

**TRANSBORDER TRADE AND FOOD SECURITY:  
A STUDY OF JIBIA BORDER (1999-2014)**

**BY**

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**BEING A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF  
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**FEBRUARY,2016**

## DECLARATION

I, Mohammed Jamilu Abdul-salam, hereby declare that this Dissertation is the product of my own independent research effort and work under the supervision of Mal. M. M. Yusif. It has never been presented elsewhere. All sources duly consulted have been well acknowledged.

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## APPROVAL

This is to certify that this research thesis has been read and approved as partially satisfying the requirement for the award of Master of Science (M.Sc.) Degree of the Political Science Department, Faculty of Social and Management Sciences, Bayero University, Kano.

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## **DEDICATION**

This research work is dedicated to my father, Late Malam Abdulsalam Abdulhameed Charanchi and my mother Bintu Rabi'u (Yar'manya).

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## ACRONYMS

AEC	African Economic Community
AFTA	Asian Free Trade Agreements
AMCs	Aggregate Measurement Commitment
AOA	Agreement on Agriculture
APEC	Asian-Pacific Economic Cooperation
AU	African Union
CET	Common External Tariff
DMI	Department of Military Intelligence
EC	European Community
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
ETLS	ECOWAS Trade Liberation Scheme
EU	European Union
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organisation
FTA	Free Trade Agreement
GATT	General Agreement on Tariff and Trade
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
ILSS	Inter-etats de Lutte Contre la Secheresse dans le Sahel
IMF	International Monetary Fund
K2M axis	Katsina-Kano Maradi axis
NAFTA	North American Free Trade Agreement
NPF	Nigerian Police Force
OAU	Organisation of African Unity
RPFS	Regional Programmes for Food Security
SACU	Southern African Customs Union
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SAP	Structural Adjustment Programme

SSS	State Security Service
UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
URAA	Uruguay Round Agreement on Agriculture
USA	United States of America
WFP	World Food Programme
WTO	World Trade Organisation

## ABSTRACT

*The transborder trade between Nigeria and Niger Republic through Jibia border, facilitates trade flows between the two countries and it would be more critical towards achieving free trade and deeper integration within the region, with the right policies in these two large and dynamic economies. But to address the regional trade barriers and food security, there is need to strengthen regional integration and also help the Nigeria and Niger into the world market. In West Africa, Nigeria and Niger Republic in particular, the processes and degree of regional integration have lagged behind expectations and many political commitments have either not been translated into policy while regulatory reforms are not implemented. The commitments of Nigeria and Niger Republic towards transborder trade at the Jibia border thus remains weakly integrated with continuing tariff barriers. For example, restrictive rules of origin exist and substantial non-tariff barriers. As a result of the non implementation of the ECOWAS decisions such as free movement of goods and services, common external tariff etc by these two member states of ECOWAS there has been less formalization of trade and that has affected food security ,creating food crisis like that experienced in Niger Republic in 2005 and 2010 respectively. The methodology was qualitative using desk review of literature and specialised interview. The study recommends the measures of unification of currency among the ECOWAS member states, proper implementation of ECOWAS trade policy, political commitment and regional trade formalization, development of the agricultural sector, improvement of infrastructure and enlightenment campaign to the members of Nigeria and Niger Republic communities. This can promote trade integration and protect against food insecurity in Nigeria and Niger Republic respectively.*

## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **GENERAL INTRODUCTION**

#### **1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY**

Nigeria and Niger Republic are two countries with common borders straight from Kamba, Kebbi State to Illela, Sokoto State, Jibia and Mai-ada Katsina state, Maigatari Jigawa State down to Gambori Ngala, Borno State.

Jibia is one of the Nigerian towns situated in the north of Katsina state that have common international boundary with Niger Republic with a border frontier demarcation at Faru village, Dan-issa, Maradi State, Niger Republic and Magama town of Jibia Local Government Area of Katsina State, Nigeria.

The people on both sides of the border area belong largely to the same ethnic group. The people or communities that reside in the border area in Jibia (Nigeria) and Maradi (Niger) are one because they possess the following things in common: common culture and religion, biological characteristics and a collective consciousness of kind and they have feelings that ensure the safety and wellbeing of one another. They have also embarked on trade relations and have a high rate of intermarriages (Finn, 1993).

The dense urban fabric clustered around cities of Katsina, Kano and Maradi corridor demonstrate the magnetic attraction of Nigeria on Niger's economy (William, 2005). The Katsina-Kano Maradi axis (K2M axis) along with the Cotonou-Lagos axis are the areas of the most intense trans-border activity in West Africa. Trade and commerce are very strong in particular for livestock, cowpeas (niebi), peppers and tiger-nuts (souchet) from Niger, grains and manufactured goods from Nigeria and other products re-exported from Niger to Nigeria like rice, milk, spaghetti, macaroni, vegetable oils, tin tomatoes, sardines, geisha, and soft drinks.

Apart from its role in Niger and Nigeria's food security, this transborder trade enables the two countries to make use of their respective competitive advantages, using their resources more efficiently and augmenting their wealth. Niger exploits its advantageous position in livestock production and exported almost entirely to Nigeria. Although transborder flows of dry grains are difficult to evaluate, especially as unlike livestock, they are not subject to mandatory reporting office, it is estimated that hundreds of thousands of tonnes of grain cross the Niger-Nigeria border every month of the year (Badio, 2011). Most, but not all, of this trade in grains flows from Nigeria into Niger.

