with more learning facilities and infrastructures, while schools in the rural areas lack the necessary facilities and infrastructure that can enhance students' academic performance.

In the same vein, Adebule and Aborisade (2013) conducted a study on students' attitude towards mathematics and the influence of school location and study interest among secondary school students in Ekiti state. They concluded that students whose schools are located near institutions of higher learning such as polytechnics and universities are likely to have the urge to further their education than those students whose schools are in the rural areas. Adebule and Aborisade (2013) further state that students schooling in towns have better attitudes to learning because they have access to libraries, laboratories, etc. while those in rural settings perform better academically.

Physical safety for both students and staff is another component of school environments that enhances students' academic performance (Cohen, McCabe, Michelli, & Pickeral, 2009).

Principals and the whole school staff contribute to a safe school environment by clearly communicating rules for behaviour and responding to contraventions with particular reference to bullying and violence in a clear and consistent manner. Feeling socially and emotionally safe is equally important and often rests on a clearly articulated vision of the school as a community that cares for its members and respects and appreciates diversity and individual differences (Bascia, 2014).

In a research study carried out by Akagbogu and Ajiwoju (2015), they averred that students whose schools are located in the rural areas perform better than their colleagues in the cities in verbal aptitude and English language, and in the overall scores when the national common entrance was used as benchmark for measurement. This could be as a result of the fact that schools in rural areas have less students when compared with the over bloated classrooms in the cities (Akagbogu & Ajiwoju, 2015).

Conversely, a study by Igbenyi (2002) concluded that students whose schools are located in the cities carry higher scores than students whose schools are in the villages. The researcher attributed this performance to the availability of qualified teachers, well equipped laboratories, conducive and serene learning environments, and availability of other social amenities (Igbenyi, 2002).

Parental engagement in their children's education can also contribute to successful student outcomes. Students whose parents have high expectations from their wards and the school expresses support for their children's schools. Additionally, the teachers working in those schools tend to score higher and enroll in more difficult courses; are always regular in school; relate better socially and emotionally; easily adapt to the school; complete high school, and possess the zeal to pursue higher studies (Bascia, 2014).

Schools can support parental involvement by scheduling parent-teacher meetings, sending materials home, and communicating with parents about student progress. A culture of respect and appreciation for diversity within the school can also support parental involvement.

Achievement means doing something successfully, most especially by effort, determination and skills, the art of achieving, attainment or accomplishment. According to Nwachukwu (2004), achievement is completing whatever goals one has set, which is doing what one wants to do within the confines of the law, by overcoming hitches and attaining a high standard. It is the pursuit of dreams sans fear and skepticism.

Achievement further requires drive and single mindedness. As noted by Onyilo and Onyilo (2010), achievement connotes successful completion of something noteworthy after much effort and despite obstacles and discouragements.

According to Pandey (2008), academic achievement is determined by the performance of students in the subjects they studied in school. Academic achievement has a direct bearing on students' growth and development and their knowledge of educational situations in which teaching and learning occur (Pandey, 2008). The classrooms form a crucial part of the school environment as no meaningful learning can take place where no classrooms exist. It is the hub of every learning interaction between the teacher and his/her students (Iwuagwu et al., 2016).

The teaching-learning process takes place mostly in the classrooms. By extension, the number of classrooms required in the school should be a reflection of the population of the students and staff, among other factors. According to UNESCO (2000), the ratio of teacher to students is 35 per class but the reverse is the case with most schools in Nigeria especially the schools sited in urban centers (Aluede, Okhiku, Esamah, & Ojemhenkele, 2010), where there are more than 70 students in class per teacher.

Due to increased enrolment figures in these schools, classrooms designed for only thirty or forty students as well as the chairs and desks are grossly inadequate as students are found sharing chairs and lockers, and some even stand while others sit on window panes or broken desks.

In this type of situation where the classes are overcrowded, the teaching and learning process will be stalled and there will be a disruption of the students' reasoning— a situation that militate against effective teaching and intellectual development of the student (Aluede, Okhiku, & Udele, 2009). Overcrowded schools suffer a decline in academic standards and educational achievement as a result of bloated classrooms, poorly equipped laboratories and libraries.



Academic achievement is the extent to which a student, teacher or institution has achieved their educational goals (Tomprowski, Davis, Miller, & Thomas, 2008). As defined by Von, Hell, Benedict, and Thomas (2011), academic achievement is something one does or achieves at school, college or university, in class, in a laboratory, library, or fieldwork.

Academic achievement has become the guide of a child's future in this highly competitive world (Idialu, 2013) and one of the most important aims of the educational processes. At the commencement of an activity, students ability to learn varies, which is a determined by their previous experiences, personal qualities and social supports (Titus et al., 2016). The level of encouragement and support parents and teachers give their students coupled with access to quality learning materials and the right blend of teaching methodologies result in skill acquisition and refinement. Parents' desire for their children serves as an impetus for the improved performance of their wards both directly and indirectly.

Lansu and Cillessen (2012) argue that the urge to achieve varies from one individual to another. In line with the above assertion, Annie, Howard, and Mildred (2006) report that academic achievement is determined by students' performance in examinations or continuous assessment, but there is no general agreement on how it is best tested or which aspects are most important. Scholars such as Adu & Adeyanju (2013) concur that there is a relationship between parental attitude to education and the academic performance of their wards. Apart from home factors there is the school factor which alone is not powerful enough to determine students' achievement in English language comprehension, but coupled with the interest shown by learners in schooling and their attitude will influence their level of achievement in the English language.

This is expected because interest in schooling assists students of all ages to regulate their learning techniques. This is contrary to the popular dictum by many scholars that the school and the home are important agencies in the education of the child. Educators like Oyetunde (1997) and Adu & Adeyanju (2013) believe

that the home balances the teaching of the school, and the school stands in *Loco Parentis* while the child remains the main focus.

Making a critical analysis of the factors influencing academic achievement, Pandey (2008) confirms that academic achievement can be influenced by some related factors like environment, culture, health, opportunities, exposure, training, motivation, methods of teaching, school location, physical activities, nutrition, individual differences, and parents' academic status, to mention but a few. Similarly, Obeka (1998) carried out a study to determine the outcome of practical work on students' academic achievement in environmental education concepts of senior secondary school geography and found out that geography students exposed to practical work significantly improved their academic achievement.

In the same vein, Abul (2007) investigated the effect of fieldwork on students' achievement in environmental education (EE) contents of senior secondary school geography in college of education demonstration secondary school Katsina-Ala and Ikyurav-Tiev secondary school Joo in Benue State and found out that high academic achievement in EE contents of geography depends largely on the use of effective teaching methods such as fieldwork. Hence, geographical education should be given priority concern in Nigerian rural and urban schools in order to improve students' achievement in geography.

Furthermore, students' academic performance is affected by culture. No matter the beliefs, values, d norms, and the nature of the environment, be it rural, urban or industrial, this is an important factor in the life of the child as this sometimes affects what the child is able to learn. The cultural environment impacts on the moral codes that operate within the families, groups or communities (Iwuagwu et al., 2016).

Alokan (2010) studied the relationship that exists between the influence of sex and location on the relationship between student problems and academic performance and found that sex and location do not affect the relationship between student problems and academic performance. In another development, Considine and Zappala (2002) studied students in Australia and concurred that

geographical location has no significant effect on school performance. Conversely, Akpan (2001) asserted that school location has been viewed as one of the factors that affect students' academic achievement. Similarly, Bosede (2010) concluded that sex and location of school has a significant effect on students' academic performance in certain areas. There are so many variables that affect students' performance in school subjects which may or may not be associated to the geographical location of the school that is whether the school is in the urban or rural areas. The position of Greewald, Hedges, and Laine (1996 as cited in Idialu, 2013) substantiated this in their study that rural schools have some advantages over urban schools because of the tendency of smaller classes. They explained that due to low population density, classes are generally more manageable for teachers and consequent on this, teachers are able to concentrate and create more time to meet the students' needs on individual an basis and provide more assistance to students having difficulties, which results in greater academic performance.

Further studies by Duke and Troutvetter (2001) in New York revealed that a small size class, which is the hallmark of rural schools, makes a real and measurable influence. The students' academic performance increased considerably because the teacher had time for individual students and also the students were able to participate actively in the teaching-learning process.

Various studies carried out in Kenya and other African countries (Ehiane, 2014; Gitome et al., 2013; Tikoko & Bomett, 2011; Dawo & Simatwa, 2010) averred positively in favor of the role of discipline on student academic performance which was supported and corroborated by studies carried out in Europe, Asia and North American (Zhao & Kuo, 2015; Whisman & Hammer, 2014; Bodovski, Nahum-Shani, & Walsh, 2013; Pasternak, 2013).

On the contrary, a few studies claim that discipline has an insignificant effect on students' academic performance (Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 2014; Gakure et al., 2013). According to a recent descriptive survey study by Simba, Agak, and Kabuka (2016) conducted in Kenya using 817 students from 34 schools that were

randomly selected in Kenya's sub-county's public primary schools, the study revealed a positive correlation between discipline and students' academic performance. In a study by Omodiale (2009 as cited in Ogbeide, 2013), a significant positive relationship between class size and school location and academic achievement in examination in Edo State was found. The result indicated schools in cities with a large population tend to perform better than schools with fewer students located in villages, but this might not be true in all cases as the study by Nelson (2004 cited in Ogbeide, 2013) revealed that students from villages performed better than their counterparts in the cities in verbal aptitude, English language and total score using the National Common Entrance as a base. This is contrary to a widely held opinion that students from urban centres always perform better than their counterparts in rural areas because those in the urban centres have access to adequate facilities and infrastructure. It was further observed that students from small schools in rural areas had a positive attitude to work and were well prepared academically compared to students from other schools.

From the review of related empirical studies on academic achievement, it is clear that factors responsible in influencing students' academic achievement include motivation, school location and teaching method.

## **2.8 GENDER AND STUDENTS' ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE**

The standing of a student in school be it primary, secondary or at the tertiary level is measured by his/her academic performance, and for this reason numerous researches have been carried out to discover the factors that influence academic performance. Factors such as school location, class size, age, learning styles, socio-economic status, peer influence, level of parents education, and class attendance (Appak, 2016; Titus et al., 2016; Eshetu, 2015; Jayanthi, Balakrishnan, Ching, Latiff, & Nasirudeen, 2014) among others have been identified.

Students' performance at the senior secondary school level in a particular subject is a key element for the future of youths in a nation and also indices of measuring

the effectiveness of the school. It showcases the extent that students, teachers or instructors have achieved their educational goals and the main indicator for adolescents to learn about their talents, abilities and competences which are vital for developing aspirations. Students' performance can simply be viewed as an outcome of all academic tasks or rigors of a person which could be poorly or successfully stated (Adu et al., 2009).

This research study is interested in the influence of gender as it affects students' performance, therefore various scholarly work relating to gender and academic performance shall be reviewed.

Gender issues in academic circles generate plenty argument especially when it is related to academic performance. There has been a growing scholarly concern over gender patterns in academic performance of late partly due to the belief that girls are now doing better than boys in some vital academic areas (Appak, 2016). Gender according to (Titus et al., 2016) prescribes sets of role behaviors expected of male and females in their thinking, actions and feelings. According to the social cognitive theory, the adolescent's gender development is based on adolescents' observation and copying of other's behavior, also by rewards and reprimands of gender-approach and gender-inappropriate behavior.

Gender is defined as social characteristics and prospects related with being male or female and the relationship between men and women, boys and girls are socially fashioned and are learned through the process of socialization (Nworgu, Ugwuanyi, & Nworgu, 2013; & Yang, 2010).

Parents, administrators, educators, psychologists and counsellors have expressed great concern over the academic performance of students in secondary schools especially in social sciences. The dwindling performance of students in economics as a subject is of a major concern to those in social science education (Adu & Galloway, 2015), hence this factor accounts for one out of the many reasons for this study so as to determine the relationship that exists between gender and students' academic performance in economics.

Pandey (2008) asserts that academic achievement is measured by the performance of students in subjects they learn at school which accounts for their growth and development of knowledge in educational situations where teaching and learning takes place as influenced by factors such as environment, culture, health opportunities, exposure, training, motivation, methods of teaching, school location, physical abilities and individual differences.

Gender is one factor mentioned in literature to have considerable effects on students' academic performance especially in science subjects. Gender shows the distinction between the male and female population using parameters such as physical, biological, mental and behavioural characteristics (Adigun, Onihunwa, Irunokhai, Sada, & Adesina, 2015). A recent study found that there is no significant relationship between students' gender and academic performance in either mathematics or English (Ampofo & Osei Owusu, 2015). In a similar study using the same subjects (mathematics and English language), Asante 2010; Appak, 2016; Atovigba, Vershima, O'kwu, & Ijenkeli, 2012; Ewunmi, 2009, Dayioglu & Turut-Asik, 2004) found that males perform better than females in mathematics which is contrary to the findings of Ampofo and Osei-Owusu (2015).

In another study carried out on gender gaps in English secondary schools in GCSE examinations in the UK written by boys and girls, it was discovered that females perform better than males (Warrington & Williams, 1999 cited by Dayioglu & Turut-Asik, 2004). In the area of sports, a study conducted on how gender and sports participation effect educational outcomes showed that male student athletes perform better than their female counterparts (Ryska, 2003), an opinion shared by Fox, Barr-Anderson, Neumark-Sztainer, and Wall (2010). Apaak (2016) states that brain-based differences affect the learning process in eight neuro-developmental systems.

The study revealed that girls are at advantage in their early grades making use of the left side of their brain in speaking (Akagbogu & Ajiwoju, 2015), writing (Dayioglu & Turut-Asik, 2004) and reflection, while the boys use the left side of their own brain for recalling facts, rules and categorization. The girls use the right

side of the brain for empathy and deep reflection while the boys use theirs for visio-spatial (Naderi, Abdullah, Tengku Aizan, & Sharir, 2010) and motor-skills (Amuda, 2016), a factor that accounts for their excellence in science oriented subjects.

In several studies, Lynn (1998, 1999, & 2004) asserts that the average brain size of males is larger than that of females, hence they have a higher intelligent quotient. Gender differences in intelligence quotient (IQ) have been examined in teenagers as well as adult samples using different intelligent measures. According to Nadir et al. (2010), there is no differences in gender in overall general intelligence but several other studies refuted this claim, (Laidra, Pullmann, & Allik, 2007; Hyde, 2005; Dayioglu & Turut-Asik, 2004; Lynn et al., 2002), claiming that there is no sex difference in general intelligence.

Gender differences in educational achievement have been examined for some time resulting in a plethora of literature (Adeyemi & Ajibade, 2011); Akinsola, 2007); Nenty, 2010); Kyei et al., 2011; Awofala & Nneji, 2011; Amosun, 2011; Apata, 2011; Dania, 2014; Agbaje & Alake, 2014; Atovigba et al. 2012). Some of these researchers pointed out that there is no significant gender difference in students' academic performance and retention in various subjects while others found a significant difference with either boys or girls performing better. Some studies have also suggested that maturity differences is a factor that causes differences in the academic performance of males and females (Appak, 2016).

Other studies revealed that girls tend to mature more socially and verbally than boys during the early years of attending schools, while boys mature more actively and physically than girls, leading to the girls being able to read and write earlier than boys. In terms of study skills between male and female students, a study by Leonard & Jiang (1999) revealed that female students have better study skills than males and that female score higher grades than male because they are hardworking and more regular in classes (Dayioglu & Turut-Asik, 2004). In some societies, academic disciplines such as mathematics, science and engineering are classified as "masculine" and are thus less appealing to females, while

language and arts are regarded as “feminine” and therefore are less attractive to males.

In a study conducted in Kenya and Ethiopia, traditional, social and cultural norms such as female genital mutilation (FGM), early marriage of girls, and gender stereotyping made female students perform poorly in their academic pursuits (Achoka, Nafula, & Oyoo, 2013;Wakgari & Teklu, 2013).According to Pearson, Crissey, and Riegel-Crumb (2009), the attachment of particular skill to a certain sex leads to differences in academic performance in some subjects/disciplines and this has proved to be problematic for the opposite sex. Gender stereotyping may cause teenagers to avoid certain courses or subjects for fear of being stigmatized, as this may result in loss of confidence in their own abilities in areas unrelated to their gender (Appak, 2016).

The significance of examining performance in accordance to sex is based primarily on the sociocultural differences between boys and girls. Some vocations and professions have been classified as belonging to men such as engineering, arts and crafts, and agriculture while other professions such as catering, typing and nursing are regarded as women’s. In fact, parents assign tasks like car washing, grass cutting, installing bulbs, and climbing ladders to fix or remove things to the boys. On the reverse, household chores such as dish washing, cooking, cleaning and laundering are assigned to the girls. In a nutshell, complex and difficult tasks are allocated to boys while girls are assigned to handle the relatively easy and less demanding tasks inside the home. This type of role ascription between boys and girls is what Lie and Soyoberg (2004 cited in Nnamani and Oyibe, 2016) refer to as “invisible rules within the society”. Due to this myopic line of thinking, the larger society tends to refer to girls as the weaker sex, and as a result an average Nigerian girl possesses these fixed stereotypes thinking and goes to school with it



Mordi (2004) asserts that males are trained for the superlative role, while females are trained for the subordinate role. This is because of the relative importance of the male child in the family setting; male children are usually preferred to females. However, a contrary view exists about the influence of gender on academic achievement in school subjects. Some educationalists are of the view that gender differences observed in students' academic achievement may be attributable to inherent factors.

In line with this claim, Okeke (2001) states that the constancy of gender differences in achievement across different school subjects and environments provide evidence for the importance of biological rather than environmental factors in determining science achievement.

However, this researcher is of the opinion that equal opportunity to perform tasks must be given to both male and female in order to have a balanced society. Ewunmi (2009), pursuing the same argument, asserts that sex alone is not a good predictor of academic skills, interest, or even emotional traits. A study by Amuda (2016) on sex difference in academic performance revealed that there is no sex difference on quantitative ability between male and female students but in age the boys are favored.

Other factors accounting for female students' performance include parents' level of education and employment status, female self-concept, and parents' expectations on their learners' academic performance (Rotich, Rono, & Mutsiya, 2014; Okioga, 2013; Memon, Joubish, & Khurram, 2010; USAID, 2005). Roles forced on male and females are also used to explain gender differences in academic performance.

Aside poverty, other factors interact to influence gender. One such factor is the decision to pay school fees which is hinged on the sex of the child. Girls' schooling depends on family income to a greater extent than does boys' schooling, with an income elasticity of 9 for girls compared with 6.4 for boys. The implication of this is that when parents are confronted by financial difficulties, it is the girls that bear the consequences in order for their male siblings to attend

school. Coupled with this is the fact that girls babysit younger siblings or sometimes are made to work on the farm (Lincove, 2009) at the expense of their education.

The Millennium Goals recommended equity in education and the encouragement of African females to choose mathematics studies and to embrace scientific and technological careers. While there are no meaningful differences between boys' and girls' achievements upon entry to school, the gender gaps in achievement and participation in mathematics persist, as does the underrepresentation of women from primary through tertiary education to employment. In Africa, it is obvious that education has been seriously affected by poverty, but with respect to the education of girls, history, religion and culture have been more important determinants.

These sociocultural barriers are most pronounced for scientific, technical and vocational education and tragic in their negative effect on participation in mathematics. Girls' low participation in mathematics is also a function of other factors. According to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (September 2010), the adult literacy rates in Sub-Saharan Africa is 71.6% for males and 53.6% for females, and in Northern Africa they are 76.7% and 58.1% respectively (IMU, 2014).

The net enrolment ratio in the primary school age population in Sub-Saharan African countries is around 52.3% for girls and 60.7% for boys, except in a very few countries where almost all girls of primary school age are enrolled at schools. But there is a substantial dropout among girls at the secondary school level due to sociocultural (early marriage) and financial reasons, institutional barriers, and poor performance. In upper secondary school, only about 17% of students enrolled in Sub-Saharan Africa are girls, so that only a few have the opportunity to be enrolled in any scientific classes; however, among that population very few choose mathematics. The best registered percentage for enrollment of girls in mathematics at that level is about 30%, a percentage that decreases with grade level. By tertiary level it is about 10%.

Among other factors identified in contributing to gender differences are negative sociocultural attitudes, required household tasks, a gender biased curriculum, poor didactic materials, lack of school dormitories, lack of sponsorship, low motivation, unqualified teachers, lack of encouragement and financial support from parents, low confidence, poor exam performance, and parents' attitudes toward boys vs. girls' abilities. Accordingly, a series of special projects were launched to promote increased enrollment of African girls in science, mathematics and technology, and to encourage African women to embrace scientific and technological careers. These programmes have been launched by UNESCO, the African Union, the World Bank, NEPAD, and others. The ratio of women teaching mathematics at the tertiary level in Africa also remains low compared with their male counterparts in various institutions of learning.

Olubunmi (2011) concluded that gender differences are intolerable, hence it would be right and proper to treat boys and girls in schools differently based on their natural predispositions. A study conducted in Malaysia on 30 secondary school students enrolled at single-sex schools revealed that the performance of males in English language or foreign languages and that of females in mathematics and the sciences was higher in a single-sex school (Saidin & Brahim, 2011). The study further revealed that in a single- sex separate classroom, students' level of confidence and motivation is higher and this offers them better opportunities to learn.

Schmuck (2005) and Smyth (2010) were against single-sex education and therefore argued that female only schools separate them from males which they reason as unnatural. They concurred that in a mixed school setting, boys and girls learn to respect, value and communicate easily with one another. According to the duo, separating males from females in single-sex schools constitutes a barrier to effective interpersonal skills required by the students to grow and function in the society. Eliot (2009) viewed the above submission differently, arguing that single-sex schools enlarge the leadership opportunities available to both boys and girls, which increases the odds that each sex will enter non-traditional disciplines.

It was also discovered that girls do perform better in certain disciplines such as mathematics and science when boys are absent in the class.

According to a study that examined the impact of single-sex schooling in British schools, single- sex schooling is connected to the attainment of gender stereotyped subjects for both males and females during and after their years in school (Sullivan, Joshi, & Leonard, 2010).

In the last two decades, research work in the area of using gender as a measure of academic performance has been on the increase. Most studies on testing concluded that female students do better than males in essay type tests, while boys do better than girls in multiple-choice test in Britain (Oppong, 2013). The likely reason for this, according to Du Plessis and Du Plessis (2009), is that boys are more willing to guess than girls which was a corroboration of an earlier work conducted by Hirschfeld, Moore, and Brown (1995) and Ben-Shakhar and Sinai (1991) because male students exhibit more confidence than females, hence they are ready to take risks while females try to avoid consequences that trails guessing.

Oppong (2013) states that in economics, boys perform better than girls in the essay section of the examination, while in economics statistics, which involve some calculations, girls perform significantly better than boys in the essay part of the examination. Overall, research conducted on tests (essay and multiple objectives) revealed that female students perform better than male students on the essay type examination, while the male students' performance in multiple-choice tests examination is not significant.