In addition to the truck-loads of freight transported from the big Hausa merchant networks that are active in transborder trade, farmers, with a few sacks of grain on a cart cross the border in both directions depending on the going prices of grain. Estimates in the 1980s advanced a figure of 200,000 tonnes per year for the volume of millet and maize entering Niger from Nigeria. Even today, although the sources of food supply in Niger have been diversified; Nigeria continues to supply most of the country's dry grain import (Maty, 2011).

Beans, datenute, millet and sorghum are the main grains imported from Niger to Nigeria. The quantity of maize imported varies with the state of foodstuffs and the animal feed processing industry in Nigeria. If harvests are normal on both sides of the border, the price differences between the two countries for the time of harvest is too low to give merchants in Niger an incentive to purchase supplies in Nigeria. During this period, markets in Niger are supplied mostly by domestic production. As the pre-harvest season approaches, coinciding with the end of grain sales by small producers in Niger, prices rise. At this point, grains from Nigeria become competitive in markets in Niger.

During the 2005 food crisis, lack of rain and an invasion of locusts led to a serious shortfall in grain production in Niger. The gross grain deficit was estimated at more than 4,500,000 tonnes (Gesellschaft,

2011). Niger thus suffered a serious food crisis in 2005. This crisis was compounded by the fact that Niger could not import as usual from the neighbouring countries. In particular, the transborder trade in Nigeria, because harvests had been poor all across the Sahel and in the northern regions of coastal countries. Indeed, Nigeria became a net importer to cover its domestic grain needs for poultry farms and other industries. This had the effect of driving up prices and reversing the flow of grain (that is, from Niger to Nigeria), until the government of Niger decided to close its land borders in May 2005 (Gesellschaft, 2011). At the time, Niger's early warning system did not detect the direction and volume of grain flows from Nigeria and failed to anticipate the impacts. The food situation was analysed in a national perspective only, whereas Niger's economy is highly dependent on trade with neighbouring countries. Yet, the West African production shortfall had been predicted as early as December 2004 by the Regional Food Crisis Prevention and Management Scheme under the auspices of the standing intergovernmental committee to fight drought in the Sahel by ECOWAS.

The transborder trade between Nigeria and Niger Republic through Jibia border greatly helps the economy of the two countries and most of this trade is about food because it involves grain and livestock. Trading which is regarded as selling and buying of goods and services definitely

exists between the Nigerian people and those of Niger through the Jibia border. Also, these two countries are members of ECOWAS which reduces the protocol of transborder trade between them, and despite ECOWAS, there are several trade agreement between Nigeria and Niger Republic.

## **1.2 STATEMENT OF RESEARCH PROBLEM**

The transborder trade between Niger and Nigeria through Jibia border helps to achieve free trade and deeper integration within the West-African sub-region. Therefore, the respective governments of Nigeria and Niger must put in more energy into getting policies right that concern trade between these two large and dynamic economies. They should address the regional trade barriers and strengthen trade agreements that enhance regional integration.

In West Africa, and Niger-Nigeria in particular, the processes and degree of regional trade relations have lagged behind expectations and many political commitments have either not been translated into policy and regulatory reforms where policies exist they are not being implemented.

The commitments of Niger and Nigeria towards transborder trade at the Jibia border in the region thus remains weakly formalized with

continuing tariff barriers (for example, restrictive rules of origin ) and substantial non-tariff barriers. This weakness in terms of transborder trade, between Nigeria and Niger may likely create tension between the two countries leading to food insecurity.

There is still no agreement at the ECOWAS level on the precise structure of the common external tariff and the existing scheme for regional free trade. This work will look at the regional integration process in transborder trade in relation to food security, specifically focussing on the Jibia-Dan isa axis of the Nigeria and Niger border.

### **1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

- The major objective of this research is to explore and explain how the transborder trade operates between Niger and Nigeria through the Jibia-Dan-isa axis.
- Also to find out the linkage between transborder trade and food security in Niger and Nigeria.
- Another objective of this work is to examine the trade restrictions and barriers.
- As well as how tariffs weakening the trade in Jibia-Dan-isa, border resulting to food shortage among the communities of the two countries.

- The work is aimed at shedding light on the impact of transborder trade vis-à-vis food security which causes a lot of tension in the lives of the communities of these two great nations of the region.

#### **1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The study which has become significantly necessary and therefore, this research has designed the following questions and will attempt to answer them:

- i. What is the nature of the transborder trade between Nigeria and Niger?
- ii. How can transborder trade contribute to the economic development of the country?
- iii. Is there a link between transborder trade barriers, tariff and food insecurity in Niger and Nigeria?
- iv. What are the restrictions on Niger-Nigeria trade at the Jibia border?
- v. How do such trade restrictions cause illegal trade in the Niger-Nigeria border at Jibia and Dan-isa?

## **1.5 SIGNIFICANCE AND JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY**

The research work is essentially significant and also justified on the ground that it would help the countries in the West African sub-region bring about the removal of trade barriers and other restrictions for the economic development of the region, because such restrictions limit the trade and other commercial transactions in the region.

The study is also relevant in further explaining how vital transborder trade is and how it may help in ensuring food security in the two countries, because transborder trade and transactions determine the prices of local commodities in Niger and Nigeria. Also, it will help in explaining the measures to be used for utilises food when there is a shortfall in the country, and how to source food from neighbouring countries. Indeed, efficient utilisation and promotion of transborder trade would enhance the economic development of the countries.

This research will no doubt be counted as a contribution to the original body of knowledge that will attract further research and more contributions elucidating other aspects of transborder trade. Likewise, policy makers might explore important issues to enable them advance their understanding of policy issues for policy redirection and changes.