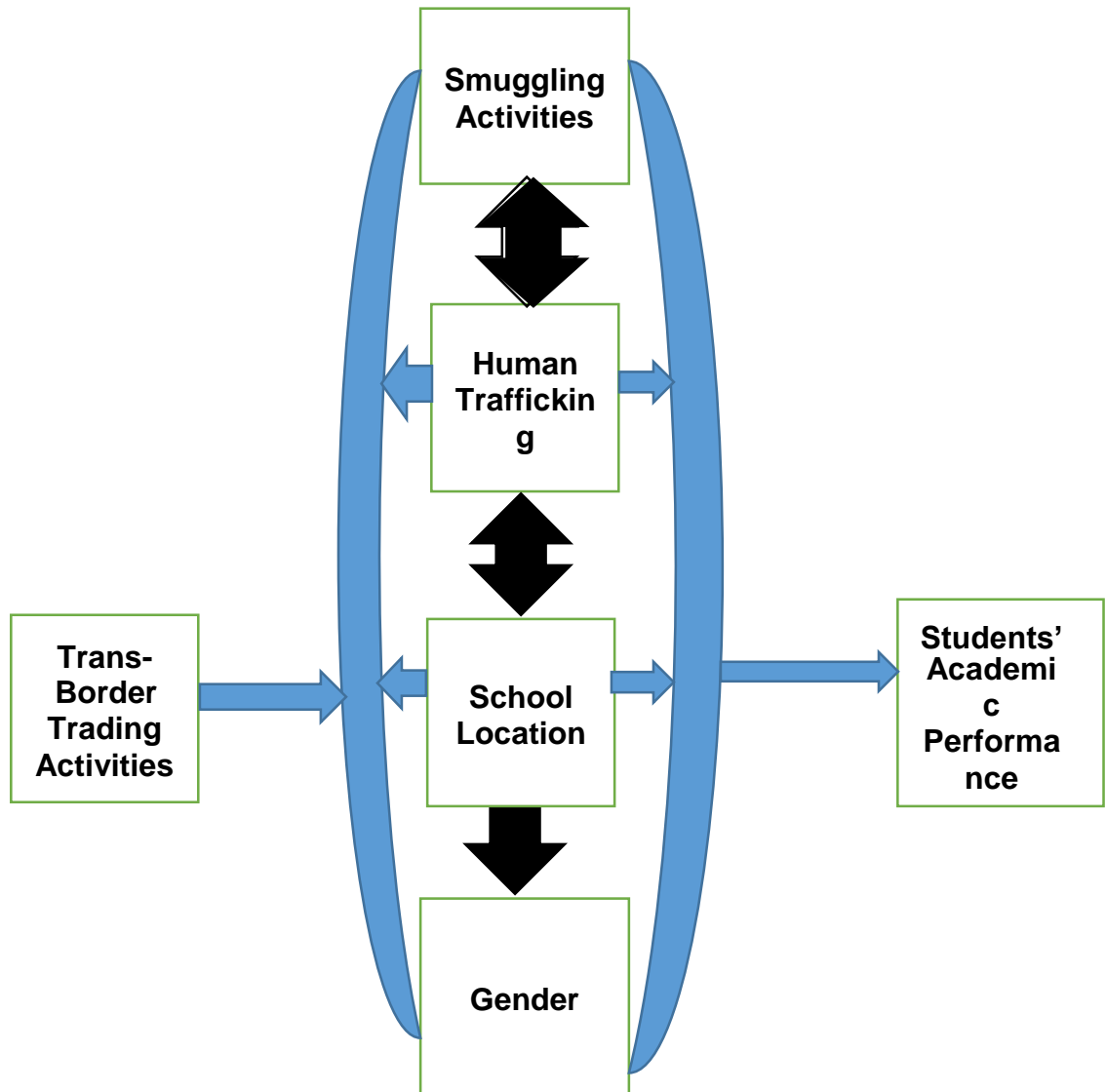
According to Nnamani and Oyibe (2016), when girls are below 14 years they perform better than boys of the same age, but as they grow boys do better. Okoye (2009) attributes this to the strong attachment of girls to their mothers in helping out with household chores which involves social interaction between the girl and mother. The girl assists in cooking which involves timing. With regard to the current research, a correlation cannot be found between age and assistance rendered by girls to mothers with academic performance. Contrary to the previous

views, Onekutu (2002) found that both boys and girls have equal performance in English language and other subjects in their early years, yet as they grow the boys develop interest in sciences and social sciences while girls develop interest in language arts.

A study conducted in Iran on self-esteem and gender concluded that there is a significant difference in self-esteem between male and female students (Sar Abadami Tafreshi, 2006). On the other hand, an earlier study using 240 students in Shiraz with the Cowper Smith self-esteem test used in data collection showed that gender is a predictor of self-esteem of pre-university students (Hossaini, 2002). A similar study conducted with 150 students with equal proportion of 75 male and 75 female students on self-esteem and gender reported that there is a significant relationship between self-esteem and gender (Naderi, Abdullah, Tengku Aizan, Sharir, & Kumar, 2009), while Zeinvand (2006) opined that there is no significant relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement.

Specifically, this research work contributes to the issue of gender and performance by providing evidence among senior secondary school students in Ogun state as previous studies have focused on subjects other than economics.

The current study therefore investigated whether gender as a moderating variable has an impact on the academic performance of economics students in some selected senior secondary schools in Ogun state, Nigeria.



**Figure 2.7: An overview of the variables in this study**

## **2.9 AN OVERVIEW OF VARIABLES IN THE STUDY**

Figure 2.7 is a schema showing the variables that guided this chapter and this encapsulates all that has been discussed in chapter two of this research work. Transborder trading activities is the independent variable for this study, while students' academic performance is the dependent variable.

Other variables in this study – smuggling, human trafficking, school location and gender – can be referred to as the moderating variables, with each variable playing a prominent role in the study.

In this study, the researcher viewed the effects of each of the moderating variable on transborder trade and student academic performance meaning that there is a form of connectivity between smuggling, human trafficking, school location and gender on students' academic performance.

From the foregoing, various literatures have been reviewed to prove if there is a relationship between these variables according to the research hypotheses raised in Section 1.3 of this study. Four null hypotheses were raised: There is no significant relationship between transborder trading activities and students' academic performance in economics; there is no significant relationship between smuggling and students' academic performance; there is no significant relationship between human trafficking and students' academic performance, and there is no significant relationship between gender and students' academic performance in economics. For each of the hypotheses literature and scholarly works were reviewed and the identified knowledge gap was bridged.

Various researchers (Aluko, 2012; Golub, 2012; Meagher, 2008; Titus, 2008; Uchehara, 2004; Afolayan, 2000) all wrote on the meaning and types of border and border landers. Additionally, the transborder trade articles (Faleye, 2015; Meagher, 2010; Titus, 2014, 2008; Afolayan, 2000) identified include staple food items, fairly used clothes, cars and tyres, frozen poultry products, gasoline, etc.

In the literature review it was discovered that a common phenomenon which occurs at various border posts is the collection of bribes by government agents (customs officers, immigration, gendarmes, etc.) (World Bank, 2015; Adeyinka, 2015; Ojo, 2015; Yusuff, 2014; Titus, 2014; Meagher, 2008) and under-invoicing of goods (Ike, 2015; Hoffman & Paul, 2015; Raballand & Mjekiqi, 2010), another observation is that transborder trade is illegal and causes unemployment in recipient countries (Afrika & Ajumbo, 2012; Ike, 2013). However, some scholar with contrary opinions avers that TBT reduces poverty (Tyson, 2015; Shamu,

2005) and provides employment especially for women (Ojo, 2015; Yusuf, 2014; Hukportie, 2014; Njoku, 2012).

With regards to the myriads of problems of transborder trade which includes increase in the level of transborder crime such as smuggling, various scholars (though not exhaustive) agreed that TBT results in increase in crime (Faleye, 2015; Ojo, 2015; Njoku et al., 2013; GAATW, 2011).

As identified, the twin sister of smuggling is human trafficking (Titus et al., 2016, World Report, 2016; Thipanyane, 2015; HRW, 2014; UNODC, 2012, 2009), followed by drug trafficking (NHRTC 2013; Berestein 2010; Campbell, 2008) and trafficking in illegal arms, which poses a danger to the security of lives and properties of people in the nation (Adetula, 2015; Opanike & Aduloju, 2015; Seniora & Poitevin, 2013; Aluko, 2012; Pezard & Glatz, 2010; Addo, 2006).

Other scholarly works touched on the porous nature of borders especially in Africa (Sommerville, 2013; Titeca & Timanuka, 2012; Okunmu, 2008) which has made the border post a melting point for corruption (Dobler, 2016; Opanike & Aduloju, 2015; Ojo, 2015; Blum, 2014; Ike, 2013; Habiba Bin Barka, 2012).

Concerning smuggling, various scholarly works were reviewed which identified bribing of custom officials before traders are granted passage with their wares and making use of old bush paths (Hoffman & Paul, 2015; Titus, 2014; Yusuff, 2014; Afolayan, 2010) for tax evasion (Yusuff, 2014; Golub, 2012, Prag, 2010; Meagher, 2008). Related to the effects of smuggling are the issues of under-invoicing of goods (Golub, 2012; Prag, 2010; The Punch, 2009; The Guardian, 2009) and massive unemployment (Udoh, 2015; Ojo, 2015; Hoffman & Paul, 2015, Orji, 2013; Owoeye & Yara, 2011). Ojo (2015) and Titus (2008) identified the effects of exposure to accidents and armed robbery and child labour respectively.

In this chapter, there was an extensive review of literature on human trafficking, its meaning (NHTRC, 2013; UNODC 2005), and the reasons for which include for child labour (TIP, 2014; HR, 2013; IRIN, 2010), poverty (Brown 2010; Thanh-Dam, 2008; IOM, 2008; UNODC, 2006; Salah, 2001), and unemployment (Thipanyane, 2015).



Other reviewed reasons for human trafficking include: perversion of cultural traditions (IOM, 2008; UNICEF, 2006; Salah, 2001); vulnerability of women (Titus et al., 2016; HRW, 2014; UNICEF, 2006, 2005, 2001; Salah, 2001); the quest for quick money (Okeke et al., 2014; UNESCO, 2006; UNICEF, 2003); civil unrest (HRW, 2014; Parker, 2012; UNICEF, 2002), lack of vocational and economic opportunities for youth (HRP, 2013; UNICEF, 2002; Salah, 2001), and for sexual exploitation (IOM Report of 2013; UNODC, 2009; HRW, 2003).

Other sources (UNESCO Report of 2012, UNICEF 2009; UNIFEM, 2002; Dayioglu & Turut-Asik, 2004) all reported on the unequal access to education and the influence of religious rituals (TIP Report of 2014; UNICEF 2006). Human trafficking patterns of moving humans from one point to another were also identified (UNODC Report of 2006; US State Department, 2004; ILO, 2001).

Further, school location as a determinant of students' academic performance was equally reviewed starting with the meaning of school (Crick et al., 2013; Gu & Johansson, 2013), school location (Titus et al., 2016; Orji, 2013; Idialu, 2013; Fredrick, 2011), and the distinction between rural and urban schools (Bascia 2014; Agbaje & Awodun, 2014). The school climate was also highlighted as it determines school location (Pickeral et al., 2009; Bascia, 2014, Iwuagwu, 2016, Owoeye & Yara, 2011) along with the area of distance to school from home. Other issues included (Akagbogu & Ajiwoju, 2015) the shortage of teachers and infrastructural defects as the bane of schools in rural areas, while classrooms in urban center schools are congested (Aluede et al., 2010). The physical safety (Cohen et al., 2009) and study interest as it affects school location and academic performance also featured (Adebule & Aborisade, 2013).

Other factors identified as having effect on school location and students' academic performance is parental attitude to education (Adu & Adeyanju, 2013) and effective teaching methods (Abul, 2007). Sex and school location was identified as not having an effect on students' academic performance (Alokan, 2010). Additionally, the geographical location of a school be it rural or urban affects student's academic performance (Considine & Zappala, 2002). Many scholars (Simba et al., 2016; Zhao & Kuo, 2015; Whisman & Hammer, 2014;

Ehiane, 2014; Pasternak, 2013; Gitome et al., 2013; Tikoko & Bomett, 2011; Dawo & Simatwa, 2010) concluded that discipline enhances students' academic performance, while others (Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 2014; Gakure et al., 2013) averred that discipline has no effect on it. Further, the effect of class size in both rural and urban areas showed that students from rural areas perform better than those in urban areas as a result of overcrowded classrooms (Ogbeide, 2013).

Gender and its effect on students' academic performance was reviewed by scholars with differing positions on the issue. After the definition of gender, various authors averred that there is no significant difference between sex and academic performance (Titus et al., 2016; Adigun et al., 2015, Nworgu et al., 2013; Yang, 2010, Ampofo & Osei-Owusu, 2015), while others concluded that there is significant difference (Appak, 2016; Atovigba, 2012; Asante, 2010; Ewunmi, 2009). In the area of sports and its effects on academic performance, some affirmed that males perform better than females (Ryska, 2003; Fox et al., 2010). For the brain-based differences, several authors opined that girls perform better in reading, writing, empathy and deep reflection (Akagbogu & Ajiwoju, 2015; Nadir et al., 2010; Dayioglu & Turut-Asik, 2004), while boys perform better recalling facts, rules and categorization of objects and motor skills (Amuda, 2016; Naderi et al., 2010; Lynn et al., 2004).

Literature also showed that while one study found that there is no gender difference in IQ and overall performance of students (Naderi et al., 2010), others claimed that there is gender differences between male and female IQ (Laidra et al., 2007; Hyde, 2005; Dayioglu & Turut-Asik, 2004; Lynn et al., 2002). With regard to study skills, Leonard and Jiang (1999) found that females have better skills than males, and linked to this is the social and cultural norms such as FMG, early marriage and stereotyping that made female perform poorly (Appak, 2016; Achoka, et al., 2013; Wakgari & Teklu, 2013; Pearson et al., 2009). The parents' level of education and employment status and female self-concept was identified (Rotich et al., 2014; Okioga, 2013; Memon et al., 2010; USAID, 2005) as affecting female students' academic performance. Further, poverty makes parents decide whom to send to school and in most cases male students benefit at the detriment

of the female students (Lincove, 2009). Female students were found to perform better than males in essay-type tests (Oppong, 2013) and males do better in multiple-choice tests (Du Plessis & Du Plessis, 2009).

Additionally, one study concluded that girls perform better than boys before they attain age 14 while boys better as they grow older (Nnamani & Oyibe, 2016), while another observed that males and females perform equally irrespective of age in early years (Onekutu, 2002). Lastly, some scholars state that there is significant difference between gender and self-esteem (Naderi et al., 2009; Sar Abadami Tafreshi, 2006; Hossaini, 2002), whereas but Zeinvand (2006) concluded that there is no significant relationship between self-esteem and students' academic performance.

## **2.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

The above summarizes the literature reviewed on the main headings (and sub-headings) on transborder trading activities, smuggling, human trafficking, school location and gender as it affects the students' academic performance. This work has clearly attempted to bridge the knowledge gap that exists in the area of transborder trade as earlier scholars in this field examined other areas such as transborder trade and movement (Adeyinka, 2015; Titeca, 2012; Meagher, 2008; Afolayan, 2010, 2000); border management and security (Okunmu, 2008); human security across border flows (Odozi, 2015; Browne, 2013; Matsuyanma, 2011); gender dimension on transborder trade (Yusuff, 2014), and on risks and social repercussions inherent in smuggling (Ojo, 2015). Therefore, focus of this research work is to fill the knowledge gap by examining the influence of transborder trading activities on senior secondary school students' academic performance in economics in Ogun State, South-West Nigeria.

# **CHAPTER THREE**

## **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

Chapter two presented the theoretical framework and the review of literature with regards to the variables in this thesis. Mouton and Marais (1990) state that in the pursuit of research, ontological assumptions (the physical realities) lead to epistemological assumptions (making objective inquiry that informs the type of study to be undertaken). White (2002) submits that the quantitative researcher believes in objectivity and predictability, a strong characteristic of a quantitative research, which in turn gives rise to methodology (quantitative or qualitative or mixed, literature review and sampling procedures).

This chapter therefore deals with the methodology used in the course of this research which includes the research paradigm, approach, design, population, sample and sampling techniques, instruments, validity and reliability of the test instruments, general procedure for data collection, and data analysis.

The purpose of this study is hinged on the following research hypotheses as highlighted in the research plan in Chapter One:

- There is no significant relationship between transborder trading activities and students' academic performance in economics.
- There is no significant relationship between smuggling and students' academic performance in economics.
- There is no significant relationship between school location and students' academic performance in economics.
- There is no significant relationship between human trafficking and students' academic performance in economics.

The researcher's purpose was to make known his findings from participants who agreed willingly to be respondents to the research instruments that embodied the preceding research questions in line with the outline of the research in Chapter one and the literature review and theoretical framework discussed in Chapter Two. The research paradigm, design and methodology guided the data collection method as well as population and sample size.

Furthermore, since the study adopted the quantitative research approach, it was also premised on null hypotheses. Vermeulen (1998) describes hypothesis as a statement that purports that there is a relationship between concepts that have been identified in the problem that informs undertaking the study. Monteith & Steyn (1992) further explain that hypotheses are always formulated in declarative form, while White (2002) states that hypotheses are not only in declarative forms but they are also testable and indicative of expected results.

Apart from hypotheses, variables are worthy of mention in the present study. Variables are an interrelated set of constructs that constitute a theory (White, 2002). Variables at play in the present study were both independent (transborder trading activities) and dependent (student academic performance). Independent variables are those that the researcher chooses to study and often manipulates so as to assess their possible effect on other variables (Education Facilitators, 1999).

Thus, in the light of the previous discourse regarding hypotheses and variables, the researcher advanced the aforementioned null hypotheses that were tested at a 0.05 alpha level of significance. The 0.05 alpha level of significance affords the researcher the possibility that if the null hypothesis is rejected while being at that alpha level (0.05), there is still a 5% chance of it being true (Monteith & Steyn, 1999). Notably, some scholars prefer using 'not supported' or 'rejected' when it comes to null hypotheses since they can neither be accepted nor rejected unequivocally (Cohen et al., 2012).

Furthermore, it is advisable to test null hypotheses at a 0.05 alpha level of significance in order to avoid type 1 errors, where one might not support the hypothesis while it is in fact true, as well as type 2 errors, in which case one would support a hypothesis that is in fact false (Cohen et al., 2012, p. 616; Akinsola & Ogunleye, 2006). The foregoing explains why the current research adopted the above level of significance in formulating the aforementioned null hypotheses.

In the words of Creswell (2012), it is the research questions and hypotheses which comprise of variables that will determine what data is required to be collected. In this study, the independent variable is transborder trading activities while the effects they are presumed to be having upon the students' academic performance is the dependent variable. It should be noted, however, that the theoretical framework and review of literature which happens to be the fulcrum of Chapter Two were also based on information relating to the same variables as found in the research hypotheses.

As a result of the null hypotheses raised in the early part of this discourse, attention will now be focused on an in- depth discussion of the methodological approach suitable for this study. The research paradigm that best suits the hypotheses in this study is the positivist or positivism paradigm used mainly in quantitative research, which will be discussed next.

### **3.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM**

According to Vos et al. (2011), a research paradigm is an all-encompassing system of organized practice and thinking that defines the nature of enquiry along three dimensions of ontology, epistemology and methodology.

*Paradeigma* is the Greek word for paradigm and it simply implies pattern. This word was first used in 1962 by Thomas Kuhn to indicate a conceptual framework as observed by a community of scientists which provided them with a suitable prototype for identifying problems and ways of solving them. According to Kuhn (1977), a paradigm can be referred to as a combined collection of fundamental

concepts, variables and problems linked with equal methods approaches and instruments. Additionally, it includes a research culture with a set of beliefs, values, and assumptions that a community of researchers has in common regarding the nature and conduct of research.

There are two possible world views, namely the objectivistic and constructivist along the ontological and epistemological reasoning, and this largely affects how a scholar views an issue. However, it should be noted that no one view is superior to the other but a divergent constructivist.

The two views may be suitable for some purpose and inadequate or compounded for other purposes and this may warrant a person to shift his/her opinion depending on the situation at hand. Taylor and Medina (2013) explain that a paradigm is a comprehensive belief system, world views or framework that guides research and practice in a field.

There are three dimensions of a paradigm: a set of beliefs, values and methods, which influences what should be studied, how it should be studied and how to interpret the results (Creswell, 2014). Ontology can be described as the study of claims and assumptions that are made about the nature of social reality, i.e. the claims about what exists, what it looks like, what units make it up, and how these units interact with each other (Mack, 2010).

It should be noted that the researcher's paradigm position guides the whole research process in terms of research approach to be used for collecting, analysing and reporting data. The positivist philosophy compels a researcher to employ the quantitative approach which upholds the existence of one objective reality that is measurable. This approach uses the quantitative tools for data collection and analysis in order to get an enriched understanding and adequate insights into the phenomenon under study. Table 3.1 below presents a summary of the three major paradigms showing their respective ontological, epistemological, axiological, and methodological philosophical assumptions.

**Table 3.1: Major research paradigms and their philosophical assumptions**

<b>Descriptive</b>	<b>Positivism</b>	<b>Post-Positivism</b>	<b>Interpretivism</b>	<b>Critical Theory</b>	<b>Pragmatism</b>
<b>Synonym</b>	<b>Verify</b>	<b>Predict</b>	<b>Understand/ Interpret</b>	<b>Emancipate</b>	<b>Dialectic</b>
<b>Ontology What is real?</b>	Objectivist, findings are the whole truth, which is realism	Modified objectivist, findings are probably true, and there is transcendental realism	Local, relative, co-constructed realities. There is subjective, objectivity and realism	Historical/ virtual realism shaped by outside forces, material subjectivity	Constructed based on the world we live in and explanations that produce the best desired outcomes
<b>Epistemology What is true?</b>	The only knowledge is scientific knowledge- which is truth, reality is apprehensible	Findings approximate truth, reality is never fully apprehended	Co-created multiple realities and truths	Findings are based on values and local examples of truth	Objective and subjective points of view
<b>Axiology What is the role of values?</b>	Value- free, propositional knowing about the world is an end in itself, is intrinsically valuable.	propositional knowing about the world is an end in itself, is intrinsically valuable.	Value-laden, and biased. Propositional, Transactional knowing is Instrumentally valuable as a	Propositional, transactional knowing is instrumentally valuable as a means to social emancipation, which is an end in itself, is intrinsically valuable. Usually Qualitative, but also Quantitative	Multiple stances, e.g. researchers include both biased and unbiased perspectives.
<b>Methodology How do I examine what is real?</b>	Quantitative- Primarily Experimental, Quasi- Experimental	Usually Quantitative- Experimental with threats to validity. Qual- a case study	Means to social emancipation. Often Qualitative and/or Quantitative		Quantitative & Qualitative Together (Mixed Methods Approach)

Source: (Aliyu, Muhammad, Rozilah & David, 2014: 80)

At this point, it will be important to give a detailed explanation of each of the philosophical assumptions that inform a research paradigm.

### **Ontology**

Ontology refers to the claims and assumptions that people make about the nature of social reality, claims about what exists, what it looks like, what units make it up and how



these units interact with each other (Adams, 2014). In other words, ontology refers to people's understandings of the entities they encounter, including the meanings of those entities (Cameron, 2011). This means ontology is all about the nature of the world around us. As a philosophical assumption, ontology addresses the question: What constitutes reality and how can we understand its existence? Within pragmatism, a particular ontological position was chosen, and this is realism. This view holds that the world comprises objectively given objects and structures independent of the researcher (Ormston, Spencer, Barnard & Snape, 2014).