## **1.6 SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

The scope of the study would only cover Jibia, Katsina State, Nigeria and Dan-isa, Maradi State, Niger Republic. It would consider transborder trade relations between Nigeria and Niger Republic through this border and restricted for the period of fifteen years from (1999 to 2014). The emphasis would be on transborder trade on foodstuffs and livestock transactions in the border market, also with the impact on food security in Nigeria and Niger.

A major limitation of this study encountered was the border authorities which include Nigeria Immigration Service, Nigerian Customs Service, Nigerian Pent Health, Nigeria Quarantines, apathy or the wariness of disclosing vital information that may contravene the Official Secret Act. For example, the Nigerian Custom Service (Katsina – Kaduna Area Command) refused to release the trade records and payment schedules covering the Jibia border. However, all these would not impact negatively on the study as the researcher would undertake personal visits and conduct interviews so that these perceived limitations might be mitigated.

## **1.7 METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION**

This section of the study deals with the methods used in collecting the required data. In this research, therefore, the data were collected through two major sources, that is, specialised interview and documentary method. The specialised interview constitutes the original or firsthand source of information gathered through the conduct of specialised interviews with the Jibia border authorities, including Nigerian Customs service, Nigeria Immigration Service, Nigeria Pent Health, Nigeria Quarantines these all belong to first category. The second category was Beans Traders Association and Nagarta Date-nut sellers Association. The last were the leaders of the communities around the border that provided us with relevant and valid information for the research. Hence, a specialised interview with open-ended questions that would help secure privileged information was designed and distributed to the subjects of this research in order to collect the relevant information. The information collected on sensitive questions expressed by the subjects of the research proved to be very useful for our study.

The secondary method of data collection entailed the gathering of information based on secondary data, which include published books, journal, articles, reports, conference papers, newspapers, magazines and internet materials. The methodology used for data analysis is largely

based on qualitative descriptive technique. Thus, the secondary method of data collection will be comprised of materials from the area of academic interest and some scholarly published literature.

Similarly, articles found to be very related to this study, from government or individual publications, official statements or declarations which offer necessary information, have been subjected to assessment for their relevance and importance to the research on transborder and food security.

Thus, for example, the qualitative data method is conceptual-substantive when it might be the only source of data available to study certain research problems, particularly on social, economic and political variables. When it is on comparative purposes, it may take care of the enlarged scope of generalisations for useful insights in a research. The sample size, its representativeness, and the number of observations which could lead to more encompassing generalisation.

The qualitative data also helps a lot in the economy of cost, in a widely covered research area. therefore, considering the high cost of gathering new data, it is cheaper to go on library research technique (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1987; Alvesson and Skoldberg, 2000).

## **CHAPTER TWO**

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

#### **2.0 INTRODUCTION**

Nigeria and Niger Republic like many other developing countries consider trade as the main engine of development strategies, because of the implicit belief that trade can create jobs, expand markets, raise incomes, facilitate competition and disseminate knowledge and help in food production and supply (WTO, 2005). The main thrust of trade policy is therefore the enhancement of competitiveness of domestic industries with a view to stimulating local value-added and promoting a diversified export base. Trade policy also seeks through gradual liberalisation of the trade regime to create an environment that is conducive to increased capital inflows and to transfers and adoption of appropriate technologies. Nigeria and Niger pursue the liberalisation of their trade regimes in a very measured manner which would ensure that the result and domestic costs of adjustment do not outweigh the benefits.

The reforms which accompany this policy direction are also aimed at re-orient the attitudes and practices towards modern ways of doing business. However, the instrument of trade policy such as the tariff regime is designed in a manner which allows a certain level of protection

of domestic industry and enterprise. An assessment of Nigeria's trade policy since the 1960s reflects a trend which has witnessed extreme policy swings from high protectionism in the first few decades after independence to its current more liberal stance (Adenikinju, 2005).

Tariffs have at various times been used to raise fiscal revenue, limit imports to safeguard foreign exchange or even protect the domestic food producers from competition but yet high tariff on food items increases the price of the food and limited the purchasing power of the household. In addition, various forms of non-tariff barriers such as quotas, prohibitions and licensing schemes have on various occasions been extensively used to limit imports of particular items. The overall pattern portrays the long held belief that trade policy can be used to influence the trade regime.

Nigeria used certain directions that can promote economic growth. Attempts were made to use trade policy to promote manufactured exports and enhance food security and the linkages in the domestic economy to increase and stabilise export revenue and scale down the country's reliance on the oil sector (Olaniyi, 2005).

Trade policies were accordingly directed at discouraging dumping, supporting import substitution, stemming adverse movements in the balance of payments, conserving foreign exchange and generating

government revenue (Bankole, 2004). However, during the first decade of independence, Nigeria pursued an import substitution industrialisation strategy. This involved the use of trade policy to provide effective protection to local manufacturing industries through such measures as quantitative restrictions and high import duties. Many items were accordingly placed on import prohibition. Based on that assertion Nigeria stopped the importation of rice and other food items in order to support the home industries and domestic famers.

## **2.1 TRANSBORDER TRADE IN NIGERIAN/NIGER BORDER**

Transborder trade refers to buying and selling that happens across international borders. The term applies regardless of whether the sales and purchases in question were made in different national sites or on the same site with the buyer and the seller merely originating from a different area (Hsiao , 2008). He further added that any good sold by a seller in one country border is considered to be transborder trade and larger sellers learn to buy and learn to sell in international market.

Border as “country line” redirects for the citizens to know the demarcation of their territory, while some see country line as (disambiguation). Border is defined as geographic boundaries of political entities or legal jurisdiction, such as government, sovereign states, federal

states and other sub-national entities. Some borders such as state's internal administrative borders, or inter-state border are open and completely unguarded. Other borders are partially or fully controlled legally only at designated border (Paranello, 2010).