### **Epistemology**

Epistemology is defined as responding to the question of what is (or should be) regarded as acceptable knowledge in a discipline (Bryman & Bell, 2011) and is also concerned with how knowledge can be created, acquired and communicated to other human beings (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). In other words, epistemology is all about, what it means to know. It should be noted that the kind of epistemological assumptions a researcher makes or holds about knowledge profoundly affect how they will go about uncovering knowledge of social behaviour (Al-Saadi, 2014).

### **Axiology**

Axiology refers to the analysis of values to better understand their meanings, physiognomies, origin, acceptance as true, as well as their influence on people's daily experiences (Creswell, 2014). It is a branch of philosophy that studies judgment about value. In other words, it is all about the role of values in research. Researchers demonstrate axiological skill by being able to articulate their values as a basis for making judgments about what research they are conducting and how they go about doing it (Aliyu et al., 2014). The seminal axiological question is: 'What is the ultimate purpose of the inquiry?'

### **Methodology**

Methodology is concerned with strategy or plan of action which lies behind the choice and use of particular methods. It addresses the why, what, from where, when and how data is collected and analyzed (Scotland, 2012). The important question of a methodology is: 'How can a researcher discover whatever he/she believes can be known?'

The following section gives a brief outline of two major research paradigms, describing their principles and explaining the ontological, epistemological, axiological, and methodological positions of each.

### **3.2.1 Interpretivism**

It is a widely held belief among interpretive researchers that reality comprises of people's subjective experiences of the outside world; therefore, they may adopt an inter-subjective epistemology and the ontological belief that reality is socially constructed. According to Carson et al. (2001), the interpretivist use simple structural frameworks and flexible research structures compared to positivist researchers that adopt the rigid, structural frameworks that are approachable to capturing meanings in human interaction (Black, 2006) and making sense of what is perceived as reality (Carson et al., 2001). They believe the researcher and his/her informants are interdependent and mutually interactive. According to Vos et al. (2011), despite prior knowledge available to the interpretivist researcher about the context of the research, the researcher strongly believes that it is not enough to have a fixed research design as a result of the complexity and unpredictable nature of what is seen as reality. The researcher does not foreclose the emergence of new discoveries throughout the study through the help of informants. The use of such an up-and-coming and collaborative approach is consistent with the interpretivist belief that humans have the ability to adapt, and that no one can gain prior knowledge of time and context bound social realities. Therefore, the goal of interpretivist research is to understand and interpret the meanings of human behaviour rather than to generalize and predict causes and effects.

The core principle of interpretivism is that observation through direct experience of the people from within is the only way that research can be objectively and accurately observed. The study of hermeneutics and phenomenology had a significant influence on the interpretivist paradigm. Hermeneutics is the study of meaning and interpretation in historical texts, and this meaning-making cyclical process is the basis on which the interpretivist paradigm was established (Mack, 2010).

Therefore, the ontological assumptions of interpretivism are that social reality is seen by multiple people who interpret events differently, leaving multiple perspectives of an incident.

Therefore, the role of the scientist in the interpretivist paradigm is to understand, explain and interpret social reality through the eyes of different participants (Cohen et al., 2007). Further, the interpretivist paradigm seeks to understand rather than explain the real situation from different perspectives. This paradigm proposes that it is vital for a researcher to understand motives, meanings, reasons and subjective experiences which are time and context bound.

The interpretivist approach differs from that of the positivist in that while the positivist make use of research hypotheses, the interpretivist uses open-ended research questions (Phothongsunan, 2010). The main focus of this class of researcher is gathering qualitative data from which meanings will be interpreted; this they achieve by making use of a small sample size unlike the quantitative researcher that has a large number as sample in a study. One method of carrying out interpretive research is the use of grounded theory. In applying this paradigm, ideas are generated from the data collected, i.e. interpretivist generate theory from the data they generate, while the reverse is the case with the positivism approach where the theory is tested with the data generated.

The quantitative researcher uses questionnaires to gather information from the subjects, while interpretivist use interviews which may be structured, semi-structured or unstructured to gather information from the respondents (Flick, 2015; Phothongsunan, 2010). Sometimes questionnaires are used for data collection in qualitative research. According to Phothongsunan (2010), the Interpretivism paradigm derives its strength from its naturalistic approach by relying on the natural forms of human communication. It involves the deep participation of the researcher and gives room for change over a period of time without using generalizations like positivist research that uses variables to deduce relationships. Despite the aforementioned strengths of Interpretivism, the following are the shortcomings of the approach.

### **3.2.2 Limitations of Interpretivism**

Interpretivism is limited because it discards the scientific processes of verification and therefore results cannot be generalized to other situations. Secondly, interpretivism ontological assumption is subjective rather than objective. Every researcher is subjective in the sense that once a researcher decides on the paradigm or approach to use for a study, subjectivity or bias has already set in. The major argument against interpretivism is failure to acknowledge the political and ideological influences on knowledge and social reality (Wyk, 2010).

Based on the criticisms of the interpretivist paradigm, this research study therefore adopted the positivist paradigm because it uses scientific methods of natural science to study human activity using objective enquiry and striving to investigate and confirm the pattern of behaviour in testing theories and hypotheses (Creswell, 2014). The positivism paradigm mostly involves quantitative methodology (Vos, Strydom, Fouche, & Delpont, 2011) and aims to seek generalizations and quantitative data (Wellington, 2015). It is in line with this argument that this paradigm is found relevant to employ in finding out how transborder trading activities affect the students' academic performance in economics.

### **3.2.3 Pragmatism Paradigm**

In etymological terms, pragmatism is identified as an action-oriented paradigm to finding solutions for existing problems and issues (Kalolo, 2015). The definition implies that pragmatism signifies practicality, compromise, prudence and a clear goal orientation in dealing with problems. From another perspective, pragmatism is believed to be a broad research paradigm covering many different areas which include knowledge, language and ethics (Goldkuhl, 2012). These authors were of the opinion that pragmatism is associated with action, intervention and constructive knowledge, drawing heavily on the inductive and deductive reasoning (Iluah & Eaton, 2013). As a paradigm, it is characterized by its ability to accept all well-constructed paradigms of scientific inquiry as valid when they are appropriate (Kalolo, 2015). The paradigm therefore, provides for the use of both qualitative and quantitative research methodologies to collect information

and make inquiry into complex phenomenon of social and natural contexts (Creswell, 2009; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2010). Pragmatists assert that what works is what is useful and should be used, regardless of any philosophical or paradigmatic assumptions (Zandvanian & Daryapoor, 2013) and can be described as a better process to answering “what”, “why” and “how” research questions (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). It is acknowledged that pragmatism offers an alternative worldview to that of positivism and interpretivism and focuses on the problem to be researched and the consequences of the research (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2011). These authors go on to argue that pragmatism allows the researcher to be free of mental and practical constraints imposed by the “forced choice dichotomy between positivism and constructivism, and researchers do not have to be prisoners of a particular approach or technique (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011:27).

The pragmatic research philosophy provides for the adoption of mixed methods as the data collection method which opens the opportunity to be objective and subjective in analysing the points of view of the participants (Creswell, 2009; Saunders et al., 2009). It focuses on the problem and tries to find practical solutions through the use of mixed methods (Ihuah & Eaton, 2013). By doing so, pragmatic approach allows areas to be studied that are of interest, embracing methods that are appropriate and using findings in a positive manner in harmony with a recognized value system (Creswell, 2009). It therefore, follows that pragmatic research is multi-purpose in nature, making it a good approach that will allow questions to be addressed that do not fit comfortably within a wholly quantitative or qualitative approach, research design and methodology (Ihuah & Eaton, 2013).

### **3.2.4 The Positivism Paradigm**

The origin of the term positivism is traceable to Auguste Isidore Comte (1798-1857), the French philosopher and sociologist with his '*Cours de Philosophie Positive* (1832-1842). His opinion is that reality can be observed which coincide with the ideas of J.S. Mills author of *A System of Logic* written in 1843 (Wellington, 2015). According to Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2007), “Comte’s

position has led to a general doctrine of positivism which held that all genuine knowledge is based on sense experience and can only be advanced through observation and experiment” (p.164 ).

Positivism is also connected with realism and scientific methods (Flick, 2015; Ormston et al., 2014, Cameron, 2011), therefore it upholds the view that the scientist is merely an observer of objective reality, hence, the only way to establish truth. Positivist paradigm is deeply rooted in the positivist philosophy which upholds rigid rules of logic and measurement, truth, absolute principles and prediction (Adams, 2014; Al-Saadi, 2014). They hold that true knowledge only comes from research based in natural sciences through the use of methods, techniques and procedures that offer the best framework for investigating the social world (Scotland, 2012).

The positivist paradigm, also referred to as the scientific paradigm, seeks to prove or disprove a hypothesis (null or alternate), test the reliability and validity of instruments, and used specific data to measure and draw conclusions (Wyk, 2010). Other characteristics of positivist research include scientific method, statistical analysis, generalizability of findings and ability to replicate the result (Wellington, 2015), and findings through the use of large samples (Mack, 2010).

The ontological position of the positivist paradigm is that there exists an objective reality out there in the world, and research findings through collection of numerical data are the whole truth and reality (Milman, 2012). This truth and reality is free and independent of the viewer and observer and as a result of this can be investigated. A positivist investigator therefore, holds the idea that the universe or world conforms to permanent and unchanging laws and rules of causation (Aliyu, Muhammad, Rozilah & David, 2014). These authors submit that the ontological stance in positivism is also held by the belief that there exists an intricacy and complexity in the universe that can be overcome by reductionism. This is done with an intention of asserting an importance and emphasis on impartiality, measurement, objectivity and repeatability.

Positivism holds the epistemological stance that the only knowledge is scientific knowledge, and that truth and reality is inapprehensible (Milman, 2012). The paradigm emphasizes that genuine, real and factual happenings can be studied and observed scientifically and empirically and can as well be elucidated by way of lucid and rational investigation and analysis (Aliyu et al., 2014) .In doing all this, the philosophical perspective expects the researcher to take an objective position, where the inquirer adopts a distant, non-interactive posture to his/her object of inquiry (Dieronitou, 2014). This suggests that there has to be a 'subject-object' relationship to the phenomenon under study. In light of this epistemological stance, some researchers believe that an objective researcher has to have the right data gathering tools to be able to come up with absolute truth for a given inquiry (Aliyu et al., 2014; Creswell, 2010). It is also believed that positivist knowledge is generalizable since it is time and context free.

Positivism upholds an axiological stance that research should be value-free for it to be objective. It further argues that propositional knowing about the world is an end in itself and it is intrinsically valuable (Aliyu et al., 2014). This position expects researchers to employ scientific methods of gathering data which are objective, and to produce results which are value-free.

From a methodological point of view, positivism is inclined to the side of experimentation, coupled with confirmatory analysis and quantitative analysis (Ryan & Julia, 2007). A positivist research is meant to be deductive in nature and to test a prior hypothesis or theory. However, a contrasting view argues that positivism entails elements of both deductive and inductive approaches (Brown, 2014). It is argued that the paradigm imposes a top-down approach to research, where ontology is placed at the top of the hierarchy and methodology at the bottom (Dieronitou, 2014). The same author goes on to argue that the cause-effect ontological position of positivism constrains research, at the methodological level, to the use of empirical tests under carefully controlled conditions.

According to Flick (2015), the underlying assumptions of positivism are as follows:

- Only phenomena confirmed by the senses can be regarded as knowledge.

- Hypotheses emanate from theories that can be tested and explained through deductive reasoning.
- Knowledge can be generated through the collection of facts that produces a basis for induction.
- Science must be carried out in such a way that it is objective and value free (Wellington, 2015, p.210).
- There is a demarcation between scientific and normative statements.

The point of divergence is when modern scientists are viewed as positivists; this is nothing but a fallacy. The argument here is that modern science cannot always clearly identify and control its variables today as it was before (Wellington, 2015).

For instance, the issue of climate change and genetically modified (GM) foods has dislodged to some extent the cause-effect relationship, i.e. X agents cause Y phenomenon to occur; this to some reasonable extent no longer stands. On the other hand, the interpretivist accepts that the observer makes a difference to the observed and that reality is a human construct (Creswell, 2012). Thus, the interpretivist paradigm, also known as the “anti-positivist” paradigm, was a product of the reaction to positivism. It is sometimes referred to as constructivism because it emphasizes the individual’s ability to create meaning. The positivist research paradigm operates best when used with the quantitative approach (when compared with quantification of data, Cohen et al., 2011). Gall et al. (1996, p.767) state that the quantitative research approach is an investigation that is rooted in the assumption that features of the social environment constitute an objective reality that is relatively constant across time and settings

They further point out that the dominant methodology used in this kind of inquiry is to describe and explain features of this reality by collecting numerical data and subjecting such data to statistical analysis. This kind of methodology also involves the testing of hypotheses and, since this is done statistically, the results thereof are believed to be objective.



In corroborating the above, Vermeulen (1998, p.14-15) describes the quantitative research paradigm in- depth as follows:

- It is an inquiry that assumes an objective social reality;
- It assumes that the social reality is relatively constant across time and settings;
- It views casual relationships among social phenomena from a robotic direction;
- It studies populations or samples that represent populations;
- It takes an objective, detached stance toward research participants and their settings;
- It studies behaviour and other observable phenomena;
- It studies human behaviour in natural or artificial settings;
- It analyzes social realty into variables;
- It uses preconceived concepts and theories to determine what kind of data will be collected;
- It generates numerical data to represent the social environment;
- It uses statistical methods to analyze data;
- It uses statistical inference procedures to generalize findings from a sample to a defined population;
- It prepares impersonal, objective reports of research findings;
- Its procedures are highly formalized;
- It is more explicitly controlled;
- It uses a deductive form of reasoning through data collection for the assessment of preconceived models, hypotheses and theories;
- It tests hypotheses that the researcher triggers off his/her study with;

- When using quantitative research paradigm, observations are systematically undertaken in a standardized manner;
- Its concepts are in the form of distinct variables;
- Data are presented by means of exact figures elicited from precise measurement;
- The researcher's role is that of an objective observer;
- The research is standardized based on fixed procedure and can therefore be replicated;
- Studies are focused on specific questions or hypotheses that remain constant throughout the investigation;
- Data collection procedures and types of measurement are constructed in advance and applied in a standardized manner; and
- Measurements are focused on specific variables that are quantified through rating scales, frequency counts and other means.

### **3.2.5 Justification for the positivism paradigm in the current study**

Since the current study is aligned to the positivism paradigm, it then follows that numerical data will be gathered, collated and analyzed in order to develop knowledge about the effects of transborder trading activities on students' academic performance in economics.

It is a widely held belief by positivists that only observable phenomena that are agreeable to the senses can be validly classified as knowledge (Flick, 2015), hence phenomena that are not subjected to observation through experience or use of instruments cannot be regarded as knowledge (Wellington, 2015). Central to positivism are mathematical and statistical techniques which follow a specific research structure to unveil single and objective reality (Carson et al., 2001). Positivist researchers aim at time and context free generalizations. This is believed to be possible since human actions can be classified as cause and effect

that precedes researchers' behaviour and their subjects who act independently without been influenced.

According to Kura (2012), scientific laws and facts are based on falsifiability, logical consistency, relative explanatory power and survival, which are logically connected to positivism. Positivism is rooted in atomism, quantification and operationalization. It implies that there is an occurrence existing as a separate entity from the whole world as distinct from discrete elements. Quantification refers to the variables that can be expressed in terms of numbers and frequencies, which uses mathematical tools to reveal the significance for drawing conclusions. Operationalization seeks to define social phenomena as simple behaviours and life experience (Walker, 2005). This suggests that the epistemological perspective of any research defines its instruments of data collection and analysis.

Positivists aver that scientific theories provide backdrop to experimental research because hypotheses derived from these theories are subjected to empirical testing, meaning that science allows for deductive reasoning by seeking to extract specific propositions from generalizations (Vos et al., 2011). In line with this argument, the hypotheses raised in this research work will be subjected to empirical testing through the questionnaires generated to elicit information from the respondents from which generalizations will then be made.

Although the positivist paradigm continued to exert its influence on educational research for a long time, in the latter half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century it was challenged by critics from two alternative traditions – the interpretivist and post-modernist – because it is not subjective in interpreting social reality (Kumur, 2011). According to them, there is need to replace objectivity with subjectivity in the process of scientific inquiry. They express skepticism that knowledge can be derived through observation (Flick, 2015) and also about the testing of hypotheses and theories with the aim of gaining secure knowledge.

In the words of Babbie (2012), a paradigm is essentially a frame of reference (view) with which to understand the world. Positivists follow the natural science approach by testing theories and hypotheses (Kura, 2012), therefore the research paradigm suitable for this study is the positivist paradigm. The positivist paradigm, in which the current study is located, is discussed in detail, giving a justification of its choice as well as highlighting the strengths and limitations of the paradigm.

### **3.3 RESEARCH APPROACH**

This study is a quantitative approach of a survey research. The quantitative approach as a traditional mode of research involves a highly systematic procedure with carefully worked out rules guiding it (Kura, 2012). It includes cross-sectional and longitudinal studies using questionnaires or structured interviews for data collection with the intent of generalizing from a sample to a population (Fowler, 2009).

It is more relevant when factors that influence an outcome are to be identified or to predict an outcome (Lincoln, Lynham, & Guba, 2011), but if a concept needs to be explored as a result of an earlier research carried out on it, the best option is to apply a qualitative approach (Creswell, 2012).

According to Creswell (2014), the quantitative method is predetermined based on the use of instruments, performance (achievement) data, attitude data, observational data, statistical analysis and interpretation, while the qualitative method uses open-ended questions, interview data, observation data, document data and audio visual. Others include text and images analysis, themes, sub-themes and patterns interpretation (Creswell, 2014). Quantitative research is an empirical research in which data gathered are in numerical forms using the syntax of mathematical operations and represents data in numerical values (Kura, 2012; Abbas, 2006).

It employs statistical tools in the collection and interpretation of data. Quantitative methodologists are of the opinion that research can only be executed through the

use of statistics and statistical methods, hence quantitative research is seen as been more representative and reliable than qualitative research. Its emphasis on systematic statistical analysis helps to ensure that findings and interpretations are robust (Devine, 2002).

Quantitative research is deeply rooted in positivism and epistemological orientation, hence the researcher adopted this approach. Survey research shows the associations among two or more variables in a study without any attempt to influence them. It investigates the possibility of relationships between two variables and these variables cannot be manipulated (Sanni, 2011). Further, it describes the phenomena being studied, data collection and analysis using descriptive statistics (Lomax & Li, 2013).

### **3.3.1 Qualitative Approach**

According to Everset, (2014) qualitative approach focuses on the meanings, traits and defining characteristics of events, people, interactions, setting or cultures, and experiences. This approach is useful when researchers need to explore people's feelings or ask participants to reflect on their experiences and when it is done well, qualitative approach does provide valuable insights and advances to knowledge (Bryman, 2015). It also emphasizes the importance of direct contact with social reality as the springboard for any investigation thus, fashioning an understanding of the social world through that contact (Bryman, 2015). Qualitative approach is responsive to local situations, conditions and stakeholders' needs and apart from that, it is also useful for describing complex phenomena. However, qualitative approach findings are difficult to generalize to other people or other settings, since the findings may be unique to the people included in the research study (Rubin & Babbie, 2015) due to the limited number of respondents involved in the qualitative data that are gathered. Another weakness of qualitative approach is that it usually takes more time to collect data compared to quantitative approach, and qualitative data analysis tends to be cumbersome and often time consuming (Wellington, 2015).

### **3.3.2 Quantitative Approach**

Rubin & Babbie, (2015) aver that the quantitative approach used in research attempts to produce findings that are precise and generalizable. The focus of this approach is on using specific definitions and carefully operationalizing what particular concepts variables mean (Tewksbury, 2009). Due to its nature, quantitative approach is found to have significant advantages. The approach is believed to be helpful in testing and validating theories, testing hypotheses, and replication of findings (Everset, 2014). It is useful when carrying out a large scale need assessment or baseline survey by allowing the collection of large quantities of data. Quantitative approach works well in measuring trends, producing results which are numerical (quantifiable), and hence considered more “objective”. Above all, the quantifiable data is likely to provide a clear, quantitative measure that can be used for grants and proposals especially for companies and organizations (Ramona, 2011). Data analysis in quantitative approach is believed to be relatively less time consuming, for it can be done using statistical software. Despite the highlighted merits of the quantitative approach, it should be noted that its major weakness is that of ignoring a very important human element (that is, depth of an issue) in research.

### **3.3.3 Survey Research Design**

Leedy & Ormrod (2010) describe survey research as any form of descriptive, quantitative research that involves acquiring information from one or more groups of people by asking questions and tabulating their answers in order to gather data from a large population by surveying a sample of that population. Therefore, the survey research design can be referred to as a descriptive survey or a normative survey. A survey design provides a quantitative or numeric description of trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population (Creswell, 2014). From the sample results, the researcher is able to generalize or draw inferences to the population.

McMillan & Schumacher (2014) state that in a survey research the investigator (researcher) selects a sample of subjects and administers a questionnaire in order to collect data

The following are the characteristics of the survey research design:

- Sample derived from a population;
- Collection of data through the use of questionnaires or interviews;
- Designing of instruments for data collection; and
- Obtaining a high response rate (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014; Creswell, 2012; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010).

The current study used the correlational research design but adopted the survey research. In line with the scholarly views previously presented (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010; McMillan & Schumacher, 2014), the current study used two self-developed instruments – student questionnaire on transborder trading activities (SQTTA) and economics achievement test (EAT)– to elicit responses from the respondents for the purpose of data collection questionnaires from selected participants (students in SS II and III) whose schools are located in the border towns of Ogun State with a view to summarizing responses with percentages, frequency counts and other quantitative data analyzing procedures.

The questionnaire collected data relating to transborder trading activities and students' academic performance from respondents in five local governments of Ogun State: Ado-Odo/Ota, Yewa North, Yewa South, Imeko- Afon and Ipokia local government areas respectively, as schools in these areas are closely located near the border.

In a nutshell, correlational research design was preferred for the current study as it lends itself to correlating the following phenomena: transborder trading activities (independent variable) with students' academic performance in economics (dependent variable). This was done so as to facilitate the answering of the

research questions and as a way of trying to prove the null hypotheses put forward as a means of directing the research discourse.

The purpose of using this approach for this particular study is because it can predict human behaviour or predict likely outcomes (identify relationships among variables) to show the correlation that exists between transborder trading activities and students' academic performance, Creswell (2014) explains that correlational research is useful in determining to what degree two variables are related and rather than prove a relationship it indicates an association between two or more variables (Sanni, 2011).

#### **3.3.4 Justification for Selecting Quantitative Approach for the current study**

In the previous sections, literature showed that the quantitative approach enables the researcher to make use of large data. The primary reason for employing the quantitative approach in this current study was to provide answers to questions raised in the effects of transborder trading activities on senior secondary school students' academic performance in economics in Ogun state, Nigeria. The current researcher is of the opinion that the effects of transborder trading activities on students' academic performance in economics can be obtained using questionnaires and achievement tests to gather data to be analyzed using descriptive survey research approach, thereby enhancing the validity of inferences drawn through the use of step-wise regression analysis and t-test.

The quantitative approach is employed in the current study because, it is helpful in testing and validating theories, testing hypotheses, and replication of findings (Everset, 2014). It is useful when carrying out a large scale need assessment or baseline survey by allowing the collection of large quantities of data. Quantitative approach works well in measuring trends, producing results which are numerical (quantifiable), and hence considered more "objective".

Another reason for the quantitative approach is based on the assertion of Ramona, (2011) that data analysis in quantitative approach is believed to be relatively less time consuming, for it can be done using statistical software such



as the Statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) in comparison to hazardous task of transcribing information collected using the qualitative approach.

### **3.4 RESEARCH DESIGN**

Research design is the overall plan for connecting the theoretical research problems to the relevant empirical research. In other words, the research design articulates what data is required, what methods are going to be used to collect and analyze this data, and how all of this will answer the research question (Wyk, 2010).

According to Kumur (2011), research design is a routine plan for answering research questions in a valid, accurate and economical way. A research design in its simplest term is a systematic and well laid out route-map to answering research questions. It is the 'glue' that holds all of the elements in a research project together and is also referred to as the structure of a research. In the same vein, Cameron (2014), defined research design as a systematic and justified route-map to answering research questions. The pivotal role of a research design is to minimize the chance of drawing inappropriate causal inferences from data obtained.

Definitions cited above reveals that researchers need to be guided and directed by a research design to ensure that evidence collected enables them to adequately address the demands of research questions or to test theories as unambiguously as possible.

In every design there are elements. These elements are observations symbolized by 'O' in design notation, treatments or programs symbolized with an 'X' in design notations, and the third element is group which symbolizes the number of elements contained therein (Trochim, 2006).

This study adopted a survey research design which is a scientific method that involves observing and describing the behaviour of a subject in which information will be collected without changing the environment (i.e. nothing is manipulated).

### **3.4.1 Correlational Research Design**

Correlational research design is a form of quantitative design that is non-experimental. Statistical data derived from correlational studies are used by the researcher to describe and measure the degree of association or relationship that exists between two variables or set of scores (Creswell, 2012). According to Waters (2005), correlational design is a quantitative method in which there are two or more quantitative variables from the same groups and the researcher tries to determine if a co-variation exists between the two variables. In theory, any two variables can be associated so far as scores are obtained from the same respondents.

Lomax (2013) maintains that the main reason for correlational research design is to show the relationship that exists between two or more variables by gathering data from multiple variables and various correlational statistics which are then applied to the data. It investigates many factors which include the characteristics of the association between two or more variables and the likely theoretical model that may be developed and tested to explain the resultant correlation.

The methodology and data collection should be done in the most effective manner in producing answers to the research question, taking into cognizance the practical constraints of the study. It reflects the purpose of the enquiry be it exploratory, historical, descriptive, explanatory, predictive or evaluative.

Therefore, the correlational design is the most useful and appropriate research design for this thesis due to the high levels of uncertainty and ignorance about the subject, as a result of the paucity of existing research and literature on the research topic. This type of research is usually flexible without a formal structure.

Exploratory research is aimed at identifying limitations in the environment in which the problems, opportunities or situations of interest are likely to reside, and to identify the relevant factors or variables that might be found to be of significance to the research.

The motive behind descriptive research is to provide an accurate and valid representation that summarises the factors or variables that pertain or are relevant to the research question. Such research is more structured than exploratory research.

Explanatory research, sometimes referred to as analytical study, aims at identifying any causal links between the factors or variables that pertain to the research problem. This type of research design is not truly experimental but shows the association between two or more worlds, hence it will be useful in this study to determine the correlation between transborder trading activities and students' academic performance in economics.

### **3.5 POPULATION**

Ogundipe, Lucas, and Sanni (2006, p.100) refer to population as the totality of all elements, subjects or members that possess a specified set of one or more common fixed characteristics. Population in a study is either a discrete or continuous population. A population is discrete when a specific group such as a class in a school is used for a study, while a continuous population is when a very large limitless group is being considered for a study. Creswell (2014) views population as the group that the researcher is interested in gaining information and drawing conclusions from.

A research population is composed of two groups; the target population and accessible study population. A target population includes all the cases about which the researcher would like to make generalizations. This type of population is not always accessible to the researcher, hence, only a part of it that is available can be studied. Therefore, for the purpose of this current study the target population comprises of all senior secondary school students in Ogun State whose schools are located in border towns of Ogun State, Southwest Nigeria. The accessible population on the other hand comprises a group of individuals that researchers have access and can legitimately apply the conclusions of their study. The study population may be restricted to a region, district, city or institutions. In this current study, the accessible population is a total of 1600

secondary school students (SS2) from 23 secondary schools in border towns/areas representing 30% of the sample population will be the population for this study (Stoker, 1985 as cited by Adu, 2014). The inclusion of this group of students for this study is as a result of their age.

### **3.5.1 Sample and Sampling Techniques**

A sample is a representation of the target population being researched, and findings from the population are usually used to draw conclusions about the population (Field, 2009). It is a process of selecting units from a population of interest so that by studying the sample the results can be generalized back to the population from which they were chosen. Sampling is classified majorly into probability and non- probability sampling methods. According to Sanni (2011), a research sample helps to inform the quality of inferences made by the researcher that stem from the underlying findings.

Burns and Bush (2010) state that the size of a sample has an effect on how the sample findings accurately represent the population of a given study. The larger the sample is the more likely that the generalizations are an accurate reflection of the population (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill 2009), hence 320 respondents were used in this study out of the 1600 representing 30% of the population for the study,.

Table 3.1 is a sample guideline designed by Stoker (1985) to assist researchers on the size of the sample that will be representative of a population in any quantitative study.

**Table 3.2: Stoker’s sample guideline (Stoker, 1985 cited by Adu et al., 2014, p. 15)**

<b>Population</b>	<b>Percentage suggested</b>	<b>Number of respondents</b>
20	100%	20
30	80%	24
50	64%	32
100	45%	45
200	32%	64
500	20%	100
1 000	14%	140
10 000	4,5%	450
100 000	2%	2 000
200 000	1%	2 000

Sample techniques are methods used to select a sample from a population by reducing it to a manageable size (Saunders et al., 2009). The sampling method to be used is determined by various factors which include the nature of the problem being investigated, the type or research questions and hypotheses, instrumentation and other factors (Hammed & Popoola, 2006). There are two main sampling techniques – probability and non-probability – and the two differ in the sense that non- probability sampling does not involve random selection while probability sampling does.

Probability sampling techniques refer to the possibility that each object in the target population can be selected, and in most cases the chances of selecting one is equal to the possibility of selecting any other object (Sanni, 2011).

According to Bamberger (2012), sampling is that part of statistical practice concerned with the selection of a sub-set of individuals from within a population to yield some knowledge about the whole, especially for the purposes of making predictions based on statistical inference. It is a sub-set of the population selected

for a given research enquiry which helps to inform the quality of inferences made by the researcher that stem from underlying findings (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010).

There are various types of probability sampling techniques such as simple random, systematic sampling, cluster sampling, multi-stage sampling, quota sampling and stratified sampling. Each of these sampling techniques shall be briefly explained for proper understanding of their use in social sciences and educational research.

### **3.5.2 Random Sampling**

This sampling method is based on the principle which ensures that each individual in the population has an equal opportunity of being selected for the study (Fowler, 2009). In using this sampling technique, the exact size of the population must be known. The first step in random sampling is to construct a list of all the individual sample units (i.e. the sample frame) in the population being sampled (Ogundipe et al., 2006). In systematic random sampling the researcher chooses a random start on a list and selects every Y numbered people on the list. This Y number is based on a fraction determined by the number of people on the list and the number that are to be selected on the list (For instance 1 out of every 20<sup>th</sup> person). It is a fair way to select a sample and reasonable for the purpose of generalization of results from the sample back to the population (Creswell, 2014).

### **3.5.3 Systematic Sampling**

In the systematic technique, each element in the population is allotted a number (Sanni, 2011, Ogundipe et al., 2006). The researcher may select every 10<sup>th</sup>, 20<sup>th</sup> or nth element of a population until the desired sample size is selected. Since the first is chosen at random, all the items have the same prospect of being selected for the sample. According to Hammed and Popoola (2006), the strategy of determining items for inclusion in the sample can be obtained by dividing the size of the population by the same sample size. It is of a higher value when compared with the simple random sampling because it is more convenient (Vos et al., 2011).

### **3.5.4 Cluster Sampling**

This sampling technique is mostly ideal when it is impracticable to compile a list of the elements that make up the population (Babbie, 2007). In using this method the total population is divided into a number of relatively small subdivisions that are themselves clusters of smaller units (Hammed & Popoola, 2006). These subdivisions are randomly selected for inclusion in the overall sample. It is used when a sampling frame such as a list of names is not available (Vos et al., 2011). The problem with this sampling technique is that to cover a very large population that is not found in the same place, there will be a need to cover a lot of ground geographically to get to each of the units sampled. In cluster sampling, the following steps will be followed:

- Divide the population into clusters especially along geographic boundaries;
- Randomly sample clusters; and
- Measure all units within sampled clusters.

### **3.5.5 Multi-Stage Sampling**

When a population is highly heterogeneous and difficult to develop the sample frame of individual elements, it is advisable to select random samples in stages (Ogundipe et al., 2006). The combination of simple, stratified, systematic and cluster sampling is known as the multi-stage sampling technique. By combining different sampling methods a variety of probabilistic sampling methods are achieved that can be used in a wide range of social research contexts.

As the name suggests, this sampling technique is done in stages until all the samples in the study are represented. For example, a researcher might randomly select some villages within a state as the first stage; in the second stage he/she can randomly select some schools within the selected villages, and in the third stage he/she randomly selects some students within the selected schools.

### **3.5.6 Quota Sampling**

This is a type of sampling in which deliberate control factor is used to draw samples from a study population on the assumption that the chosen samples have similar characteristics with the sampling population (Hammed & Popoola, 2006). It is a subjective method of selecting samples from a given population. In quota sampling, it is impossible to estimate population parameters and sampling errors with statistical procedures developed on the basis of random sampling. There are two types of quota sampling: proportional and non-proportional. In proportional quota sampling, major characteristics of the population are sampled through a proportion. Non-proportional quota sampling is a little bit less restrictive. The minimum number of sample to be used in this method must be specified. This argument does not in any way disparage the quota sampling technique, rather it is useful in research where the population size is indeterminate, the sampling frame is not available, and to compile one is difficult. Here quota sampling becomes relevant in order to reduce the cost of sampling, save time and energy reduction in using the probability sampling technique.

Having briefly explained some of the probability sampling techniques, the focus will be on the stratified sampling technique adopted by the researcher for the purpose of this study because it allowed the researcher to draw his sample from a heterogeneous population.

### **3.5.7 Stratified Sampling**

Stratification implies that specific characteristics of individuals such as being male or female is represented in the sample which reflects the true proportion in the population of individuals with certain characteristics (Fowler, 2009), When randomly selecting people from a population, these characteristics may or may not be present in the sample in the same proportions as in the population, hence stratification ensures their equal representation.

Sanni (2011) identified the characteristics used in stratifying the population (e.g. gender, income levels, and education). Within each stratum there is need to



identify whether the sample contains individuals with the characteristic in the same proportion as the characteristic appears in the entire population.

When a population is heterogeneous, it might be necessary first to stratify by dividing it into a set of mutually exclusive subpopulations or strata which could be on the basis of race, sex and religion (Ogundipe et al., 2006). Random samples are then selected from each stratum.

Stratified sampling is a process of dividing the sample frame into a strata to obtain a relatively homogenous subgroup (Sanni, 2011). It is suitable for heterogeneous population so that the small subgroups in terms of percentage will be guaranteed to be included in the sample frame (Vos et al., 2011). The use of stratified sampling ensures that there will be adequate representation of not only the overall population but also key subgroups of the population, especially small minority groups. Also, stratified sampling will generally have more statistical precision than the simple random sampling technique. This research is carried out in Nigeria, and being a heterogeneous society it is therefore stratified into six geo-political zones; out of these, one zone which is south-west zone was selected. South-west comprises of six states, and one state (Ogun State) is randomly selected so as to cater for the homogeneity of the respondents, such as gender, home language, level of education, and age. The sample was stratified into border and non-border zones to ensure that the different groups of the population are well represented in the sample (Vos et al., 2011).

There are 23 senior secondary schools in border towns/area of Ogun State, covering five LGAs out of 20 LGAs in the state. For the study, students in SS II and III from 8 senior secondary schools with an average of 50 students per class, out of which 40 students comprising of male and female students were randomly selected per class to make up a total of 320 students (respondents). These students in SS II and III were selected based on their ages and level of maturity.

**Table 3.3: List of schools used for the study**

S/N	Name of School	No of Students in each class (SS 2&3)
1.	Alamuwa High School (Senior), Ado-Odo	40
2.	Toyon High School (Senior), Ere, Ado-Odo	40
3.	Owode Senior Secondary School, Owode	40
4	Yewa High School (Senior), Ajilete	40
5	Community High School, Ijohun	40
6.	Ketu college (Senior) Igan-Alade	40
7.	Orita Community High School (Senior), Oja-Odan	40
8.	Agosasa Community High School (Senior), Agosasa	40
	Total	320

### **3.6 VARIABLES OF THE STUDY**

A variable can simply be referred to as an attribute possessed by an individual or an organization that is measurable and observable with variations among the people or organization being considered. This variance means that scores in a given situation fall into at least two equally exclusive groups (Thompson, 2006). Variables often measured include gender (male or female), age, socio-economic status (SES), or attitudes or behaviours such as racism, social control, political power, or leadership (Creswell, 2014).

### **3.6.1 Types of Variables**

Independent variables, also referred to as treatment, manipulated, antecedent, or predictor variables, cause and/ or influence effect outcomes of a study. For the purpose of this study, the independent variables is transborder trading activities (smuggling and human trafficking).

Dependent variables, as the name implies, are variables that depend on the independent variables; they are the outcomes of the influence of the independent variables. Dependent variables can also be referred to as criterion, outcome, effect and response variables. For this study the dependent variable is students' academic performance in economics.

Intervening or mediating variables stand between the independent and dependent variables and mediate the effects of the independent variable on the dependent variable. For example, if students perform well in a research methods test which is a dependent variable, the outcomes may be due to (a) their study preparation (independent variable), or (b) their organization of study ideas into a framework (intervening variable) that influenced their performance on the test. The mediating variable, the organization of study, stands between the independent and dependent variables in the probable causal link.

Moderating variables are regarded as variables that affect the direction and/or the strength of the relationship between independent and dependent variables or moderate the influence of the independent variable on the dependent variables (Thompson, 2006). These moderating variables are new variables constructed by a researcher by taking one variable and multiplying it by another to determine the joint impact of both on the dependent variable (e.g. age, educational level, income level) and moderating variables instead of major independent variables which are typically found in experiments (Creswell, 2014).

### **3.7 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS**

There are many strategies of data collection, and the choice of an instrument or research tool depends mainly on the attributes of the subjects, research topic, problem question, objectives, design, expected data and results. Zohrabi, (2013) avers that, data collection instruments are the fact-finding strategies used for obtaining relevant information concerning the problem under investigation. The choice of an instrument or research tool depends mainly on the characteristics of the subject under investigation, research topic, problem question, aims / objectives, design, data expected and results. Two data collection instruments used in the study were the student questionnaire on transborder trading activities (SQTТА) and economics achievement test (EAT).

#### **3.7.1 Questionnaire**

This is a document that contains questions and/or other items designed to solicit appropriate information from respondents that were subjected to analysis (Babbie, 2012). It is used to obtain facts and opinions about a phenomenon from people who are knowledgeable on a particular issue (Vos et al., 2011). In this case, students residing and schooling in border communities were made to respond to questions in the SQTТА on transborder trading activities and its effects on their academic performance.

The questionnaire for this study has five sections: Section A is on the students' (respondents) demographic information, such as age, sex, present class, parent educational level, parent occupation, and parents' income level. Section B is on transborder trading activities with five items and is structured in line with research hypothesis  $H_{01}$ , while section C is based on smuggling activities with four items based on research hypothesis  $H_{02}$ . Section D is based on school location regarding research hypothesis  $H_{03}$  with six items, while section E on human trafficking in line with hypothesis  $H_{04}$  has five items, totaling twenty question items in all.

A modified 4-point Likert scale was used for this study in place of a 7 point Likert scale to reduce the level of frustration among respondents and to increase the

rate and quality of their responses (Zohrabi, 2013). The Likert scale is a popular instrument used to collect data for survey and also for measuring attitudes which require respondents to choose a statement from a number of statements that range from 'strongly agree'(SA) to 'strongly disagree'(SD) (Saunders et al., 2007).

Questionnaires are used to elicit information from the respondents because:

- i) High response rate is guaranteed since the researcher will personally collect the questionnaires back after respondents have completed the paper;
- ii) Questionnaires save time and energy to administer;
- iii) The principle of anonymity in ethics of research is strictly adhered to because respondents' names were not required on the questionnaire;
- iv) Bias is reduced to the barest minimum because the items were presented in a consistent manner; and
- v) Responses can be easily compared because most items in the questionnaire were closed.
- vi) It is an objective research tool that produces generalizable results because of large sample sizes
- vii) Data collection is quick and cheap because item questions are more structured
- viii) It gives an opportunity to all respondents to provide feedback
- ix) Structured questions can be processed by software packages such as Excel and the Software packages for Social Sciences (SPSS). (Campbell, Quincy, Osserman & Pedersen, 2013).

Apart from the above listed advantages of questionnaires, questionnaires have shortcomings which include the question of validity and accuracy (Burns & Grove, 1993, p.368). The subjects might not reflect their true opinions but might answer what they think will please the researcher, and valuable information may be lost as answers are usually brief. The researcher disagrees with the position of Burns & Grove (1993) because the instrument before being finally administered was validated by experts and its reliability guaranteed through the use of Cronbach's alpha to determine the index of its reliability.

In the construction of the test items in the questionnaire used in this study, the following nine cardinal rules of a valid and reliable survey instrument (questionnaire) were followed:

- Simplicity;
- Avoid double barrel questions;
- Use neutral language;
- Reduction of negative wording to the barest minimum;
- Avoid the response set pitfall;
- Use rating scales consistently;
- Limit the point on a rating scale;
- Label or anchor the rating scale; and
- Reduce length of survey.

The second instrument used in this study is the EAT to measure the students' academic performance. This instrument was validated by giving the questions to experts in the field of test and measurement in the faculty of education for their professional contributions, suggestions and corrections.

### **3.7.2 Economics Achievement Test (EAT)**

This is a multiple-choice objective test made up of 40 items. Each item has one correct option (key) and three distractors, i.e. options A, B, C and D. The content area covers the following topics in economics.

1. Basic concepts in economics
2. Production and division of labour
3. International trade
4. Theory of consumer behaviour
5. Distributive trade

6. Economies of scale
7. Financial institutions
8. Money and inflation
9. Agriculture and industry
10. Theory of cost
11. Population
12. Petroleum

The students were allowed sufficient time to finish the test.

### **3.7.3 Scoring of economics achievement test (EAT)**

The scoring of EAT was done on a dichotomous basis. The correct response earned one mark, while an incorrect response earned zero. The test item specifications are shown in the following table.

**Table 3.4: Table of specifications for the Economic Achievement Test (EAT)  
(Bloom's Taxonomy, 1956)**

MAIN CONCEPT	Categories in Cognitive Domain (Bloom, 1959)						
	Knowledge	Comprehension	Application	Analysis	Synthesis	Evaluation	Total Items across Concepts
Basic concepts in economics		(1)	(2)	(2)			5
		16	3,4	2,30			
Production	(2)		(2)				4
	19,20		1,18				
Theory of consumer behaviour			(2)	(4)			6
			9,38	24,34,35,37			
Distributive trade			(2)				2
			5,40				
Agriculture & industries				(1)	(1)		2
				36	25		
International trade		(1)	(1)	(3)		(1)	6
		14	27	6,11,26		13	
Financial institutions		(1)	(1)				2
		33	22				
Money and inflation	(1)	(1)	(2)	(2)			6
	28	17	15,21	23,29			
Balance of payments			(1)				1
			13,				



Economies of scale	(1)						1
	7						
Population		(1)	(1)				2
		32	12				
Theory of cost	(1)			(1)			2
	8			39			
Petroleum			(1)				1
			10				
<b>Total cognitive Items across Categories</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>40</b>

The above table of specifications on the EAT reveals a 40 item multiple choice questions from economics curriculum for SS II. The questions were spread across thirteen different topics covering the SS II syllabus in Ogun State. According to Bloom's Taxonomy (1956), the six levels of cognitive domains of the students to be measured are knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation (KCAASE). A total of 40 multiple choice objective questions were set to cover scope and basics of economics, production, distributive trade, international trade, economies of scale, theory of consumer behaviour, population, financial institutions, money and inflation, agriculture and industry, and theory of cost.

Of the 40 questions, covering the cognitive domains, 5 questions measured knowledge of the students, 5 comprehension level, and 15 application level, while 13 measured the analytical level, and 1 question each for synthesis and evaluation level. The reason for this distribution pattern of the questions in this achievement test is due to the present class of respondents used for this study, hence there are more questions on knowledge, comprehension, application and analysis.

**Table 3.5: Analysing the content-cognitive balance using Bloom's Taxonomy**

COGNITIVE LEVELS (in ascending order)		Percentage	Marks
6	Evaluation	5%	1
5	Synthesis		1
4	Analysis	70%	13
3	Application		15
2	Comprehension	25%	5
1	Knowledge		5
<b>TOTAL MARKS FOR ECONOMICS TEST</b>		<b>100%</b>	<b>40</b>

#### **3.7.4 Reliability of Economics Achievement Test (EAT)**

The researcher constructed a pilot test of 50 items which was administered to 50 students of SS II and SS III in order to measure its reliability coefficient using Cronbach's alpha. An instrument is reliable when it has the ability to produce consistently the numerical results each time it is applied; not subject to variations except when there are changes in the variable being measured (Babbie, 2012; Sanni, 2011). The Cronbach alpha was computed to determine the internal consistency and reliability of each item and the value was 0.78. The instrument was given to experts in educational research (tests and measurement), and lecturers in the economics department of education who offered suggestions, and corrections were effected to improve the instrument.

### **3.8 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY**

#### **3.8.1 Validity**

Validity is the extent to which a test measures what it was designed to measure and performs as it is designed to perform (Wellington, 2015; Babbie, 2012; Sanni, 2011). Validity is determined by a researcher when he/she makes use of certain procedures to check for the accuracy of the research findings (Adefioye, 2015).

The instrument for this study was validated by giving a draft copy to the supervisor and other experts in the field of research studies for their perusal and necessary corrections. The content validity was ensured by pilot-testing the research instruments. After validation, the instrument was subjected to pilot-testing to establish its reliability. Validity is the extent to which an instrument measures what it is supposed to measure.

According to Fawcett (2013), a test is considered valid when it succeeds in measuring what it purports to measure. The internal validity of an instrument is the approximate truth about inferences regarding cause-effect or causal relationship. Internal validity is only relevant in research studies aimed at establishing a causal relationship. Notably it is possible to have internal validity in a study and not have construct validity (Cooks & Campbell, 1979). The internal validity tries to establish the fact that there is evidence that what was done in the study caused what the researcher observed. If internal validity is increased, external validity is reduced.