Transborder trade in Nigeria and Niger are increasingly attracting attentions of traders because of the benefits derives from the trade and have historical roots (Haward and Shain, 2005). Both the historical spatial and the political science perspectives have considered transborder trade in rather very significance terms.

Border markets in Nigeria and Niger deal with combination of several scales; border markets are central places for both producers and consumers at the local scale. They provide business opportunities to small traders who exploit border differentials between twin countries, often a particularly favourable location for larger merchants willing to develop trans-national rates. Fernandez and Gould (1989) argue that Social Network Analysis relational theories of social interaction and analytical tools developed by neoliberal theories provides an interesting opportunity for analysis to cross border trade networks. The success of crossborder trade networks results from ability to combine a strong embeddedness with brokerage ties (Waliher , 2009). We further added that transborder trade is seen as any transaction that crosses national borders. Sometimes,

the term is restricted to trade between two countries that have a common border.

Borders are artificially constructed, geographic or astronomic lines that form the boundary of a nation. Within this delimited boundary, a nation exercises power and jurisdiction and carries out its activities. In accordance with the sovereignty of the state, the central government can curtail, restrict or totally ban the unauthorised movement of goods and services across such lines (Afolayan , 2002). Hanse (1981) also argued that borderlands are defined as extending beyond the delimited border, covering an area that marks a nation's sphere of influence. He further describes it as the sub-national areas whose economic and social life is directly and significantly affected by proximity. Contiguous countries have closely linked borderlands separated by an international boundary.

The two main socio-economic processes that take place across an international border are the movement of people and goods for trade. This movement is an integrative process that links people on both sides of the border; it breaks down artificially imposed barriers and generates interaction. Transborder movement and trading are usually considered as socio-economic activities across artificial boundaries. In contrast, they are perceived here as activities or processes that take place in the area on

either one or both sides of the border. Consequently, in this study, transborder trade is seen as encompassing the crossborder trade.

Transborder trading has its own features. It is an economic activity that can be regarded as being both internal (within one nationality) and international. What is more, the classification of trading activities becomes complex when describing buying and selling at the border, where each can be regarded as a distinct activity. Trading thus involves everyday buying and selling, semi-formalised marketing activities and formal trading transactions. The transactions are of course subject to the conditions of supply and demand (Afolayan , 2002).

## **2.2 FOOD SECURITY IN AFRICA: FOOD ACCESSIBILITY, AVAILABILITY AND AFFORDABILITY IN NORTH AFRICA**

Though many proponents are in line with the position that free trade will increase food security, this hypothesis (assumption) has been greatly criticised in some academic and policy making circles. The object of food security in trade openness is increasingly threatened today. While in some West African countries soaring food prices in 2008 and the socio-political upheaval resulting there from are eloquent testimonies presented by the stand of academic and policy makers who question the validity of free trade as a means to food security (Asongu, 2012). Subjection of a basic human need (food, for example) to the whims and

caprices of speculation in financial markets points to what extent globalisation could really be detrimental when both unregulated financial and trade liberalisation simultaneously come into play.

The WTO Agreement on Agriculture (AOA) has promoted an industrial model of agriculture that has jeopardised food security in developing countries. AOA has incorporated three broad areas of commitments from member states, notably in market access, export subsidies and domestic support (Welbrot & Beker, 2002).

The global food chain is increasingly distorted by the inequalities in power between global agribusiness on the one hand and farmers and consumers on the other hand. A case in point is the removal of quantitative restrictions which has resulted in declining commodity prices (Francis & Corma, 2001).

Alarmingly, all developed and industrialised countries have the right to impose special safeguard provisions if agricultural imports distort their domestic markets and these countries up till 1999 had used this provision several times (Asongu, 2012). Thus, with the available weight of negative effects of trade openness on agriculture, small and marginal farmers are the worst hit. Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAP) imposed by the IMF and World Bank which are sympathetic to trade

openness policies on the one hand and highly subsidised cheap agricultural imports from developed countries on the other hand, have pushed farmers to abandon subsistence farming, for cash crop production. Even with this change in strategy, they are increasingly coming to grasp with the situation where the cost of the agricultural inputs is much higher than the actual returns they get from their production, since cash crop prices are subservient to speculations and other inhuman financial practices at the international level (Francis & Corma, 2001).

Developing countries are the backbone for an import substitution or export-led industry that had happened as a result of the collapse of many industries in the developing world. This is essential for developing countries given the negative consequences of openness on the domestic industry. Most African countries are agro-based with over 12% of the world's population in Sub-Saharan Africa producing only 1% of global output (Easterly, 2005). Thus, industrial backbone building will help in strategic self-dependence to a certain degree. The solid industrial base should be accompanied with an export-led strategy that optimises existing labour-intensive skills and resources in the countries. This will help in ensuring higher employment rates and per-capital incomes, which will then create favourable conditions for capital intensive and technology-oriented import-substitution strategies (Easterly, 2005).

The emphasis is on regional trade and capacity building. Though developed countries are the main proponents of globalisation, they are not following the lofty goals of the free-trade concept they preach. The USA and continental Europe, protagonists of globalisation, are merely practicing preferential trade. The North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) and European Community (EC) are two bright examples of such a preferential treatment for developed countries. Since developing countries are still not economically sound to open their markets fully to the world, they should also gear towards preferential trade blocks which will increase their bargaining power and influence in the World Trade Organisation's (WTO) decision making bodies. Such efforts will ultimately have a positive impact on human resources development and food security in member states (Grennes, 2003).