External validity, on the other hand, is about generalizing. It is the degree to which the conclusions in a study stand for other persons in other places at all times. Three major threats to external validity are people, places or times. In order to solve the problems of external validity, carefully draw the sample from the population using the random sampling technique.

An instrument has face validity when the items on it seem to measure the intended concept (Rubin & Bellamy, 2012). Content validity refers to the degree to which a measure seems to cover the entire range of meanings within a concept (Rubin & Babbie, 2016). Validity of an instrument is measured in degrees because it is almost impossible for an instrument to be 100% valid. Validation of an instrument involves the collection and analysis of data to assess the accuracy of an instrument.

There are numerous statistical tests and measures to assess the validity of quantitative instruments, which generally involves pilot testing.

### **3.8.1.2 Face Validity**

This refers to the appropriateness of measures in terms of its general outlook and it concerns the seeming appearance of face value of a measurement procedure (Vos et al., 2011; Isangedighi, Joshua, Asim, & Ekuri, 2004). The purpose of face validity is to show that the test meets the expectation of the user. Face validity of an instrument is usually established by specialists in that discipline or subject area (Kraska-Miller, 2014) and likewise content validity (Jackson, 2016). The investigators will peruse the items and agree that the test is a valid measure of the concept being measured just on the face of it (Sanni, 2011). That is, researchers appraise whether each of the measuring items matches any given theoretical domain of the concept.

### **3.8.1.3 Content Validity**

This is the extent to which items in the instrument cover or reflect all of the topics or concepts in a universe (Babbie, 2007). In other words, valid instrument provides an adequate representation of all samples of elements being measured. In the same vein, the researcher deliberately targets the opinion and judgments of experts in the topic area on the validity of the measure (Wellington, 2015; Vos et al., 2011; Isangedighi et al., 2004).

For example, if the items in an instrument only reflect some content areas neglecting some, then the instrument is not valid. The purpose of content validity is to show how a test covers the domains of a subject it is designed to test. To ascertain the content validity of an instrument, two important questions must be answered: Is the instrument measuring the content and behaviours of its domain adequately? Does the instrument provide an adequate sample of items that is representative of the concept being measured?

According to Isangedighi et al. (2004), a table of specification is required to answer the two questions earlier posed because it will ensure that:

- I) the test items comprehensively reflect the content of instruction that the test is based on;
- II) the test items comprehensively reflect both low and higher order cognitive behaviour, i.e. from knowledge to evaluate on the Bloom's Taxonomy of the cognitive domain;
- iii) There is balance between the content and desired behaviours.

#### **3.8.1.4 Criterion-related Validity**

Another name for criterion-related validity is predictive validity. According to Thatcher (2010), predictive validity implies the extent to which data obtained from an instrument predicts future events or performance. For instance in Nigeria, performance in JAMB UTME results could be used to predict the performance of students in their various disciplines at the undergraduate level. It requires the researcher to identify a relevant criterion or standard that is reliable and valid to provide an independent check of the new instrument. The purpose of predictive validity is to find out how well the test will work when used to predict success or failure (Isangedighi et al., 2004). It is useful mostly for aptitude testing. It is usually obtained by calculating the correlation coefficient between distributions of scores obtained at an earlier time against a distribution of scores in some later date called the criterion (Vos et al., 2011).

#### **3.8.1.5 Construct Validity**

This is the degree to which a research instrument measures a theoretical concept or construct that is being studied (Sanni, 2011; Vos et al., 2011). Constructs are human traits and they pertain to attitude, intelligence, anxiety, motivation, honesty, creativity and self-concept, prejudice, conformity, and cohesion to mention but a few. It is the extent to which a test actually describes an individual in terms of a particular human attribute. Construct validity is complex and difficult to determine (Babbie, 2007). For example, a test expert may be interested in classifying students into honest and dishonest groups. If the expert succeeds in describing the subjects with respect to the construct honesty, with the aid of an

instrument, it therefore implies that the construct honesty really exists. The use of correlation with other instruments such as factor analysis and internal consistency methods are means of obtaining evidence of construct validity.

So far the researcher has discussed face, content, criterion (predictive) and construct validity that involves a systematic process in which each builds on the other because each one requires more detailed information than the previous ones. Following this, the meaning of reliability, and methods of estimating the reliability of an instrument will be explained. In a quantitative research such as this, both the validity and reliability of the test instrument must be ensured to give credence to the quality of the research work, hence the need to explain the two concepts clearly.

### **3.8.2 Reliability**

Reliability refers to the degree of consistency between two sets of data or observations obtained with the same instrument or equivalent forms of the instrument (Sanni, 2011; Akinsola & Ogunleye, 2004; Isangedighi et al., 2004). Reliability happens when an instrument measures the same thing repeatedly and produces the same outcome (Wellington, 2015; Sanni, 2011; Vos et al., 2011).

Reliability implies the ability of an instrument to yield consistent results each time it is applied and not subject to fluctuations except where there are variations in the variable being measured (Babbie, 2007). Reliability refers to the regularity, constancy and repeatability of results (Adefioye, 2015), i.e. the result of a researcher is considered reliable if the same results are arrived at in similar situations but under different circumstances.

Hence, reliability is the degree of consistency exhibited by an instrument when used repeatedly and yielding the same result each time (Babbie, 2012).

Furthermore, it is an expression of precision and accuracy of results obtained from measuring an instrument. When an instrument measures what it supposed to measure under the same condition and produces the same result, such instrument is deemed reliable. According to Isangedighi et al. (2004), an

instrument is reliable when it is error free in measurement. In order to increase the reliability of instruments, the following procedures are suggested by Vos et al. (2011):

- i) The number of items or observations must be increased;
- ii) Remove ambiguous items;
- iii) Increase the level of instruments or measurement;
- iv) Use standard conditions for the test;
- v) Maintain a moderate difficulty level for the instrument;
- vi) Reduce external influence; vii) Instructions must be standard;
- vii) Consistent scoring techniques must be followed;
- viii) Pilot test the instrument (Vos et al., 2011, p.177).

### **3.8.2.1 Test - Retest Reliability**

This method requires that an instrument be administered twice to the same groups at different times within some time interval. The time interval could be as short as one day and as long as two weeks depending on the researcher (Cohen et al., 2007). Test-retest reliability is estimated when the same test is administered to the same sample on two different occasions (Trochim, 2006). The assumption of this approach is that there is no substantial change in the construct being measured between the two occasions. If the interval given for test retest is short, respondents may be able to recollect responses given in the first test and if too long extraneous variables are set it will affect the reliability of the instrument. It should be noted that the time lapse between the time the first and the second test is conducted on the same observation will show the level of correlation. The

correlation of scores in both tests administered will give a measure of how reliable the instrument is.

### **3.8.2.2 Equivalence form or Parallel form Reliability**

This is also known as the alternate or parallel form. In using this form of reliability, two equivalent instruments are administered to the same subjects at almost the same time but with one following the other (Cohen et al., 2007). The two instruments are not the same but they measure the same thing, i.e. they are based on the same content.

For instance, the equivalence or parallel form of reliability is the fulcrum for pretest and posttest in an experiment, being alternate forms of instrument to measure the same issues. This type of reliability might also be demonstrated if the equivalent forms of a test or other instrument yield constant results if applied simultaneously to matched samples (e.g. a control and experimental group or two random stratified samples in a survey). Here reliability can be measured through a t-test, through the demonstration of a high correlation coefficient, and through the demonstration of similar means and standard deviations between two groups.

### **3.8.2.3 Split-Half Reliability**

In the split-half methods, results are divided into halves (sub sets) and juxtaposed to see if the results are the same either on the basis that one subset contains all even number items and other subset odd number items (Sanni, 2011; Cohen et al., 2007; Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2007; Akinsola & Ogunleye, 2004).

The first half of the items can be taken as one subset and the second half another subset depending on the researcher. For instance, if an instrument contains 40 items, items 1-20 are taken as the first subset, while items 21-40 will be the second equivalent subset. Each of the halved subset is scored separately. The reason for this is to produce two equal halves from one instrument, which are



separately scored and then the results correlated to obtain an index of its reliability.

### 3.8.2.4 Inter-item Consistency

In this method the relationship between each item and the whole instrument is determined. This is done in order to determine the relationship between the items. Instruments used to determine this include the Kuder-Richardson formula (KR 20-21), Cronbach coefficient alpha, Spearman rho, etc.

(a) **Kuder-Richardson method:** This method makes use of psychometric data obtained from one test administration (Isangedighi et al., 2004). It is assumed that items in the instrument are homogeneous and so possess inter-item consistency. In order to apply KR20, the items must be scored dichotomously (right or wrong) followed by the preparation of person-by-item matrix. This matrix indicates how each member of the sample answered each item in the test either rightly or wrongly.

(b) **Cronbach coefficient alpha method:** The Cronbach coefficient alpha is a generalized form of K- R20 except that  $\sum s_i^2$  replaces the value  $\sum pq$ . The basic assumption is that items requiring responses such as "strongly agree", "agree", "disagree" and "strongly disagree" do not correspond with the usual right or wrong format and this may make coding difficult. For example, for all positively worded items, the "strongly agree" response may attract 4 points, 3 points for "agree", while 2 and 1 respectively will be scores for "disagree and "strongly disagree".

The scoring order is reversed for all negatively worded items (Cohen et al., 2007). Instruments with such negatively worded items will use Cronbach's alpha as a measure of reliability. Conclusively, an instrument may be reliable but not valid for the purpose intended since an instrument may be consistent, even if it measures the wrong thing, but a valid instrument is reliable.

Therefore, validity of data collection instruments is more crucial than reliability. This study will therefore ensure reliability of the data collection instruments through the employment of test-retest and Cronbach's alpha.

### **3.9 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE**

The researcher requested permission from the Teaching Service Commission and from the principals of the schools used for this study with the letter of introduction from the University Research and Ethics Committee (UREC) of the University of Fort Hare, South Africa as a research student. Teachers and students whose school met the conditions for participation in the study were given orientation before the commencement of the field work.

In each school, two teachers were selected and given orientation about the purpose of the research; the same applied to the students (respondents) but in their case they were assured of the confidentiality of the study and that they were free to opt out of the study anytime they felt like doing so during the course of the field work. The field work lasted exactly for three weeks. In the first week, between Monday and Thursday, the researcher and two research assistants visited two schools per day as a result of the distance of one school to the other. Friday was excluded because schools close early for the students to observe their religious rites. In one week, all the eight schools used for the study were covered for orientation.

In the second week of the fieldwork, the researcher administered the two instruments. Two schools situated in the same zone were covered per day and teachers earlier trained were available to help arrange the students, distribute and collect back the instruments for ease of administration.

By the third week, the researcher and his trained assistants collected, arranged and coded the questionnaire in preparation for statistical data analysis. The economics achievement test (EAT) was marked with the aid of the marking guide earlier prepared and students were graded according to scores obtained.

### **3.10 DATA ANALYSIS**

The current research adopted a quantitative research approach of the descriptive survey type. Quantitative data was obtained from questionnaires and achievement test. The results are presented using descriptive statistics like frequency count, percentages, charts and tables for clarity. Inferences are also made from results obtained from the application of econometric tools. There are various statistical tools that can be used to analyze quantitative data, such as Excel and the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). The tools referred to were employed in the current study to present descriptive statistics on effects of transborder trading activities on senior secondary school students' academic performance in economics. Inferential statistics, in the form of step-wise regression analysis, ANOVA and t-test was calculated in some tables to detect associations or relationships in data and make inferences from the participation of students in transborder trading activities and its effect on the students' academic performance in economics.

The data are displayed through appropriate tabular, graphical and descriptive presentation techniques. Frequency distribution and cross tabulation of key dependent and independent variables are presented in various tables and discussion of their implications facilitates descriptive analysis of the data. This method of presentation enables an easy understanding and clearer view of findings in a short available time. The results are arranged under five broad sections: socio-economic characteristics of respondents; sex, age, class, parents' level of education, family background, parents' occupation, parents' level of income, items bought/sold at the border and the achievement test; transborder trading activities and students' academic performance; human trafficking and students' academic performance, smuggling and students' academic performance, and school location and students' academic performance.

In the current study, means and standard deviations were calculated for each item to establish which are more positive or negative. The number of respondents to

each questionnaire item in the tables varies due to some non-responses to certain items.

### **3.11 ETHICAL ISSUES**

In order to protect the physical and mental integrity of the participants, and to accord respect for their moral and cultural values, a number of ethical considerations were strictly adhered to.

#### **3.11.1 Ethical Considerations**

Fouka and Mantzourou (2011) describe ethics as a matter of moral sensitivity to the rights of others. In conducting research in the social sciences or education, the welfare of all participants must be accorded top priority. The physical and mental integrity of the participants must be duly protected, respecting their moral and cultural values as well as their religious and philosophical convictions. Of utmost importance is the issue of confidentiality and its potential consequences to the study. Ethical considerations in this study will be premised on permission, acquisition of informed consent, confidentiality, anonymity, and avoiding harm to participants. Vos et al. (2011) posit that research must “be based on mutual trust, acceptance, cooperation, promises and well-accepted conventions and expectations” among all the people who are involved in a research study.

Further, the fundamental human rights and welfare of participants in a study must be protected (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014, p. 23).

The current researcher regards ethics as an important aspect of research, hence it is imperative to assess the level of risks and benefits involved for participants, and in so doing respect the decision of the subject to continue or discontinue his or her participation in the study. In the light of the foregoing, the following ethical considerations were taken care of.

### **3.11.2 Informed Consent**

According to Grinnell and Unrau (2008, p.37), obtaining informed consent implies the following:

- All possible information on the goal of the investigation be known to participants;
- The anticipated length (days, weeks or months) of the participants' involvement;
- The procedures that will be followed during the study;
- The possible merits and demerits and likely dangers the respondents might be exposed to; and
- Credibility of the researcher be rendered to potential subjects or their legal representatives.

In addition, researchers must ensure complete accuracy of information so that participants are fully aware of the nitty-gritty of the study which will allow the participants to make a voluntary decision whether to participate (Vos et al., 2011, p.117). White (2002, p.86) emphasizes that the key element of informed consent is not necessarily the comprehensiveness of the information provided to participants but rather that its relevance to the participants' decision is of vital importance.

Accordingly, the researcher informed the participants formally about the nature of the study, what the study was intended to do, the degree requirements the study was intended to satisfy, the researcher's promoter, and that no participant would be coerced into participating, that is participants had to fill in questionnaires out of their own volition.

Letters requesting permission to administer the researcher's instrument were therefore written to schools wherein the researcher solicited for respondents to be willing participants. The researcher sought the consent of the participants before

the commencement of the study to avoid frustration of both parties in the following processes.

### **3.11.3 Confidentiality**

According to Polit and Beck (2006), confidentiality can be described as shielding participants in a study to avoid their individual identities being linked to information provided and are never publicly divulged. This definition is equally shared by Macmillan and Schumacher (2014, p.134) who state that confidentiality can be guaranteed by making certain that any data collected cannot be linked to individual participants by name.

They offered the following suggestions regarding the maintenance of confidentiality:

- Data collected must be anonymous;
- The researcher can use an interim system of names that are linked to data and destroy those names later on;
- Participants can adopt pseudo names during the period of the study;
- The researcher can use a third party to link names to data and can receive results without names; and
- The researcher can also report group instead of individual results (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014, p.134).

In the current study, care was taken not to attach names to returned questionnaires. The principal investigator (researcher) and the supervisor are the only ones who have access to the research data including returned questionnaires. The questionnaires were to be destroyed after data obtained therein would have been used and the research project concluded. The very act of using questionnaires points to the fact that data would be collected anonymously, while results would be aggregated per group as against individual participant responses (compare with what McMillan and Schumacher, (2014, p.134) point out with regard to this as cited above). This would further keep the

data collected confidential. The principle of anonymity, which is close to confidentiality, is discussed thereafter.

#### **3.11.4 Anonymity**

This is closely related to the feature of confidentiality but empathizes on privacy. Burns and Grove (2005) assert that all participants have the right to privacy, anonymity and confidentiality.

Every individual has the right to privacy and it is the sole prerogative of such a person to decide when, where, to whom and to what extent his or her beliefs, attitudes and behaviours will be revealed (De Vos et al., 2011). The information that each participant shared during the study remained intact. To ensure this consideration, no actual names were used in both data collection and data analysis processes all in an attempt to maintain the principle of anonymity; instead fictitious names and codes were employed. No names were indicated on the questionnaires to maintain the principle of anonymity.

#### **3.11.5 Avoiding harms to participants**

Ethical rules guiding research is that participants (respondents) suffer no harm be it physical and/or emotional (Babbie, 2007). The obligation of the researcher is to ensure that participants are protected within all possible reasonable limits against any form of physical or emotional discomfort which may be as a result of involvement in the study. According to Vos et al. (2011, p.115), participants must be fully briefed before the commencement of the study about the impact of the study; this will enable the respondent to disengage from the study anytime he/she wishes.

AERA (2011) observes that the data collection method of face-to-face interviews may result in potential consequences for the participants. For some research participants, a research interview may provide the only opportunity to discuss the identified topic.

Although it may not be anticipated, the interview may provoke strong emotional feelings, but for this particular study the researcher used a close-ended

questionnaire to elicit information from the respondents. In light of this observation, participation in this study was voluntary and the participants were given the freedom to withdraw at any time of their choosing without suffering any victimization or harm.

White (2002, p.85) posits that participants in a study must be protected from physical and mental discomfort, harm and danger, and that if there is a possibility for any of the foregoing to occur, the researcher must inform participants of any impending risk. In educational research the most likely harm may be more emotional than physical (White, 2002). McMillan and Schumacher (2014) add that protection from harm implies not “revealing information that may result in embarrassment or danger to home life, school performance, friendships, and the like, as well as direct negative consequences” (p. 131).

In the current study the paper embodying the questionnaire was a standard A4 size type of paper that educators often used at school without any harmful chemicals. Participants were kindly asked to use their own pens whose ink would be guaranteed not to cause any harm to them. No outrageous, potentially dangerous equipment that could compromise the welfare of participants was involved or used in the execution of the current study.

### **3.11.6 Voluntary Participation**

No one should be forced to participate in a field study, it should be voluntary (Babbie, 2007). The researcher should ensure that having explained the details about the study to the participants, the participants have the freedom not to partake in the study. They should not be forced or coerced into the study. But in some cases where participants are fully briefed, they might still think that they are obliged to participate (Babbie, 2007). For instance, when this researcher asked his students to complete the questionnaire as part of his research project and the students already aware of the principle of voluntary participation, they still believed that if they did participate in the project it may affect them in one way or the other, thus substantiating the claims of Vos et al. (2011).



### **3.11.7 Professionalism**

Research deals with human beings, hence they deserve to be treated with respect and professionalism. According to White (2002, p.88), the culture of the community used for the study is not subject to value judgments under any circumstances. One way of maintaining professionalism is to allow the participants sufficient time to respond to the questionnaires, since they have consented to participate in the study. For those participants who will need a push before they respond, friendly reminders should be sent to them through the principal of the school concerned. For the purpose of credibility of this study, the aspect of plagiarism demands attention.

### **3.11.8 Plagiarism**

Plagiarism is a serious offence and it is against the standard procedure of ethics in research. Avoidance of plagiarism ensures the researcher's academic and professional integrity. McMillan and Schumacher (2014, p.136), citing the American Psychological Association (APA) (2012), posit that avoiding plagiarism is to pursue dual goals of ethical principles, namely:

- to ensure that scientific and scholarly (academic) knowledge is accurate; and
- to protect the rights pertaining to intellectual property.

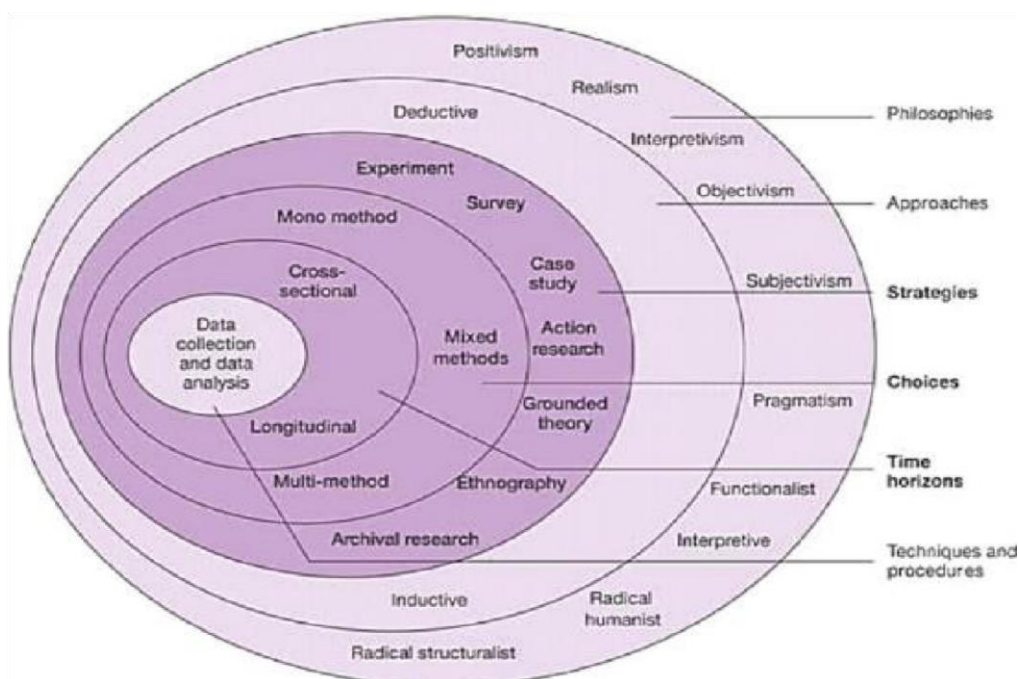
McMillan and Schumacher (2014) further state that plagiarism can be avoided by always giving credit to the contributions of other scholars and people, including organizations that were used in a study. White (2002, p.28) illustrates the point regarding plagiarism succinctly by saying: "There's a branch of law known as intellectual property. This field is based on the idea that original work – speeches, publications, and artistic creations – is not free for the taking. Anyone who borrows from these works is obligated to acknowledge the work's creator. This is the purpose behind copyrights, patents and trademarks" (p. 28).

This research acknowledges all sources from which the researcher garnered all the information that seemed both useful and relevant to the current research, including his master's dissertation that originated from him.

### 3.11.9 Permission

The researcher sought clearance from the Faculty of Research Ethics Committee and Institutional Research Ethics Committee of the University of Fort Hare which was granted. Additionally, permission was sought from and granted by the Ogun State Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, the Zonal Education Officer and principals of selected secondary schools included in the sample to carry out the study in their schools.

### 3.12. CHAPTER SUMMARY



**Figure 3.1: Research onion (Saunders et al., 2012)**

In concluding this chapter, the above research onion gives a brief overview of Chapter Three with an explanation that follows.

#### **Philosophy layer**

The first layer of the onion looks at the underpinning philosophy this study rests on. The philosophy is the positivism paradigm credited to Auguste Comte (1798-1857) which is based on the scientific principle of testing knowledge through theories based on research hypotheses generated (Kura, 2012). This paradigm is concerned with observing and predicting outcomes (Flick, 2015), is highly

structured and usually measurable without the researcher's value influencing the research. It is objective and makes use of large samples of quantitative data (Wellington, 2015) that are subjected to statistical testing for the purpose of generalization and testability of the result (Wyk, 2010). It is based on deductive reasoning (Vos, 2011) and based on pure scientific laws (Kura, 2012).