According to this work the food security which is one of the operational concept of the research. Therefore, food security here considered as all people at all time have physical and economic access to adequate amount of nutrition, safe and culturally appropriate foods, and the people who produce the food are able to earn a decent living wage, growing, caching, producing, transporting and serving food(FAO,2001).

Based on that assertion the three major pillars of food security comprises of food accessibility, availability and affordability which are

reviewed in the literature.

Food access is one of the food security pillars. Food security encompasses physical and economic access to food. For the North African people affordability is a key factor determining access to food. Food affordability is dependent not only on food cost but also on the disposable income that can be spent on food. The work attempts to analyse food accessibility at household and country levels in Nigeria and Niger.

Recent debates on food security, nutrition and health have contributed to moving these topics higher up in the list of development programme priorities. Recent events around the globe in general and in Africa in particular have put more attention and pressure onto food security (Hassan-wassef,2012).

The 1996 World Food Summit (WFS) definition of food security was reaffirmed and amended officially in the 2009 declaration of the world summit on food security. Food security exists when all people at all times have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food to meet their dilatory needs preference for an active and healthy life (CFS, 2012). Food and nutrition security is another way to combine elements of both food security and nutrition security. It is a term that has used more frequently during the past number of years to

emphasise the need for greater integration of nutrition into food security policies and programme (CFS,2012).Food security is built on four pillars (CFS,2012 and UN-HLTF,2011).

- Food access having sufficient quantities of food availability on a consistent basis.
- Food access having sufficient resources to obtain appropriate foods for a nutritious diet.
- Food use appropriate use based on knowledge of basic nutrition and care.
- Stability in food availability, access and utilization.

Although, food access availability and utilization are very influenced by food system activities, other drivers determine these outcomes as well. Three elements contribute to food availability, production, distribution, and exchange. Accessibility of food can be described by elements affordability, allocation, and preference. The three elements of food utilization and nutritional value, social value and food safety (Ericksons,2008).

FAO`s most recent estimates indicates that globally a total of 842 million people in 2011-2013 around one in eight people in the world or 12 percent of global population, were estimated to be

suffering from chronic hunger, regularly not meeting their dietary energy requirements to conduct an active life. The vast majority of hungry people 872 million live in developing regions where the prevalence of undernourishment is now estimated at 14.3 million based on the percentages (FAO, IFAD, and WFP,2013).This figure is lower than the 868 million reported with reference to 2010-2012 (FAO, IFAD, and WFP, 2013). The total number of undernourished has fallen by 17 percent since 1990-1992(FAO,IFAD and WFP,2013).

Hunger defined as the lack of sufficient calories goes hand-in-hand with other forms of malnutrition such as protein, vitamin and mineral deficiencies (FAO, 2012). Micronutrient malnutrition often referred to as hidden hunger, affects approximately 2 billion people world-wide, more than one-third of global population (UN-Zero hunger challenge, 2012).

Globally, the number of overweight people has reached more than 1.4 billion adults (WHO, 2012). The highest rates are observed also in North-Africa and the near North (FAO,IFAD and WFP,2012). The emerging dietary habits are not a disastrous trajectory for human health for ecosystem and health (Giovannucci et`al, 2012).

Variables that are the mainspring of food security in the north Africa region are numerous and their prioritisation depends very much on context which purchasing power, lifestyles and eating habits are recurrent problems throughout the region and ones which must be overcome if food safety is to be ensured, industrialization models, production and logistic conditions are problems more specific to the northern African region, whereas cultural models and consumer and producer education are the main difficulties in the south.

The main food security variables identified by Padilla (2008) are population pressure, poverty structural inadequacies in the production sector distribution system, government policy, ability to compensate for inadequate food supplies, and civil security and political stability.

One of the most important challenges faced especially by north African countries is food and nutrition security (FAO, and RNE, 2011). The North African region faces a number of very distinct food security challenges. The region is the most food import dependent region in the world, the population is projected to double by 2050, poverty and malnutrition levels are high (IFRI and IFPRI, 2010).

The food imbalance in North African countries is obvious and all foresight analyses converge towards a worsening of food shortage. According to Agrimonde, the northern African region is at risk of experiencing a critical situation in 2050. In 2003, the gap between local resources and consumption reached 35%. In 2050 this gap would be reaching nearly 60% which would make the region the most vulnerable in the world in terms of food security (Rastoin and Cheriet, 2010).

Food and nutrition security in the north African region today is not so much a problem of calories, but of lacking vitamins and other micro-nutrient (CIDOB, 2012). In most North African countries food security seems assured for now in quantitative terms although this apparent security relies on imports. According to FAO's criteria, based mainly on a serving's calorie content north African countries are not in critical condition nowadays indeed, less than 5% of the world population in these countries is below 2400 kcal/day/person (Rastoin and Cheriet, 2010). However, food availability, food affordability and quality and safety is still a challenge countries (Economic Global Food Security Index,2012).

The ability to access food rests on two pillars: Economic and Physical access (FAO, IFAD and WFP, 2013). Economic and physical access to food is an important component of food nutrition security. Food accessibility is fundamentally dependent on food production, but this can

be local or distant, if distant local food availability also depends on trade systems, and on package. This adds to the cost of production at distance in much less than locally so as to offset these additional costs (Ingram, 2011).

For most people a key factor determining access to food is its affordability (Ingram,2011).The accessibility dimension embraces Sen`s core thesis that food availability does not guarantee that everyone is free from hunger (Sen,1981).The fact that the undernourished population has increased by 9% despite the 12% increase of global food production since 1990 (Barrett,2010). Implies that food insecurity occurred at a time of abundance (Webb, 2010). Food insecurity was little affected by increased in global food production (Panganibowo, Gerber and Torero,2013). Supplying enough food to a given population is a necessary albeit not a sufficient, condition to ensure that people have adequate access to food (FAO, IFAD and WFP, 2013).