### **Approach (es) layer**

Peeling off the philosophical layer of the onion reveals the next layer of the onion: approach (es), which include the deductive and inductive approach. For this study, the deductive approach (Vos, 2011) was employed to deduce the relationship that exists between transborder trading activities and students' academic performance in economics for students whose school is located along the border towns of Ogun State, and this is done through the four research hypotheses that were raised in Chapter 1 of this study.

### **Strategy (ies) layer**

The third layer of the onion is the strategy layer. The strategy adopted for the purpose of this study is the survey (descriptive) that is non-experimental because there is neither the experimental nor the control group in the study. Survey research can be described as any form of descriptive, quantitative research that involves acquiring information from one or more groups of people by asking questions and tabulating their answers, with the aim of gathering data from a large population by surveying a sample of that population (Leedy&Ormrod, 2010).

### **Choice of methodology layer**

The next layer of onion is the choice of methodology most suitable for this study in which the researcher chose the quantitative method. The quantitative method is a reflection of the philosophical basis of this study: positivism (Gall et al., 1996). Two instruments were used for data collection for the purpose of this study: the questionnaire comprising of five sections in line with the research hypotheses, and the EAT comprising of 40 multiple choice objective questions which are both analyzed statistically.

### **Time horizon layer**

The final layer of the research onion is the time horizon layer that specifies the period of the study. For the purpose of this study, cross-sectional study is adopted instead of longitudinal study. The cross-sectional study involves addressing problems and proffering solutions to such problems in no distance time, hence the adoption of a descriptive survey design by the researcher to look into the effects of transborder trading activities on students' academic performance in economics in Ogun State.

### **Techniques and procedure layer**

This is the core of the research onion that involves data collection and data analysis. The data for this study were collected using two self-developed instruments: SQTBT which has five sections vis-à-vis bio-data of respondents (section A); transborder trading activities and students' academic performance (section B); smuggling and students' academic performance (section C), and human trafficking and students' academic performance (section D). The last section (E) is on gender and the students' academic performance. The instrument used is the 4 point modified Likert scale of 'strongly agree' SA, 'agree' A, 'disagree' D, and 'strongly disagree' SD. The reliability of this questionnaire was measured using Cronbach's alpha with a coefficient value of 0.84.

The second instrument used in this research work is the EAT comprising of 40 multiple choice objective questions covering the syllabus of SSS II students in Ogun State, Nigeria. Each question has four options (A-D) from which the students picked one correct answer. The instrument was validated by experts in the field of economics education and research methodology. The achievement test was pilot-tested before final administration of the instrument on the subjects randomly selected for the study. Data collected were collated, coded and analyzed with the aid of SPSS using Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) for research hypotheses 1-3, while the T-test was used to analyze hypotheses to test for differences between male and female students' academic performance in economics.

The purpose of this chapter was to deal with the following aspects, namely: research paradigm and approach; population, sample and sampling techniques; ethical considerations, and data collection instruments: structured questionnaires and achievement tests. In a nutshell, Chapter Three and its contents provided the research grounding of this study. This leads to Chapter Four wherein results of the study will be presented question by question, since this is the chapter that follows the fieldwork relating to the data collection process of the study.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION**

#### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

The purpose of this study was to examine the influence of transborder trading activities on senior secondary school students' academic performance in economics. In the previous chapter, a description of the research paradigm, approach and design that shaped the study was presented, and a justification for the methodological decisions made was discussed. The results are presented using descriptive statistics like frequency count, percentages, charts and tables for clarity. Inferences are also made from results obtained from the application of econometric tools. All other methodological procedures followed in gathering and analysis of data was discussed. Frequency distribution and cross tabulation of key dependent and independent variables are presented in various tables and discussion of their implications facilitates descriptive analysis of the data. In this chapter, guided by the objectives of the study and following procedures outlined in the previous chapter, data gathered using questionnaires and achievement test are presented, analyzed, interpreted and discussed.

The results are arranged under five broad sections: socio-economic characteristics of respondents; sex, age, class, parents' level of education, family background, parents' occupation, parents' level of income, items bought/sold at the border and the achievement test; transborder trading activities and students' academic performance; human trafficking and students' academic performance, smuggling and students' academic performance, and school location and students' academic performance.

A total of 320 questionnaires were administered to students, and a total of 310 were returned constituting a return rate of 96.9% which is very high in comparison to 50% which is considered acceptable (Fan & Yin, 2010).

## 4.2 Biographic characteristics of respondents

In order to obtain a deep understanding of responses and comments of respondents, it is important to be aware of their biographical characteristics of the respondents parents' which include their gender, age, present class, local government area, family background, parents' income level, parents' level of education and parents occupation. The biographic characteristics provided the context in which information was gathered. Table 4.2.1 – Table 4.2.9 shows the biographic data.

**Table 4.1: Distribution of students according to Male – Female categories**

X= 1.5469  
SD= .49860

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	140	45.2	45.3	45.3
	Female	169	54.5	54.7	100.0
	Total	309	99.7	100.0	
Missing	System	1	3		
Total		310	100.0		

From Table 4.1 the total number of respondents used in this study was 310, but only 309 students out of which 140 were males representing 45.2% and 169 female students representing 55.4% of the population indicated their sex, while only 1 student representing 3% failed to indicate his/her sex. This table revealed that there were more female students than male students involved in the study.

**Table 4.2: Distribution of students according to age group**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	12-15	34	11.0	11.0	11.0
	16-19	241	77.7	77.7	88.7
	20-23	35	11.3	11.3	100.0
	Total	310	100.0	100.0	

X= 2.0032  
SD= .47254

For the purpose of this study, the students were categorized into three different age groups. From 12-15years, 34 students (male and female) representing 11.0%, ages 16-19 years, 241 students (male and female) representing 77.7 %, while students between the ages of 20-23 years summed up to 35 (male and female) representing 11.3%. It can therefore be deduced that majority of students used in this study falls within the age bracket of 16-19 years.

**Table 4.3: Distribution of students according to class**

X= 1.6355  
SD= .48207

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	ss2	113	36.5	36.5	36.5
	ss3	197	63.5	63.5	100.0
	Total	310	100.0	100.0	

Students in SSS 2 and 3 participated in the study with 113 SSS 2 students (36.5%) and 197 SSS 3 students (63.5%). In both classes, male and female students were involved in the study.



**Table 4.4: Distribution of students according to location of school**

X= 1.1284  
SD= .33508

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Border area	258	83.2	87.2	87.2
	Non border area	38	12.3	12.8	100.0
	Total	296	95.5	100.0	
Missing	System	14	4.5		
Total		310	100.0		

Table 4.4 reflects that 258 respondents representing 83.2% of the total number of respondents used in the study come from schools in the border areas, while 38 respondents representing 12.3% are from schools not far from the border. A total of 14 students (4.5%) did not indicate the location of their school.

**Table 4.5: Distribution of students according to LGA**

X=2.1745, SD=1.144125

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yewa North	175	56.5	58.7	58.7
	Yewa South	3	1.0	1.0	59.7
	Ado-Odo/Ota	18	5.8	6.0	65.8
	Ipokia	97	31.3	32.6	98.3
	Imeko-Afon	5	1.6	1.7	100.0
	Total		298	96.1	100.0
Missing	System	12	3.9		
Total		310	100.0		

Majority of students (56.5%) in the study were from Yewa North, 97 (31.3%) from Ipokia, 18 (5.8%) from Ado-Odo/Ota, 5 (1.6%) from Imeko-Afon, 3 (1.0%) from Yewa South, while 12 (3.9%) of the respondents failed to indicate the LGA where their school is located.

**Table 4.6: Distribution of Students according to family background**

X=1.3968, SD= .49002

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Monogamous	187	60.3	60.3	60.3
	Polygamous	123	39.7	39.7	100.0
	Total	310	100.0	100.0	

From Table 4.6, 187 students representing 60.3% are from a monogamous family, while 123 students representing 39.7% are from a polygamous family – an indication that most students involved in the study comes from a monogamous background.

**Table 4.7: Distribution of students according to parents' income level**

X= 1.9000  
SD= .82811

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Low	123	39.7	39.7	39.7
	Medium	95	30.6	30.6	70.3
	High	92	29.7	29.7	100.0
	Total	310	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.7 captures the respondents' parents' income level and it was discovered that 123 students (39.7%) come from low income earning parents, 95 students (30.6%) come from the middle income earning class, while 92 (26.7%) belong to the high income group. About 9 students (3.0%) did not indicate their parents' level of income in the questionnaire.

**Table 4.8: Distribution of students according to Parents' Level of education**

X= 2.5710

SD= 1.11468

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No education	60	19.4	19.4	19.4
	Primary school	87	28.1	28.1	47.4
	Secondary/vocational school	108	34.8	34.8	82.3
	Diploma/NCE	37	11.9	11.9	94.2
	Bachelor's Degree	17	5.5	5.5	99.7
	Others	1	.3	.3	100.0
	Total	310	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.8 reveals that the educational level of the respondents' parents was grouped into six strata: The lowest strata, no education at all, has 60 (19.4%), primary education level 87 respondents (28.1%), secondary/vocational education 108 respondents (34.8%), while 37 (11.9%) are diploma certificate holders, and 17 (5.5%) are graduates with only 1 (0.3%) respondent having other levels of education. This distribution clearly indicates that most of the students' parents have a low level of education, hence the tacit approval of the parents for the students to be involved in transborder trading activities.

**Table 4.9: Distribution of students according to Parents' Occupation**

X= 3.3003 SD= 2.11246

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	.00	21	6.8	6.9	6.9
	Farmer	80	25.8	26.4	33.3
	Civil servant	22	7.1	7.3	40.6
	Company worker	31	10.0	10.2	50.8
	Self-employed	28	9.0	9.2	60.1
	Artisans	56	18.1	18.5	78.5
	Trader	64	20.6	21.1	99.7
	Others	1	.3	.3	100.0
	Total	303	97.7	100.0	
Missing	System	7	2.3		
Total		310	100.0		

In Table 4.9, the occupation of respondents' parents was grouped into six categories. The data reveals that of the 310 respondents involved in the study, 108 representing 34.9% of the respondents' parents are farmers; 22 are civil servants representing 7.1%, while 31 (10%) identified their parents' occupation as company workers. Furthermore, 28 respondents representing 9.0% indicated that their parents were self-employed, and 56 (18.1%) as artisans. Other categories include traders accounting for 64 respondents representing (20.6%) and others just 1 respondent representing 0.3%.

Therefore, most parents of the students used in this study are farmers and this affects their ability to spend much money on their wards – a factor that increased the human trafficking aspect of transborder trading activities.

**Table 4.10: Sold or bought small arms at the border before**

$X=1.9645$   
 $SD= .18530$

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	11	3.5	3.5	3.5
	No	299	96.5	96.5	100.0
	Total	310	100.0	100.0	

In Table 4.10, 11 students (3.5%) agreed to have traded in small weapons while 299 students (96.5%) responded negatively.

**Table 4.11: Sold or bought light weapons at the border before**

$X= 1.9710$   
 $SD= .16817$

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	9	2.9	2.9	2.9
	No	301	97.1	97.1	100.0
	Total	310	100.0	100.0	

According to Table 4.11, 9 students (2.9%) have engaged in the business of trading in light weapons but the remaining 301 students (97.1%) have never engaged in trading in light weapons.

**Table 4.12: Sold or bought narcotics at the border before**

X= 1.9645

SD= .18530

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	11	3.5	3.5	3.5
	No	299	96.5	96.5	100.0
	Total	310	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.12 shows that 11 students forming 3.5% of the population used in the study have engaged in buying and/or selling of drugs before, while a large chunk of the students 299 (96.5%) have never engaged in drugs.

**Table 4.13: Sold or bought human beings at the border before**

X= 1.9516

SD= .21493

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	15	4.8	4.8	4.8
	No	295	95.2	95.2	100.0
	Total	310	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.13 reveals that only 15 students (4.8%) have engaged in the exchange of human beings at the border, while 295 students (95.2%) who are in the majority are not involved in human trafficking.

**Table 4.14: Sold or bought frozen foods at the border before**

X= 1.4419

SD= .49742

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	173	55.8	55.8	55.8
	No	137	44.2	44.2	100.0
	Total	310	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.14 shows that 173 (55.8%) of the students involved in the study buy/ sell frozen foods, while 137 students (44.2%) do not buy frozen foods from the border.

**Table 4.15: Sold or bought rice at the border before**

X= 1.1677  
SD= .37424

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	258	83.2	83.2	83.2
	No	52	16.8	16.8	100.0
	Total	310	100.0	100.0	

Further included on the list of items traded at the border is rice which is a staple food. Table 4.15 indicates that 258 students representing 83.2% agreed to buying/selling this commodity while 52 students representing 16.8% disagreed.

**Table 4.16: Sold or bought oil palm products at the border before**

X= 1.4419  
SD= .49742

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	173	55.8	55.8	55.8
	No	137	44.2	44.2	100.0
	Total	310	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.16 reveals the active involvement of the respondents in trading in groundnut oil at the border. A total of 173 students (55.8%) and 137 students (44.2%) agreed and disagreed respectively on the buying/selling of this commodity at the border.

**Table 4.17: Sold or bought fairly used textiles at the border before**

X= 1.6290

SD=. 48384

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	115	37.1	37.1	37.1
	No	195	62.9	62.9	100.0
	Total	310	100.0	100.0	

The data collected in Table 4.17 revealed that 115 students (37.1%) buy or sell used clothes at the border, while the remaining 195 students representing 62.9% do not purchase or sell the item under discussion.

**Table 4.18: Sold or bought canned foods at the border before**

X= 1.7194

SD= .45004

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	87	28.1	28.1	28.1
	No	223	71.9	71.9	100.0
	Total	310	100.0	100.0	

In Table 4.18, 87 students representing 28.1% of the respondents are involved in the exchange of canned foods at the border, but 223 students constituting 71.9% claimed the contrary.

**Table 4.19: Sold or bought used tyres at the border before**

X=1.8419

SD= .36539

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	49	15.8	15.8	15.8
	No	261	84.2	84.2	100.0
	Total	310	100.0	100.0	



Table 4.19 shows that 49 students (15.8%) either buy or sell used tyres while 261 students (84.2%) are not involved in the sale or purchase of used tyres.

In conclusion, students whose schools are close to border towns engage in buying/ selling different goods at the border; however, majority of these students buy/sell frozen foods, rice, groundnut oil and used clothes.

## Section B

### 4.3 Testing the Hypotheses

#### 4.3.1 Hypothesis One:

There is no significant influence of transborder trading activities (Student's involved in staple foods smuggling) on students' academic performance in economics.

**Table 4.20: Summary of T-test showing the influence of transborder trading activities on students' academic performance in economics**

Transborder Trading Activities	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	T	df	Sig.	Remark
Involved	258	13.75	4.045	-.061	307	.952	Not Sig.
Not Involved	51	13.78	3.113				

Table 4.20 shows the effect of student involvement in staple foods smuggling on their academic performance ( $t=.952$ ,  $df =307$ ,  $P<0.05$ ). This result implies that smuggling and non-smuggling students have common academic achievement in economics, therefore  $H_{01}$  is rejected.

#### 4.3.2 Hypothesis Two

There is no significant influence of school location (border area and non-border area) on students' academic performance in economics.

**Table 4.21: Summary of T-test showing the influence of school location on Students' academic performance in economics**

School Location	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	T	df	Sig.	Remark
Border Area	258	13.66	3.935	-1.191	294	.234	Not Sig.
Non-Border Area	38	14.47	3.937				

Table 4.21 shows that there is no significant influence of school location on students' academic performance in economics ( $t = -1.191$ ,  $df = 294$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ). This result implies that proximity to border or long distance of secondary schools to border areas have no influence on students' academic achievement in economics, hence  $H_{02}$  is rejected.

#### 4.3.3 Hypothesis Three:

There is no significant influence of transborder trading activities

(Small arms smuggling) on students' academic performance in economics.

**Table 4.22: Summary of T-test showing the influence of small arms smuggling on Students' academic performance in economics**

Transborder Trading Activities (Sold or bought at the border before)	N	Mean	Std.	T	df	Sig.	Remark
Involved	11	17.27	3.50	3.807	307	.002	Significant
Not Involved	298	13.62	3.86				

Table 4.22 shows that there is a significant influence of arms smuggling on students' academic performance in economics ( $t = 3.807$ ,  $df = 307$ ,  $P > 0.05$ ). This result implies that arms smuggling affects the academic performance of students in border schools, therefore  $H_{03}$  is not rejected.

#### 4.3.4 Hypothesis Four:

There is no significant influence of transborder trading activities (light weapons trade) on students' academic performance in economics.

**Table 4.23: Summary of T-test showing the influence of trading in light weapons on students' academic performance in economics**

Transborder Trading Activities (Trading Light Weapons)	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	T	df	Sig.	Remark
Involved	9	15.44	3.75	1.321	307	.188	Not Significant
Not Involved	300	13.70	3.90				

Table 4.23 shows that there is no significant influence of trading in light weapons on students' academic performance in economics ( $t= 1.321$ ,  $df =307$ ,  $P>0.05$ ). This result implies that trading in light weapons affects the academic performance of students in border schools, therefore  $H_{04}$  is rejected.

#### 4.3.5 Hypothesis Five:

There is no significant influence of transborder trading activities (narcotics trading) on students' academic performance in economics.

**Table 4.24: Summary of T-test showing the influence of trading in narcotics on Students' academic performance in economics**

Transborder Trading Activities (Trading in Narcotics)	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	df	Sig.	Remark
Involved	11	14.27	3.75	.448	307	.654	Not Significant
Not Involved	298	13.73	3.90				

Table 4.24 shows that there is no significant influence of trading in narcotics on students' academic performance in economics ( $t= .448$ ,  $df =307$ ,  $P>0.05$ ). This result implies those students who traded in narcotics at border schools and those who do not have the same academic performance, therefore  $H_{05}$  is rejected.

#### 4.3.6 Hypothesis Six:

There is no significant influence of transborder trading activities (human trafficking) on students' academic performance in economics.

**Table 4.25: Summary of T-test showing the influence of human trafficking on Students' academic performance in economics**

Transborder Trading Activities (Human Trafficking)	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	df	Sig.	Remark
Involved	15	14.07	4.35	.318	307	.751	Not Sig.
Not Involved	294	13.74	3.89				

Table 4.25 shows that there is no significant influence of human trafficking on students' academic performance in economics ( $t = .318$ ,  $df = 751$ ,  $P > 0.05$ ). This result implies that students involved in moving in and out of the border have the same academic achievement with students not involved, hence  $H_{06}$  is rejected.

#### 4.3.7 Hypothesis Seven:

There is no significant influence of transborder trading activities

(Trading in dairy products) on students' academic performance in economics

**Table 4.26: Summary of T-test showing the influence of trading in dairy products on students' academic performance in economics**

Transborder Trading Activities (Trading in Narcotics)	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	T	df	Sig.	Remark
Involved	173	14.11	4.00	1.814	307	.071	Not Significant
Not Involved	136	13.30	3.74				

Table 4.26 shows that there is no significant influence of trading in dairy products on students' academic performance in economics ( $t = 1.814$ ,  $df = 307$ ,  $P > 0.05$ ). This result implies that students who traded in frozen foods at border schools and those who do not have the same academic performance, hence  $H_{07}$  is rejected.

#### 4.3.8 Hypothesis Eight:

There is no significant influence of transborder trading activities

(Trading in palm oil products) on students' academic performance in economics

**Table 4.27: Summary of T-test showing the influence of trading in palm oil products in narcotics on students' academic performance in Economics**

Transborder Trading Activities	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	df	Sig.
<b>Remark (Trading in Oil Palm Products)</b>						
Involved	173	14.34	3.75	2.991	307	.003
Not Involved	136	13.01	3.97			

Table 4.27 shows that the influence of trading in palm oil products on students' academic performance in economics is significant ( $t=2.991$ ,  $df =307$ ,  $P<0.05$ ). This result implies the movement of oil palm products in and out of the border areas has a negative influence on students' academic performance in economics, therefore  $H_{08}$  is not rejected.

#### 4.3.9 Hypothesis Nine:

There is no significant influence of transborder trading activities

(Trading in fairly used clothes) on students' academic performance in economics

**Table 4.28: Summary of T-test showing the influence of trading in fairly used clothes on students' academic performance in economics**

Transborder Trading Activities	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	T	df	Sig.	Remark
<b>(Trading in Oil Palm Products)</b>							
Involved	115	14.91	3.61	4.123	307	.000	Significant
Not Involved	194	13.07	3.92				

Table 4.28 shows that there is a significant influence of trading in fairly used clothes on students' academic performance in economics ( $t=4.123$ ,  $df =307$ ,  $P<0.05$ ). This result implies the illicit trading of textiles by students in and out of the border areas has a negative influence on students' academic performance in economics, therefore  $H_{09}$  is not rejected.

#### 4.3.10 Hypothesis Ten:

There is no significant influence of transborder trading activities (trading in canned foods) on students' academic performance in economics.

**Table 4.29: Summary of T-test showing the influence of trading in canned foods on students' academic performance in economics**

<b>Transborder Trading Activities (Canned foods)</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Dev.</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Sig.</b>	<b>Remark</b>
Involved	87	14.91	14.68	2.631	307	.009	Significant
Not Involved	222	13.07	13.39				

Table 4.29 shows that there is a significant influence of trading in canned foods on students' academic performance in economics ( $t=2.631$ ,  $df =307$ ,  $P<0.05$ ). This result implies the illicit trading in canned foods in border schools has a negative influence on students' academic performance in economics, hence  $H_{010}$  is not rejected.

#### **4.3.11 Hypothesis Eleven:**

There is no significant influence of transborder trading activities

(Trading in fairly used tyres) on students' academic performance in economics

**Table 4.30: Summary of T-test showing the influence of trading in fairly used tyres on Students' academic performance in economics**

<b>Transborder Trading Activities (Used tyres)</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Dev.</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Sig.</b>	<b>Remark</b>
Involved	49	14.91	16.16	4.833	307	.000	Significant
Not Involved	260	13.07	13.30				

Table 4.30 shows that there is a significant influence of trading in used tyres on students' academic performance in economics ( $t=4.833$ ,  $df =307$ ,  $P<0.05$ ). This result implies trading in used tyres in border schools has a negative influence on students' academic performance in economics, therefore  $H_{011}$  is not rejected.

**Table 4.31: Summary of t-test showing the influence of gender on students' academic performance in economics**

Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	df	Sig.	Remark
Male	140	14.06	4.31	1.244	307	.214	Not Significant
Female	169	13.50	3.52				

Table 31 shows that gender had no significant influence on students' academic performance in economics ( $t=1.244$ ,  $df =307$ ,  $P<0.05$ ). This result implies male and female students in border schools involved in transborder trading activities have common academic achievement.

**Research Question One:** What is the composite effect of transborder trading activities on students' academic performance in economics?

**Table 4.32: Descriptive and correlation coefficients of the transborder trading activities and academic achievement**

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Academic Achievement	1	-.071	.069	-.074	-.174**	-.075	-.026	-.018	-.103	.003	-.168**	-.229**	-.149**	-.268**
Gender	-.071	1	-.034	.050	.036	-.042	-.035	.036	-.097	-.033	-.201**	-.015	-.020	.085
School Location	.069	-.034	1	.056	-.192**	-.050	.075	-.003	.058	.031	.055	.005	-.069	-.105
Family Background	-.074	.050	.056	1	-.130*	-.135*	-.023	-.124*	-.111	-.082	-.164**	-.005	-.007	-.064
Sold or bought small arms at the border before	-.174**	.036	-.192**	-.130*	1	.382**	.246**	.201**	.100	.039	.065	.069	.191**	.204**
Sold or bought light weapons at the border before	-.075	-.042	-.050	-.135*	.382**	1	.278**	.230**	.154**	.078	.077	-.013	.106	-.022
Sold or bought narcotics at the border before	-.026	-.035	.075	-.023	.246**	.278**	1	.038	.136*	.086	.136*	.105	.229**	.012
Sold or bought human beings at the border before	-.018	.036	-.003	-.124*	.201**	.230**	.038	1	.019	.061	-.042	-.080	-.007	.026

Sold or bought frozen foods at the border before	-.103	-.097	.058	-.111	.100	.154**	.136*	.019	1	.313**	.490**	.401**	.469**	.386**
Sold or bought rice at the border before	.003	-.033	.031	-.082	.039	.078	.086	.061	.313**	1	.400**	.238**	.242**	.195**
Sold or bought groundnut oil at the border before	-.168**	-.201**	.055	-.164**	.065	.077	.136*	-.042	.490**	.400**	1	.495**	.411**	.332**
Sold or bought fairly used clothes at the border before	-.229**	-.015	.005	-.005	.069	-.013	.105	-.080	.401**	.495**	.495**	1	.546**	.454**
Sold or bought canned foods at the border before	-.149**	-.020	-.069	-.007	.191**	.106	.229**	-.007	.469**	.242**	.411**	.546**	1	.556**
Sold or bought used tyres at the border before	-.268**	.085	-.105	-.064	.204**	-.022	.012	.026	.386**	.195**	.332**	.454**	.556**	1
Mean	13.754	1.547	1.128	1.397	1.965	1.971	1.965	1.952	1.442	1.168	1.442	1.629	1.719	1.842
Standard Deviation	3.902	.499	.335	.490	.185	.168	.185	.215	.497	.374	.497	.484	.450	.365

\*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). \*\*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2 tailed).

Table 4.32 summarises the zero-order Pearson correlations between the transborder trading activities and students' academic achievement. Table 4.32 further reveals significant correlations between academic achievement and smuggling of small arms at border areas ( $r=.174$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), academic achievement and smuggling of palm oil products ( $r=-.168^{**}$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), academic achievement and smuggling of used clothes across borders ( $r=-.229^{**}$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), academic achievement and smuggling of canned foods ( $r=-.149^{**}$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), as well as ( $r=-.268^{**}$ ,  $p<0.05$ ). The results show that transborder trading activities are negatively correlated to students' academic achievement in economics. This implies that transborder trading activities negatively impair student academic achievement in economics. The more involved students are in transborder trading activities the worse their academic achievement in economics.



**Research Question Two:** Which of the transborder trading activities would predict students' academic performance in economics?

**Table 4.33: Transborder trading activities predicting students' academic Performance in economics**

Model	R	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.268 <sup>a</sup>	.072	.069	3.76478
2	.295 <sup>b</sup>	.087	.081	3.74084
3	.320 <sup>c</sup>	.102	.093	3.71548 1.821

a. Predictors: (Constant), Sold or bought used tyres at the border before

b. Predictors: (Constant), Sold or bought used tyres at the border before, Sold or bought small arms at the border before

c. Predictors: (Constant), Sold or bought used tyres at the border before, Sold or bought small arms at the border before, Sold or bought fairly used clothes at the border before

d. Dependent Variable: Achievement in Economics

#### ANOVA<sup>a</sup>

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	338.014	1	338.014	23.848	.000 <sup>b</sup>
Residual	4351.294	307	14.174		
Total	4689.307	308			
2 Regression	407.177	2	203.588	14.548	.000 <sup>c</sup>
Residual	4282.131	306	13.994		
Total	4689.307	308			
3 Regression	478.845	3	159.615	11.562	.000 <sup>d</sup>
Residual	4210.462	305	13.805		
Total	4689.307	308			

a. Dependent variable: Achievement in Economics

b. Predictors: (Constant), Sold or bought used tyres at the border before

c. Predictors: (Constant), Sold or bought used tyres at the border before, Sold or bought small arms at the border before

- d. Predictors: (Constant), Sold or bought used tyres at the border before, Sold or bought small arms at the border before, Sold or bought fairly used clothes at the border before
- b. Predictors: (Constant), Sold or bought used tyres at the border before, Sold or bought small arms at the border before
- c. Predictors: (Constant), Sold or bought used tyres at the border before, Sold or bought small arms at the border before, Sold or bought fairly used clothes at the border before
- d. Dependent Variable: Achievement in Economics

Table 4.33 shows that smuggling of used tyres and trading in small arms and fairly used clothes were the strongest predictor of students' achievement in economics. The result shows that smuggling of used tyres by students accounted for 7.2% of the variance in students' academic achievement ( $\Delta R^2=.072$ , ( $\Delta F (1,307) =11.56$ ,  $p <0.05$ ), followed by transborder trading in small arms ( $\Delta R^2=.087$ , ( $\Delta F (1,307) =14.55$ ,  $p <0.05$ ).

Smuggling of fairly used clothes by students shows to be the strongest predictor of school students' academic achievement in economics accounting for 10.2% of the variance ( $\Delta R^2=.102$ , ( $\Delta F (1,307) =23.85$ ,  $p <0.05$ ). Finally, the combination of transborder trading activities in used tyres, small arms and fairly used clothes accounted for 10.2% of the variance in students' achievement in economics. The stepwise regression model adopted for this study excluded eight other variables entered into the model as not significant in the prediction of academic achievement in economics. The Durbin-Watson (d) value of 1.821 shows that there is no first order linear auto-correlation in the data of the stepwise regression model since it falls between the critical values of  $1.5 < d < 2.5$ . This result implies that the most prevalent transborder trading activities in the selected schools are smuggling of used tyres, small fire arms, and chiefly fairly used clothes.

**Research Question Three:** What are the relative effects of transborder trading activities on students' academic performance in economics?

**Table 4.34: Relative effects of Transborder Trading Activities on Students' Academic Achievement in economics**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error				Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	19.027	1.101		17.286	.000		
	Sold or bought used tyres at the border before	-2.863	.586	-.268	-4.883	.000	1.000	1.000
2	(Constant)	23.654	2.351		10.060	.000		
	Sold or bought used tyres at the border before	-2.594	.595	-.243	-4.360	.000	.959	1.043
	Sold or bought small arms at the border before	-2.608	1.173	-.124	-2.223	.027	.959	1.043
3	(Constant)	24.364	2.356		10.341	.000		
	Sold or bought used tyres at the border before	-1.915	.662	-.180	-2.893	.004	.764	1.309
	Sold or bought small arms at the border before	-2.679	1.166	-.127	-2.299	.022	.958	1.044
	Sold or bought fairly used clothes at the border before	-1.119	.491	-.139	-2.278	.023	.793	1.260

The smuggling of fairly used clothes turned out as the most reliable predictor of students' academic achievement in economics (B= -.139, t= -2.278, p<0.05). It was followed by smuggling of small arms (B= -.268, t=-4.883, p<0.05), and smuggling of used tyres across the border (B= -.243, t= -4.360, p<0.05). The tolerance statistic and variance inflation factor (VIF) were used to evaluate the absence of multi-Collinearity amidst the independent variables.

Table 4.33 shows there were no multi-Collinearity among the transborder trading variables as the tolerance and VIF values were normal. It should be noted that the

values in Table 4.33 connote a negative relative effect of the transborder trading activities on students' achievement in economics. This implies that the more students engage in these activities in border schools, the poorer their academic achievement in economics.

#### **4.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

This chapter presented, analyzed and discussed the findings from quantitative data. Questionnaires were administered to students in senior secondary schools. The discussion of the findings was done in the context of the research questions and hypothesis posed in Chapter 1, and in relation to local and international literature and to theory. The next chapter presents the summary, conclusion and recommendations of the study.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

Chapter four presented, interpreted and discussed the findings of this study with regards to current literature, practice, and the theoretical framework which informed the study. This chapter presents a summary of findings, conclusions, recommendations made, and suggestions for further studies. The chapter commences with restatement of research objectives and sub-research questions. This is followed by a summary of key findings based on the quantitative and qualitative responses. The summary findings are followed by the conclusions that were drawn from the presentation and discussion of the findings.

#### **5.2 RESTATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The siting of schools close to border towns where smuggling of goods and trafficking in persons across geo-political boundaries has been on for several decades and this is of a major concern. It is for this reason that this study sought to examine the effects of transborder trading activities on senior secondary school students' academic performance in economics in Ogun state, Nigeria.

##### **5.2.1 Research aim and objectives**

Reviewed literature (Afolayan, 2010; Titus, 2014, Ojo 2015, Faleye, 2015, Bonchuck, 2010) revealed that the students' participate in smuggling of goods and human trafficking across the border. It is therefore, against this backdrop that the current study aimed at examining the effects of transborder trading activities on senior secondary school students' academic performance in economics. The main objective of this study was to examine the influence that exists between smuggling, human trafficking, and school location on the academic performance of senior secondary students' in economics.

### **5.2.2 Research Questions**

This study was guided by five research questions. The first one was; what are the articles of trade at border towns in Nigeria? It was meant to determine the particular items students' either bought or sold at the border. The second research question focused on composite effect of transborder trading activities, human trafficking and smuggling on students' academic performance in economics. This was meant to establish which of the three variables have the strongest effect on students' academic performance. The third research question was to determine the relative effects of transborder trading activities, human trafficking, and smuggling on students' academic performance and the fourth research question addressed the predictor among the variables that predicted the actual variable that is most paramount in transborder trade. The last research question was to ascertain the effect of gender on students' academic performance.

### **5.3 SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS**

This section presents a summary of the study findings. The summary focuses on effects of transborder trading activities on senior secondary school academic performance in economics.

#### **5.3.1. Smuggling of light arms and students' academic performance.**

This study discovered that students whose schools are in border areas smuggled small arms across national boundaries. This confirms the discovery of researchers such as Adetula (2015) who conducted a study on transnational organized crime, Opanike & Aduloju (2015) on transborder security, Seniora & Poitevin (2013) on trafficking of small light arms, and Aluko (2012) arms smuggling. The hypotheses tested on the smuggling of small arms on students' academic performance revealed that it affects their academic performance. Addo (2006) states that arms trading is a common trade among border traders – an opinion backed up by other sources (Adetula, 2015; Seniora & Poitevin, 2013; Aluko, 2012). From this finding, students who trade in small arms will not have time for academics and they may even be involved in armed robbery since they have access to small arms.

Furthermore, the involvement of the students in arms is one of the factors leading to cult activities in schools even at the secondary school level – a situation that calls for concern for stakeholders in education.

### **5.3.2. Smuggling of narcotics and students' academic performance**

Drug peddling at the border was also discovered to be an area in which the students were involved in. About 3.5% of the respondents were engaged in buying and selling of drugs. Studies carried out by Ojo (2015) confirm that the students not only help in selling drugs at the border but they also buy and administer them. Other research work conducted on exchange of drugs at the border by NHRTC (2013), Berestein (2010); Ering (2011) corroborated this claim. Data collected and analyzed on trading in narcotics and its influence on students' academic performance shows that it has of no significance effect as students who participated and the non-participants have the same academic performance. The involvement of students in the movement of drugs or being used as spies for border crossers (Erasmus 1994) portends a great danger to the students' lives and invariably to the communities in which they reside. Be that as it may, parents must show more concerns to the activities of their wards, particularly to the group of friends they mingle with and discourage such attitude.

### **5.3.3 Trafficking in human beings on students' academic performance**

Trafficking in human beings to work as domestic servants, hawkers or house-helpers are common forms of child labour that some of the students are involved in according to the findings of this study. In separate studies conducted on human trafficking, sources (Thipanyane, 2015; TIP, 2014; Human Rights, 2013; IRIN, 2010) reported in like manner that Nigerian children are engaged in child labour as attested to by the data collected which indicated that some of the students are actually being trafficked to work as domestic servants. A recent study conducted by Okeke et al. (2014) revealed that desperation on the part of young girls to make quick money turned them to prey into the hands of traffickers who used them as domestic servants and prostitutes (IOM,2008; Salah, 2001) to the detriment of their education and risk to their health.

From the analysis based on the data collected on how human trafficking influences students' academic performance, the result reveals that students in border areas are actually being used as domestic servants, house helps and hawkers in the streets (Thipanyane, 2015; TIP, 2014; HRW, 2013; IRIN, 2010) which are all forms of child labour. This occurs due to the desperation of young girls to make quick money which makes them fall prey and the unsuspecting parents of these children release their wards to "uncles" who promise to give their child good education only to use them as domestic servants and house helps (Okeke et al., 2014; UNICEF, 2003; Salah, 2001). The prevalence of poverty among rural dwellers (border) accounts for some of the parents to release their wards to wealthy city people with the naïve belief that their children's lot can be better (Titus et al., 2016).

#### **5.3.4 Smuggling of frozen foods**

Frozen foods are items commonly traded at the border in which students' involvement in buying and selling of these commodities are high going by the percentage of respondents (55%) in the study who affirmed that they are engaged in trading and buying of these frozen foods at the border (Titus et al., 2016; Faleye, 2016; Ojo, 2015; Yusuff, 2014). Majority of the students (83.2%) involved in the study traded in rice as a staple food at the border in line with the findings of several sources (Titus, 2014; Ojo, 2015; Faleye, 2015; Yusuff, 2014; Afolayan, 2010; Meagher, 2009) who conducted various studies exposing items of trade at the border in which rice is a major commodity that is traded. Another article of trade at the border in which the students are involved in according to the findings are palm oil products, especially groundnut oil. The findings revealed that the students traded in groundnut oil (Titus et al., 2016; Ojo, 2015; Faleye, 2015; Yusuff, 2014).

#### **5.3.5 Smuggling of rice and oil palm products**

The tested hypotheses show that the buying and selling of staple food (rice) by the students have no significant influence on their academic performance as students who are engaged and those not engaged in these activities perform



almost equally in the achievement test contrary to the findings (Titus, 2014; Orji, 2013; Owoeye & Yara, 2011) that the involvement of students in smuggling activities has a significant influence on the academic performance. Because students involved in the transborder trading activities lose interest in education, they do not see the need for it. Despite the outcome of the result in the study, the researcher is of the opinion that students who actively participate in transborder trade will not have time for their studies which eventually will lead to poor academic performance.

### **5.3.6 Smuggling of fairly used textiles**

Furthermore, textiles especially the fairly used ones from Europe and the United Kingdom, formed part of the commodities some students in border areas illegally traded which is buttressed by earlier works (Titus et al., 2016; Ojo, 2015; Adeyinka, 2015; Faleye, 2015; Yusuff, 2014) that students are involved in the buying and selling of the commodities at the border at the detriment of their studies. According to Ojo (2015) and Titus (2014), the involvement of students in smuggling of goods across borders instead of education negatively impacts on the students' academic performance.

Apart from the earlier mentioned items traded at the border, some of the students were also involved in the buying and selling of canned foods (Titus, 2014; Yusuff, 2014) and fairly used tyres (Titus, 2014; Yusuf, 2014, Ojo, 2015, Meagher, 2010; Afolayan, 2010), fairly used textiles (Faleye, 2015; Ojo, 2015, Titus, 2014). The findings of the study revealed that majority of the students deal more in fairly used textiles, than other articles of trade.

### **5.3.7 School location and students' academic performance**

On school location and its influence on students' academic performance, results from the study show that school location has no significant influence on students' academic achievement. This result contradicted the findings (Iwuagwu et al., 2016; Titus 2016; Idialu, 2013) that claimed that the place a school is sited determines the academic performance of students. In support of the findings of this study is an earlier study by Akagbogu and Ajiwoju (2015) who asserted that

students whose schools are located in rural areas such as those in border towns perform better than their colleagues in the cities using the results of their study carried out in Edo State in verbal attitude and English language overall scores obtained in national common entrance as a bench mark for assessment. Other references (Adebule & Aborisade, 2013; Owoeye & Yara, 2011), however, disagree with Akagbogu & Ajiwoju (2015), stating that schools in towns have access to more facilities and therefore they perform better academically than students in border (rural) areas. Further, others (Aluede et al., 2015; Ogbeide, 2013) state that overcrowded classrooms are detrimental to excellent performance of the students and this is a common phenomenon in schools located in the urban areas.

### **5.3.8 Gender and students' academic performance**

The effect of gender on students' academic performance as revealed by the data collected shows that there is no significant difference between the performance of boys and girls involved in transborder trade which confirms the findings of Ampofo and Osei- Owusu (2015). In essence, the ambition of the student will be a propellant that will spur him/her to action in other to perform well.

The findings of this study is in variance with the conclusions of other sources (Appak, 2016; Titus et al., 2016; Atovigba, 2012; Asante, 2010; Ewunmi, 2008) that gender has a significant difference on academic performance. Further studies on gender and performance revealed that there is no gender difference in overall intelligence, while others (Laidra et al., 2007; Hyde, 2005; Dayioglu & Turut – Asik, 2004) disagreed. Other factors different from school location that affect students' academic performance include sex (Titus et al., 2016; Bosede, 2010); discipline (Ehiane, 2014; Gitome et al., 2013; Tikoko & Bomett, 2011; Dawo & Simatwa, 2010) and home life (Adu & Adeyanju, 2013; Pandey, 2008) amongst others.

### **5.3.9 Composite Effect**

The result of the data collected and analyzed on the composite effect of transborder trading activities on students' academic performance in economics

reveals that the correlation between academic performance and smuggling of small arms, palm oil products, fairly used clothes and canned foods are negatively correlated.

The implication of this finding is that the more students get involved in transborder trading activities the poorer their academic performance, which coincides with Ojo (2015), Orji (2013), Owoeye & Yara (2011) and Titus's (2008) findings that students involved in transborder trading activities will not see the need for education since they have started making money and this goes a long way in affecting their concentration in school thus poor academic performance.

#### **5.3.10 Predictor Effect**

The results from the table on predictor effect shows that smuggling of tyres and trading in small arms and fairly used clothes were the strongest predictors of students' academic achievement in economics. This implies that these factors more than any other variable considered in the study affect the academic performance of the students.

If arranged in order of magnitude, smuggling of fairly used textiles from UK and Europe as articles of trade at border towns, smuggling of small arms and smuggling of fairly used tyres ranked first, second and third respectively as relative predictors of students' academic performance. The combined effects of these potent factors if continued by the students in border areas will lower their academic performance. Earlier submissions (Titus et al., 2016; Faleye, 2015; Ojo, 2015; Yusuff, 2014; Adetula, 2015; Opanike & Aduloju, 2015; Aluko, 2012; Adeyinka, 2015; Faleye, 2015; Titus, 2014; Afolayan, 2014) buttressed the findings of the study. At this juncture, it is worthy of note that students who reside in the border towns and get involved in transborder trading activities run a risk of poor performance in their academics because the time they ought to study will be spent mostly in the market trading. Apart from that, because of the money they realize from this business, they may no longer be subject to parental control since they are already fending for themselves.

Therefore, students do participate in smuggling of goods across borders because the schools are located close to the border. For instance, it will be difficult for students whose residence is far from border towns to be part of buying and selling of various articles of trade at the border.

#### **5.4 CONCLUSION OF THE STUDY**

The study established that the influence of transborder trading activities on senior secondary schools students' academic performance in economics was the proximity of schools to the border which accounted for the poor academic performance of students in schools because, rather than concentrate on their studies they pay more attention to transborder trading activities. Findings in the study show that school location and gender does not affect the academic performance of students in border towns. The findings further revealed that smuggling of articles of trade such as fairly used clothes, small arms and fairly used tyres are the major factors that affect negatively the academic performance of students whose schools are sited in border towns.

#### **5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS**

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are hereby made which the researcher believes will be of benefit to the following various stakeholders in education: the parents, government, society (community) and the students themselves.

It is recommended that while establishing schools in the future, they should not be located near the border areas to avoid the tendency of students getting involved in transborder trade. In the event of such school already located close to the border, the schools should be a full boarding house, i.e. all of the students must reside in the school compound and their movement monitored and restricted by the school authority. In addition, the schools should be fenced with provision of adequate security to man the school and hostel on a 24/7 basis.

Parents should be more involved in the monitoring of their wards' academic performance by attending school programmes and showing up on open days in

schools with close collaboration with the school authorities to find out about their wards and also monitor the types of friends they mix with. The students on their part should shun the urge to make quick money which necessitated their involvement in transborder trading activities. They should concentrate more on their studies in order to excel in their academics.

Ogun State Ministry of Education officials should regularly monitor schools (teachers and students) that are close to border areas. Government should provide an additional allowance to teachers posted to border areas to encourage the teachers and equally provided necessary infrastructures like, well equipped laboratories, proper stocking of the library, provision of chairs and desks in the classrooms with proper ventilation in schools located in border areas so as to encourage teachers posted to border communities and students residing and schooling in border areas. .

Regular town hall meetings should be held periodically with all stakeholders – parents, teachers, government, community leaders or representative NGOs and students – to create awareness about the dangers of student involvement in transborder trade. This should be organized by NGOs in conjunction with the government as a form of advocacy programmes.

## **5.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

The study covered selected secondary schools in border areas of Ogun State. Therefore, the study could only be generalized to students whose schools are in border areas. Due to the level of maturity (age) of students expected to participate in transborder trade, only students in upper senior secondary school were used in the study, despite these limitations, the findings of this study would add to the existing knowledge in the field of transborder trade in Nigeria and the world at large.

## **5.7 EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS**

This study investigated the effects of transborder trading activities on senior secondary school students' academic performance in economics in Ogun State, Nigeria.

Consequent to the growing concern is finding solutions to the dwindling students' academic performance in economics in border areas involved in transborder trade.

The findings of the study show that the continuous involvement of the students in smuggling activities will lead to a further slide in their academic performance.

Another major implication of this study is that if this menace is not checked on time, non-participants in transborder trading activities will join and this will further worsen students' academic performance, indiscipline in schools, and fall in the standard of education. In addition, these findings revealed that school location and gender have no significant influence on student academic performance, but this should not be an indication that students whose school are located in border areas be permitted to continue participating in transborder trade.

There is need for collaboration between the Ministry of Education and NGOs to have an advocacy programme aimed at enlightening and creating public awareness about the dangers of student involvement in transborder trade.

## **5.8 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES**

Future researches could focus on designing a behaviour/attitude modification programme for students in border areas. This programme could also be replicated in disciplines like geography, commerce, English, etc., investigating other relevant variables.

## **5.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

This chapter gave a presentation of the summary of the findings, discussions, conclusions of the study, and recommendations and the educational implications of the study including suggestion for further study. The study purpose was to ascertain the effects of transborder trading activities on senior secondary school students' academic performance in economics

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**LIST OF APPENDICES**

**APPENDIX 1: INFORMED CONSENT FORM FOR RESPONDENTS**

**STUDY TITLE**

**Effects of transborder trading activities on senior secondary school students' academic performance in economics**

Conducted by: Titus Adesegun Benedict                      Supervisor: Prof. Emmanuel O. Adu

The purpose of the study and the level of my involvement were clearly explained to me.