Food affordability and economic accessibility are dependent not only on food cost but also on the disposable income that can be spend on food (FAO,2013- and Ingram 2011). Access is also determine by the way society allocates food preferences (Ingram,2011). Access to food primarily determined by incomes, food prices and the ability of households and individuals to obtain access to social support, individuals

access to food is also heavily influenced by social variables including gender, positioning and power hierarchies within households (FAO, IFAD and WFP,2013).

For many among north-African consumers, income is a major barrier to freedom of nutrition and sustainable food choice. The present food economy does not deliver enough food to major parts of population which market prices do not remunerate the costs that farmers should support to implement sustainable practices (Kickbusch, 2010).

The problem of hunger has been accentuated by high food prices in low income countries food consumption expenditure typically account for 50% or more of households budgets. In lower middle income countries the figure is about 40% the principal cause of food insecurity remains poverty and inadequate income (OECD, 2013). The share of food expenditure on total income in North African countries is high, people in the area spend a relatively large share of their income on food 35% to 55% entailing, a major exposure to shocks, such as food crisis and high food prices (Albers and Peeters, 2011).

A number of complex factor drive food prices including competition for natural resources especially land (Brown 2012, and Cohen 2002). Population growth rising affluence urbanization

(Brown,2012). Biofuels productions and shifting dietary demand for livestock production (Giovannucci et`al 2012). Food prices are also influenced by diets shifting. Economic analyses have shown that diets with lower energy density that is calories provided by whole grains and fresh produce, tend to be associated with higher food costs than calories from refined grains, added sugars and added fats (Rolls et`al2005).

Different driver and process indicators have been used to assess food economic accessibility at macro and micro levels. The driver indicators present the current conditions that hinder or facilitate to food. At the macro level indicators of macro-economic profile such as agricultural import tariff, inflation rate, exchange and food price index are considered as important food nutritious security access indicators. The economic indicators of accessibility aim to capture the effects of food prices, especially their evolutional variability and other economic shocks as well as the mechanism food price formation. Among the process indicators, the presence of price regulation in a country is important to prevent the adverse consequences of food price change (Parganibawo, Gerber, and Torero,2013).

The price controls to manage price stability include marketing services through a sound market information system as well as crop forecasting and trade policies. The combination of food, fuel and

financial crisis has reminded about the need to build resilience over the longer term setting up the price regulation and effective social protection system that ensure people`s food nutrition security (Timmer, 2010).

Price volatility has a strong impact on the poor and on food importing countries. It also risks modifying diets especially of the poorest as they tend to shift to cheaper, less preferred and poorer quality food (HLPE, 2011). Pressures on food price are exacerbated by volatile market dynamics and inadequate global coordination (Giovannucci et`al,2012, Headey and Shenggen 2010). The recent rise in international food prices has had diverse consequences for consumers at the country level because of several factors. These include the less than complete price transmission from international to domestic markets which has several causes including policies and extent to which vulnerable population groups are net food buyers or sellers. The result is that consumers have suffered a serious decline of purchasing power in some countries while remaining largely unaffected by higher prices in others (FAO,2013).

At the household and individual level, access to health care centres, social protection, safety nets and transfer programmes are all important interventions in the context of food nutrition security (FNS) and particularly access to food issues in times of crisis. Better access to health care positively associated with better health status (Frankenberg,1995 and

Utomo et`al 2011). Process indicators of structural FNS are dealing with the institutional change which ensures broader access to land and financial institution (Parganibawo, Gerber and Torero, 2013).

Two indicators throw light on the ability of developing countries to finance food import expenditure in total merchandise imports. A rising share might suggest increasing difficulty in acquiring the desired level of imports. For the world as a whole, the importance of food imports merchandise imports is falling from around 15% in 1961 around 5% in 21 century. A second indicator of affordability is the coverage ratio, defined as the share of food import expenditure in a country`s foreign exchange earnings. Import expenditure can be financed by aid inflows and by borrowing, but in the longer run a country will find it easier to rely on food imports if it can finance these imports from its foreign earnings. Foreign earning include not only merchandise trade but also service export earnings and migrants remittances for the shorter period 1995 to 2011 a dawn ward trend in the coverage ratio is evident. Nonetheless, for many developing countries food import bills are becoming unsustainable (OECD,2013).

According to Saravia-matus et`al (2012) food security concerns also macro-economic issues such as commodity price, volatility international trade and market stability. Her work relates to that of (sen,

1981, Tomlinson, 2011 and Smith et al 2000). To recall that the emphasis in the economic literature dealing with food security has lately shifted from income earning and purchasing power, to food access as the main constraint to food security conditions of the north-African countries such as structural dependency from import to satisfy domestic demand (IFPRI, 2012).

### **2.3 REGIONALISM AND INTEGRATION IN AFRICA IN THE 21<sup>ST</sup> CENTURY**

In order to assess regionalism in Africa, such efforts must be placed within the context of neo-liberalism, globalisation and political instability in Africa (Lee, 2001). Neoliberalism, the orthodoxy that calls for limited governmental intervention in the economy; privatisation, the demise of the welfare state, the monetary and fiscal discipline (the so-called Washington Consensus) has been at the forefront of economic policies in Africa in the guise of IMF/World Bank, Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs), (Onimode, 2000).

While the demand for an outward-looking trade policy, namely the removal of barriers to trade, has done more to open economies than African regional economic organisations have been able to do, such liberalisation has not resulted in increased inter-regional trade among African countries but instead with the core-states within the capitalist world economy. This increased trade, however, has for the

most part been one way, with the core countries having flooded the African periphery with more efficiently produced and cheaper products that have caused massive industry closing or de-industrialisation (Onimode, 2000).

Globalisation according to Robert Keohane and Joseph Nye (2000), is a state of the world involving networks of interdependence of multi-continental regardless of the distances. The linkages occur through flows and influences of capital and goods, information , ideas, people and forces, as well as environmentally and biologically relevant substances (such as acid rain or pathogens). Globalisation refers to the increase in globalism (Keohane and Nye, 2000).

The implications of globalisation for Africa in general, and for integration and regionalism in Africa in particular, have been significant. The benefits of globalisation have been unevenly distributed throughout the world, resulting in many least developing countries, including most in Africa, being further marginalised within the world economy. Sub-Saharan African countries remain constrained by weak supply and demand capabilities to other countries to reap potential trade, investment, and technological transformation benefits from globalisation, whereas for other communities it has contributed to increased impoverishment, inequalities, work insecurity, weakening of institutions and social support systems and erosion of established identities and values. Thus, for a

considerable amount of people, this leads to less human security, food insecurity, more vulnerability and increased social conflict (Boas et al, 1999).

Sub-Saharan Africa's further marginalisation is ironic in that many of these countries are highly integrated into the world economy, with exports consisting of an estimated 30% of GDP. The problem, of course, is that the majority of these exports consists of primary products and thus are subject to price fluctuations on the global market. The prices for many of these commodities are at their lowest in a century and a half, and African countries have not increased their export levels, nor have they been successful in securing significant foreign investment (UNDP, 1999).

With respect to regionalism in Africa, globalisation has resulted in some countries feeling that integration at the regional level is secondary to integration at the global level. While clearly for political reasons this is not publicly articulated, it can however, be seen in practice (Asongu, 2011). As Lee (2007) noted that African governments are now being told, and they appear convinced, that globalisation offers new higher economic opportunities for which Africa must, in the words of IMF deputy managing director David Lipton, sharply accelerate reforms to fully integrate itself into the world economy and take full advantage of the opportunities of globalisation. Thus, the attitude in most African

governments now appear to mean that the ascribed opportunities of globalisation are so great that they are worth the enormous social, economic and political costs associated with adjustment.

In practice, this means that semi-peripheries, such as South Africa, seize upon opportunities to further integrate their economies into the world economy, both at the expense of their own workers and industries and its regional integration partners (Kaih & Hamori, 2009). The recent European Union/Southern Africa Free Trade Agreement (FTA) reflects this phenomenon. South Africa signed the agreement knowing that it would have a devastating impact on both the members of Southern African Customs Union (SACU) and the Southern African Development Community (SADC). With respect to SACU, the agreement was reached without the consultation of other countries in the region (Kaih and Hamori, 2009).

Another chance that many African countries feel they must take is joining the World Trade Organisation (WTO). The WTO is one of the most vivid examples of globalisation and neoliberalism at its best (Collier, Hoeffler and Parttillo, 2001). They further argue that the WTO will basically allow the capitalist core to have greater access to the trade regimes of the periphery. Through the multilateral liberalism that will be overseen by the WTO, it is estimated that Africa could lose an estimated

\$2 billion annually in revenue. Knowing this, why have African countries chosen to join the WTO? They joined WTO largely because of fears that they will become further marginalised within the world economy if they do not. In essence, African countries find themselves between a rock and hard places; they stand to become more marginalised within the world economy or keep them closed; this is an interesting paradox (Collier, Hoeffler and Partillor, 2001).

The practice of regionalism in Africa has been pursued for two reasons. The first is to enhance political unity or the pan-African agenda. The second has been economic to foster growth and development. Regionalism, especially market integration, has been seen as a way to solve the problems created by small African economies. By integrating, it is argued that economies of scale would be realised and enhanced industrialisation would follow (McCarthy, 1999). According to Lee (2007).

The earlier attempts at implementing market integration were inward-looking and relied on Import Substitution Industrialisation (ISI). Trade regimes were highly protected and high-priced inefficient products proved to be no substitute for cheaper, efficient products from the capitalists. Core protectionism in many cases prevented countries from importing into their countries inputs needed for enhanced industrialisation. Increased intra-regional trade, the major objective of market integration was for the most part not realised partially because

member countries produced similar products and therefore they did not have comparative advantages and the problem of maintenance of tariff and non-tariff barriers of trade.

The 1980s witnessed a change in strategy in that through SAPs, countries were forced to liberalise their trade regimes. Unfortunately, this was unilateral liberalisation. In fact, during this period, the international financial institutions explicitly discouraged market integration and encouraged African countries to unilaterally open their markets to the world economy. Market integration in Africa was seen as being counter-productive to the neo-liberal orthodoxy that promoted the ability of the capitalist core to have unlimited ability to export to the African periphery in the name of efficiency and competition. Although beginning in the 1990s, the International Financial Institutions began to support market integration; unilateral liberalisation has not, for the most part, resulted in increased intra-regional trade. In explaining the failure of the member states of the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) to increase intra-regional trade, Olatunde (2000) noted that as a result of the negative impact of unilateral liberalisation had on member states during the 1980s, including de-industrialisation, there was no incentive for ECOWAS states to further liberalise their trade regime. Ojo (2000) further argues that governments already losing revenue from SAP

imposed liberalisation of external trade have been in no mood to improve free trade further, even at the regional level.