I have understood the importance of the study and the value of my participation. I

therefore, voluntarily agree to take part in the study without any reservations.

I understand that I am free to withdraw from participating in the study at any given time

and I will not be affected in any way.

I also understand that this consent form will not be linked to any of the research

Instruments to ensure that my participation remains confidential.

I am informed that upon completion of the research, feedback will be availed to my school on the findings to improve our school environments.

As confirmation of my willingness to participate in this study, I herein- under sign and give my essential details:

Full Name: .....

Signature: .....

Date: .....

## APPENDIX 2: QUESTIONNAIRES FOR STUDENTS

### STUDENTS' QUESTIONNAIRE ON TRANSBORDER TRADING ACTIVITIES

#### (SQTBT A)

#### Instruction:

This questionnaire is designed to assist the researcher to determine the relationship between trans-border trading activities and students' academic performance in Economics in selected secondary schools in Ogun State, Nigeria.

Read each statement carefully and indicate your level of agreement or disagreement on the modified four points Likert- scale provided.

Each response shall be treated with every confidentiality it deserves.

Note: SA - Strongly Agree; A – Agree; D – Disagree; SD – Strongly Disagree.

#### SECTION A

Please tick ( ) in the appropriate boxes.

1. Sex: Male ( ) Female ( )
2. Age: 12 – 15 ( ) 16 – 19 ( ) 20 – 23 ( )
3. Present Class: ( )
4. Location of School: Border Area ( ) Non Border Area ( )
5. Local Government Area: Yewa North ( ) Yewa South ( ) Ado- Odo/Ota ( )  
Ipokia ( ) Imeko-Afon ( )
6. Family background: Monogamous Family ( ) Polygamous Family ( )
7. Parents' income level: Low ( ) Medium ( ) High ( )
8. Parents' level of education: No education at all ( ) Primary school ( )  
Secondary/Vocational school ( ) Diploma/NCE ( ) Bachelors' degree ( )  
others ( )
9. Parents occupation: Farmer ( ) Civil servant ( ) Company worker ( ) Self-  
employed ( ) Artisans ( ) Traders ( ) others ( )

I have sold or bought these at the border before:

- Small arms ( )
- Light weapons ( )
- Narcotics ( )
- Human Beings ( )
- Frozen Foods ( )
- Rice ( )
- Groundnut oil ( )
- Fairly used clothes ( )

Canned foods            ( )  
 Used tyres                ( )

**SECTION B**

<b>S / N</b>	<b>TRADING ACTIVITIES</b>	<b>S A</b>	<b>A</b>	<b>D</b>	<b>S D</b>
1 .	The involvement of students in trans-border trading activities often influences their performance academically.				
2 .	The continuous existence of trans-border trading activities is the solution for improved students' performance in Economics.				
3 .	Trans-border trading activities often encourage truancy.				
4 .	Students who engage in trans-border trade prefer it to their academic work.				
5 .	Participation in trans-border trade has effect on students' academic performance.				

Please write below any other effect of Transborder trading activities on students' performance

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4

**SECTION C**

<b>S / N</b>	<b>SMUGGLING ACTIVITIES</b>	<b>S A</b>	<b>A</b>	<b>D</b>	<b>S D</b>
1 .	Student's participation in smuggling activities do affect their academic performance.				
2 .	Students who combine smuggling activities with school work do excel in class work.				
3 .	Teachers who benefit from the smuggling activities do influence student's performance				

	in their subjects.				
4	The involvement of students in smuggling activities is better preferred than schooling.				

Please write below any other effect of smuggling activities on students' performance

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.

### SECTION D

<b>S / N</b>	<b>School location</b>	<b>S A</b>	<b>A</b>	<b>D</b>	<b>S D</b>
1	The distance of the school to the border area affects the academic performance of the students.				
2	Schools located at the border often makes students attention distracted.				
3	The proximity of the schools to the border areas encouraged participation in trans-border trading activities.				
4	Students whose schools are closer to the border areas perform better academically than those whose schools are far from such areas.				
5	Location of schools do influence the performance of the students in Economics.				
6	Easy access to border by the students enhance their involvement in trans-border trading activities.				

Please write below any other effect of school location on students' performance

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.

Section E

S/N	Human Trafficking	SA	A	D	SD
1.	I work as domestic servants to supplement payment of my school fees				
2.	Earning income as domestic servant is preferable to schooling				
3.	I engage in selling of wares after school hours				
4.	During school vacation my parents encourage me to work as helpers for people in exchange for money				
5.	I joined my friends to do menial jobs to earn income to sustain my education				

Please write below any other effect of human trafficking on students' performance

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.

## APPENDIX 3: ECONOMICS ACHIEVEMENT TEST

### Economics Achievement Test

**Instructions:** Each question is followed by FOUR (4) options lettered A to D. Circle the correct answer for each question.

1. Which of these factors of production is regarded as a free gift of nature?
  - (A). Capital
  - (B). Land
  - (C). Entrepreneur
  - (D). Labour
  
2. The definition of Economics as a practical science of production and distribution of wealth was given by
  - (A). Adam Smith
  - (B). Alfred Marshal
  - (C). Lionel Robins
  - (D). Irvin fisher
  
3. Scarcity in Economics implies
  - (A). Wants are satiable
  - (B). Unlimited resources in supply
  - (C). Limited resources in supply
  - (D) Excessive resources in supply.
  
4. The basic Economic problem that determines the techniques of production to be used is
  - (A). How to produce
  - (B). For whom to produce
  - (C). Where to produce
  - (D.) What to produce.

5. Which of the following is a correct flow in the chain of distribution?
- (A). Wholesaler- manufacturer-retailer-consumer
  - (B). Manufacturer- agent-retailer-consumer
  - (C). Manufacturer- wholesaler-retailer-consumer
  - (D). Agent-retailer-manufacturer-consumer
6. The following are disadvantages of international trade except
- (A). Destruction of cultural values of a country
  - (B). Encouraging dumping of goods
  - (C). It leads to exploitation
  - (D). Availability of variety of goods.
7. The benefits derived from large scale production is referred to as
- (A). Profit
  - (B). Efficiency of labor
  - (C). Diseconomies of scale
  - (D). Economies of scale.
8. The cost per unit of output incurred in the process of producing a commodity is referred to as \_\_\_\_ cost
- (A). Fixed
  - (B). Marginal
  - (C). Variable
  - (D). Average
9. In a perfectly competitive economy, prices are determined by
- (A). Trade union activities
  - (B). The forces of demand and supply
  - (C). Consumers
  - (D). Producers in the market
10. Which of the following is a negative effect of Petroleum to Nigerian economy?
- (A). Balance of payments
  - (B). Monoculture economy

- (C). Employment creation
  - (D). Economies of scale.
11. Export –promotion strategy is aimed at producing
- (A). More goods to meet local needs
  - (B). More goods for exports
  - (C). Consumer goods only
  - (D). More labor to enhance production.
12. The system of counting by proxy is referred to as \_\_\_\_\_ population census
- (A). Dejure
  - (B). De-facto
  - (C). Ageing
  - (D). Working
13. The following are the causes of balance of payment deficit In Nigeria except
- (A). Low level of agricultural produce
  - (B). Political instability
  - (C). Increase in exports
  - (D). Excessive government expenditure.
14. Goods coming into a country are referred to as
- (A).Exports
  - (B). Imports
  - (C). Entrepot
  - (D). Re-export
- 15 The attributes of money which makes it easy to be carried about is
- (A). Scarcity
  - (B). Acceptability
  - (C). Portability
  - (D). Durability



16. The following are the basic tools used in economic analysis, except
- (A). Charts
  - (B). Graphs
  - (C). Data
  - (D). Tables
17. One of the ways of solving the economic problems of inflation in a country is by increasing the
- (A). Supply of commodities
  - (B). Supply of currency
  - (C). Salaries of workers
  - (D). Demand for commodities.
18. Farming, mining and Fishing are examples of
- (A). Primary production
  - (B). Secondary production
  - (C). Tertiary production
  - (D). Quaternary production.
19. The reward for labor is
- (A). Rent
  - (B). Profit
  - (C). Wages and salary
  - (D). Interest
20. Division of labor is limited by
- (A). Size of the market
  - (B). Cost of production
  - (C). Factor of production
  - (D). Labor force
21. The amount of money that is left to a household after the deduction of personal income tax is called \_\_\_\_\_ income
- (A). Disposable
  - (B). Personal

- (C). Real
  - (D). Residual
22. Which of the following is a function of commercial banks?
- (A). Creation of money
  - (B). Lender of last resort
  - (C). Adviser to the government
  - (D). Regulation of micro finance banks
23. An inflationary situation that results from an increase in wages and other inputs used in production is referred to as \_\_\_\_\_ inflation
- (A). Cost-push
  - (B). Hyper
  - (C). Demand-pull
  - (D). Creeping
24. The entire satisfaction derived from consuming a particular commodity is known as
- (A). Total utility
  - (B). Marginal utility
  - (C). Average utility
  - (D). Utility
25. The establishment of industries in rural areas will help to reduce
- (A). Urban-urban migration
  - (B). Rural-urban migration
  - (C). Rural-rural migration
  - (D). Urban-rural migration.
26. The exchange of goods and services between two or more countries is
- (A). Domestic trade
  - (B). Nominal trade
  - (C). International trade
  - (D). Artificial trade

27. When Import is greater than export, a country experiences
- (A). favorable balance of payment
  - (B). Balanced payment
  - (C). Unfavorable balance of payment
  - (D). terms of payment
28. The system whereby goods are exchanged for goods is known as
- (A). stock exchange
  - (B). Barter system
  - (C). Banking
  - (D). Cooperative.
29. The value of money is best determined by its
- (A). size
  - (B). Purchasing power
  - (C). Portability
  - (D). Homogeneity
30. The concept of opportunity cost is important to the firm because it
- (A). increase the level of output of the firm
  - (B). leads to maximum satisfaction of the consumers
  - (C). guides firms in allocation of resources
  - (D). assist firms to determine input
31. Commodity market can best be described as a market in which.....
- (A). Goods are sold
  - (B). Labor is bought and sold
  - (C). Short term loans are bought
  - (D). quoted stock are bought.

32. Population census is carried out in Nigeria in every..... Years
- (A). 8
  - (B) 5
  - (C) 10
  - (D) 6
33. Commercial banks settle their indebtedness through
- (A). Merchant Banks
  - (B). Development Banks
  - (C). Stock exchange
  - (D).Central Bank
34. The equilibrium price of orange is 50k, if for some reasons, the price rises to 60k. There will be
- (A).excess demand
  - (B). Excess supply
  - (C). Many buyers in the market
  - (D). Shortage in market
35. If the quantity demanded of a particular commodity is represented by  $Q_d=30-2p$ , what is the quantity demanded at a price of ₦12.
- (A). 6 units
  - (B). 8 units
  - (C). 10 units
  - (C). 12 units.
36. In order to boost agriculture, West African countries should pay more attention to
- (A). shifting cultivation
  - (B). Animal husbandry
  - (C). Seed multiplication
  - (D). Mechanization

37. Where a pen and a book are demanded together, the demand is said to be
- (A). composite
  - (B). Competitive
  - (C). Joint
  - (D). Derived
38. The market price of a commodity is normally determined by the .....
- (A). Laws of demand
  - (B). Interaction of the forces of demand and supply
  - (C). Total number of people in the market
  - (D). Total quantity of the commodity in the market.
39. If TC, FC and VC represent total cost, fixed cost and variable cost respectively. Which of the following is correct?
- (A).  $TC=FC=TC=VC$
  - (B).  $TC=FC+VC$
  - (C).  $TC+VC+FC$
  - (D).  $FC=TC+VC$ .
40. Who among the following is an intermediary between the producer and the retailer?
- (A). Manufacturer
  - (B). Wholesaler
  - (C). Consumers
  - (D). Hawkers.

**APPENDIX 4: MARKING GUIDE FOR ECONOMICS ACHIEVEMENT  
TEST (EAT)**

**ANSWERS TO ECONOMICS ACHIEVEMENT TEST (EAT)**

1. B	11. B	21. A	31. A
2. A	12. A	22. A	32. C
3. C	13. C	23. A	33. D
4. A	14. B	24. A	34. B
5. C	15. C	25. B	35. A
6. A	16. C	26. C	36. D
7. D	17. A	27. C	37. C
8. B	18. A	28. B	38. B
9. B	19. C	29. B	39. B
10. A	20. A	30. C	40. B

**APPENDIX 5: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT  
RESEARCH TO TEACHING SERVICE COMMISSION  
(TESCOM)**

Titus Adesegun B.

6, Omotosho close off

Olowofoyeku Street,

Oluwatedo estate, Isashi,

Lagos.

20<sup>th</sup> November, 2016.

**The Permanent Secretary**

**Teaching Service Commission (TESCOM)**

**Oke-Mosan, Abeokuta**

**Ogun State, Nigeria.**

Dear Sir/Madam,

**REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO UNDERTAKE RESEARCH  
STUDY IN SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN OGUN STATE**

This correspondence serves to request for your permission to conduct a research study in the secondary schools of the referred to education zone.

The research study is a fulfilment of the requirements of Doctor of Philosophy degree in Education (Instruction and Curriculum).

***The research title is: Effects of transborder trading activities on senior secondary school students' academic performance in economics in Ogun state, Nigeria.***

Data collection process is scheduled for November to December 2016, and will involve students in SSS II & III in eight senior secondary schools in five local government areas of Yewa North and south, Ipokia, Imeko-Afon and Ado-Odo/Ota zones respectively. The following schools were randomly selected for the study:

- Orita Community High School, Oja-Odan
- Community High School, Ijohun
- Ketu College Senior School, Igan-Alade
- Agosasa Community High School (Senior) Agosasa
- Owode Senior Secondary School, Owode Yewa
- Yewa High School (Senior), Ajilete
- Toyon High School (Senior), Ere Ado-Odo
- Alamuwa High School (Senior), Ado-Odo.

Find the attached documents: Ethical Research Clearance Certificate from the host University of Fort Hare- South Africa, a letter of support from my supervisor Prof E.O. Adu, and copies of research instruments.

It is my wish to submit to your office a copy of my Doctoral Thesis by the end of November 2018.

Your granted permission for me to conduct this research in your schools will be greatly appreciated.

Yours faithfully



Titus, Adesegun Benedict (Mr.)

[seguntitus09@gmail.com](mailto:seguntitus09@gmail.com)

08033463621.



**APPENDIX 6: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION FROM SCHOOL PRINCIPALS'  
AND APPROVAL LETTERS**

Titus Adesegun B.  
6, Omotosho close off  
Olowofoyeku Street,  
Oluwatedo estate, Isashi,  
Lagos.  
20<sup>th</sup> November, 2016.

The Principal,  
Orita Community High School (senior)  
Oja-Odan, Yewa North  
Ogun State, Nigeria.

Dear Sir/Madam,

**REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO UNDERTAKE RESEARCH  
STUDY**

I Titus Adesegun Benedict hereby seek for your permission to conduct a research study in your school.

The research study is a fulfilment of the requirements of Doctor of Philosophy degree in Education (Instruction and Curriculum).

***The research title is: Effects of transborder trading activities on senior secondary school students' academic performance in economics in Ogun state, Nigeria.***

The research will be conducted in your school between November and December, 2016 making use of SSS II and SSS III as respondents. Every information supplied by the students will be treated with utmost confidentiality.

I will appreciate it if my request is granted to use the students of your school to conduct the research.

Yours faithfully,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Titus', with a long horizontal line drawn above it.

Titus Adesegun Benedict (Mr.)

[seguntitus09@gmail.com](mailto:seguntitus09@gmail.com)

08033463621

**APPENDIX 7: APPROVAL LETTER FROM  
TEACHING SERVICE**



**TEACHING SERVICE COMMISSION**

P.M.B. 2081, ABEOKUTA, OGUN STATE OF NIGERIA.

*All Communications on this matter  
should be address to the Permanent Secretary,  
Teaching Service Commission quoting*

Our Ref:.....

Date: 14th Dec, 2016

Dear Mr. Titus, A. B. (201613959)

**RE: APPLICATION FOR USE OF SCHOOLS FOR PhD RESEARCH**

With reference to your letter dated 14th Nov. 2016 seeking the permission of the Teaching Service Commission for the use of schools and students for research.

The commission therefore, conveys its approval for the use of schools and its students for your research titled: "effort of trans border trading activities on senior secondary school students' academic performance in economics in Yewa Division in Ogun State, Nigeria".

We wish you the very best of luck in your endeavours.

For:  **ZONAL SECRETARY**  
**Teaching Service Commission**  
440 Odolota 2

**Mr. Dada A. K.**  
TSC Zonal Secretary  
Permanent Secretary  
Teaching Service Commission

**APPENDIX 8: APPROVAL LETTERS FROM  
SCHOOL PRINCIPALS**



**KETU COLLEGE (SENIOR SCHOOL)  
IGAN-ALADE**

Founded:  
3rd October, 1977

P.O. Box 11, Igan-Alade, Yewa North, Ogun State.

Our Ref: \_\_\_\_\_

Your Ref: \_\_\_\_\_

Date 23/1/2017

The Chairman,  
University Research Ethics Committee,  
University of Fort Hare, South Africa.

Dear Sir,

**RE: TITUS Adesegun Benedict (201613959)**

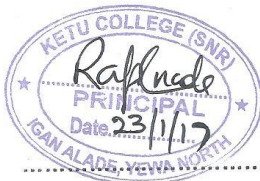
This is to notify the above Committee of the University of Fort Hare, South Africa that the above named sought and obtained the permission of this School to administer his instrument for his PhD Thesis Titled: Effects of trans – border trading activities on Senior Secondary School Students' academic performance in Economics in Ogun State, Nigeria.

He visited this School on 12<sup>th</sup> of December, 2016 to administer his instruments on Senior Secondary School students (SS 2). He conducted his assignment under a peaceful and cordial atmosphere.

Wishing him success in his future endeavours.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,



ONADA, R.F. (MR)  
Principal

All Communications should be addressed to the Principal Ketu College (Senior)  
Igan Alade, Yewa North, Ogun State. Quoting our Reference Number



# COMMUNITY HIGH SCHOOL (SENIOR)

Ijoun, Yewa North, Ogun State, Nigeria

*Motto: In Unity We Stand*

*Our Ref:*..... *Your Ref:*..... *Date:*.....

Principal:

The Chairman,  
University Research Ethics Committee,  
University of Fort Hare, South Africa.

Dear Sir,

RE: TITUS Adesegun Benedict (201613959)

This is to notify the above Committee of the University of Fort Hare, South Africa that the above named sought and obtained the permission of this School to administer his instrument for his PhD Thesis Titled: Effects of trans – border trading activities on Senior Secondary School Students' academic performance in Economics in Ogun State, Nigeria. -

He visited this School on 12<sup>th</sup> of December, 2016 to administer his instruments on Senior Secondary School students (SS 2). He conducted his assignment under a peaceful and cordial atmosphere.

Wishing him success in his future endeavours.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

PRINCIPAL  
COMMUNITY HIGH SCHOOL  
IJOUN





# ORITA COMMUNITY SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

OJA-ODAN, YEWA NORTH, OGUN STATE  
P. O. BOX 279, ILARO  
FROM THE PRINCIPAL'S OFFICE

Our Ref:..... Your Ref:..... Date:.....

The Chairman,  
University Research Ethics Committee,  
University of Fort Hare, South Africa.

Dear Sir,

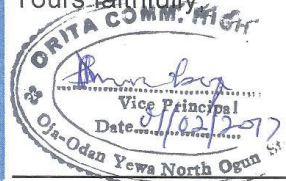
## RE: TITUS Adesegun Benedict (201613959)

This is to inform the above named Committee of University of Fort Hare, South Africa that the above named student sought and obtained the permission of this School to administer his instrument for his PhD Thesis Titled: **EFFECT OF TRANS-BORDER TRADING ACTIVITIES ON SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS' ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE IN ECONOMICS IN OGUN STATE, NIGERIA.**

He visited this school on 13th of December, 2016 to administer his instrument on Senior Secondary School Students (SS 2). The assignment was conducted peacefully,

Thank you, for your usual cooperation.

Yours faithfully,



**MR. OSAYEMI G.A.**

*f* **Principal**

PRINCIPAL'S NAME: \_\_\_\_\_

PHONE NO. \_\_\_\_\_

**APPENDIX 9: ETHICAL CLEARANCE  
CERTIFICATE**



**University of Fort Hare**  
*Together in Excellence*

**ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE  
REC-270710-028-RA Level 01**

Certificate Reference Number: ADU141STIT01

Project title: Effects of Trans-border Trading activities on Senior Secondary School students' Academic performance in Economics in Ogun State, Southern West, Nigeria.

Nature of Project: PhD in Education

Principal Researcher: Adesegun Benedict Titus

Supervisor: Prof E.O Adu

Co-supervisor: N/A

On behalf of the University of Fort Hare's Research Ethics Committee (UREC) I hereby give ethical approval in respect of the undertakings contained in the above-mentioned project and research instrument(s). Should any other instruments be used, these require separate authorization. The Researcher may therefore commence with the research as from the date of this certificate, using the reference number indicated above.

Please note that the UREC must be informed immediately of

- Any material change in the conditions or undertakings mentioned in the document
- Any material breaches of ethical undertakings or events that impact upon the ethical conduct of the research

The Principal Researcher must report to the UREC in the prescribed format, where applicable, annually, and at the end of the project, in respect of ethical compliance.

**Special conditions:** Research that includes children as per the official regulations of the act must take the following into account:


Note: The UREC is aware of the provisions of s71 of the National Health Act 61 of 2003 and that matters pertaining to obtaining the Minister's consent are under discussion and remain unresolved. Nonetheless, as was decided at a meeting between the National Health Research Ethics Committee and stakeholders on 6 June 2013, university ethics committees may continue to grant ethical clearance for research involving children without the Minister's consent, provided that the prescripts of the previous rules have been met. This certificate is granted in terms of this agreement.

The UREC retains the right to

- Withdraw or amend this Ethical Clearance Certificate if
  - Any unethical principal or practices are revealed or suspected
  - Relevant information has been withheld or misrepresented
  - Regulatory changes of whatsoever nature so require
  - The conditions contained in the Certificate have not been adhered to
- Request access to any information or data at any time during the course or after completion of the project.
- In addition to the need to comply with the highest level of ethical conduct principle investigators must report back annually as an evaluation and monitoring mechanism on the progress being made by the research. Such a report must be sent to the Dean of Research's office

The Ethics Committee wished you well in your research.

Yours sincerely

  
Professor Wilson Akpan  
Acting Dean of Research

07 December 2016



**APPENDIX 10: CERTIFICATE FROM LANGUAGE  
EDITOR**

19 January, 2018

To whom it may concern

I hereby confirm that I have proofread the thesis *Influence of transborder trading activities on senior secondary school students' academic performance in economics in Ogun State, Nigeria* by Titus Adesegun Benedict (student number 201613959 from the University of Fort Hare, South Africa).

This proofreading is done in a systematic way using the Windows "Tracking" system to enable the author to accept or decline suggested corrections which indicate spelling, grammatical, syntactical, referential, and spatial or typographical errors within the text. The author is

*Lauren Wainwright*

B.A. Languages and  
Literature Academic  
Editor



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