According to Boas et al (1999), market integration has failed in the African continent for several reasons among which are:

- Lack of comparative advantage and economic scale
- Huge economic disparity between member states
- The unequal distribution of benefits, resulting in the regional giants being the main beneficiary of integration efforts.
- The implementation of SAPs that have been counter-productive to the regional agenda.
- Overlapping membership in regional economic organisations resulting in contradictions in policy objectives and goals.
- Lack of political commitment to regionalism
- Dependence on external donors to fund the regional agenda, thus giving them autonomy to determine policy.
- The failure to address the realities of the African environment.

With respect to market integration, scholars like Asiwajo (2000), Bankole (2014) and Badio (2010) noted that, one thing which at least seems to be obvious is that, actors in the South should think very carefully about the fruitfulness of following the blueprint of the European Union or other

regional schemes from the North. If regional organisation is to play a real role in the economies of the South, it has to be embedded into the real life context of these economies (Boas et al, 1999).

The regionalism and globalisation in the light of the failure to date of regionalism in Africa, numerous scholars have made recommendations for the way forward. Two of these recommendations will be examined, along with a third that stems from the theory and practice of regionalism in Africa. External guarantors of the failure of market integration in Africa and the realities of the world economy resulted in Fine and Yeo (1997) proposing a new paradigm for regional integration in Africa. The new paradigm argues that regional integration should be anchored in an external guarantor, such as the European Union.

The argument for such an arrangement is premised on the notion that previous attempts at regional integration, at least in ECOWAS, have failed to realise even a modest part of their stated aims. Renewed efforts along these traditional lines are not advisable for two reasons:

Firstly, close integration in terms of freer flows of goods and services is now more likely to result from unilateral tariff reduction that confers most-favoured nation status on one's neighbours. Second, there are unlikely to be any significant immediate economic gains at

least in the short run from access to a larger local market and the removal of trade distortions. Certainly, such gains would not justify a major effort to shore up existing regional entities that, for reasons argued earlier, are inappropriately structured since they were designed to pursue a very different approach to economic development (Fine and Yeo, 1997).

With sustained economic growth as the ultimate rationale for closer regional integration, Fine and Yeo (1997) noted that we depart from traditional approaches to regional integration by suggesting that its virtues lie not in its ability to stimulate new trade, but rather in its ability to provide a framework for locking in sound and stable macro-economic policies that will in turn induce faster accumulation and more effective utilisation of physical and human capital. Such stable macro-economic policies would be overseen by an external guarantor such as the European Union (EU).

In analysing this model, McCarthy(1999) acknowledges that bringing the European Union in as an external power through agreements that will ensure sound macro-economic policies in West African countries does remind one of the politically indigestible suggestions in some circles that the economic problems of Africa could be solved, through recolonisation of the continent. Nonetheless, McCarthy argues

that the idea makes eminent sense. While the idea of having external guarantors does raise the controversial issue of the recolonisation of Africa, the EU does not view Anglophone Africa in the same light as France views Francophone Africa. One could therefore not anticipate the EU investing in Anglophone African economic survival to the extent that France has invested in Francophone African survival; and this work is based on Nigeria and Niger Republic where each one is represent each of the bloc respectively.

Boas et al (1999) argues that states in the West African sub-region should return back to the basic strategy of regionalism. Such a strategy should start with the actual formal and informal trade flows and cooperation networks which already exist. As these flows and networks exist mainly between neighbouring countries like Niger and Nigeria, it suggests that the multitude of informal and formal cross-border trade activity should in fact constitute the starting point for formal regional organisation. In this way, existing regional cross-border trading practices and related activities will inform the creation of formal regionalisation schemes while these regional institutions in turn could and often do structure informal regional practices and activities (Boas et al, 1999).

The need to reattach the informal sector with the formal is very apparent in West Africa. For example, the ECOWAS borders are so

porous that according to ECOWAS study, there exists more informal trade between Nigeria and Niger, or Niger and Benin than formal trade (Mindle and Makhmara, 1998).

Regionalism and globalisation as explained does not co-exist well within the African context. In fact, it appears to be counter-productive to the African leaders, and economic and political forces within the capitalist core must do their part to remedy the situation.

Although regionalism as currently practiced in Africa is definitely a problem, it does not mean however, that the regional agenda should be abandoned. What it means is that objectives of the regional agenda should be re-defined to take into consideration African, and not European, realities. Calls for the rejection of the EU model of market integration are not new. The theoretical literature is replete with reasons why the EU model has failed in Africa. Although African leaders criticise the international financial institutions for imposing the same medicine that continues to make African economies sick; they, in turn, continue to impose the medicine of market integration that only deepens the sickness of their economies. This does not mean that market integration should be rejected outright. What it suggests is that as the benefits of structural adjustment would have perhaps been realised had SAP policies been introduced incrementally. Similarly, market integration could perhaps be realised if it is implemented incrementally (Lee, 2007).

This would require that African countries first put in place the prerequisites for such integration. How then can regionalism and

globalisation co-exist and lead to economic growth and development in Africa? First and foremost, African leaders must discontinue the practice of designing and or supporting grandiose schemes based on the EU model. Lessons should be learned from the Southern Africa Development Commission (SADC) when it erected the EU model as a basis for enhancing regional growth and development. The SADC came out with its model for development of food productions through supporting their farmers in agricultural productions that helped the region and achieved food security in southern Africa. Regional cooperation should be pursued as part of any regional economic strategy. Therefore, ECOWAS need to copy from SADC although both SADC and ECOWAS have experienced their greatest success, not in implementing market integration, but in implementing regional projects designed to help facilitate economic growth and development (Friendrich and Hendrik, 1998).

The SADC power pool, for example, is experiencing tremendous success in attempting to integrate the electrical power grids of all the member states. This will not only serve to guarantee the availability of electricity when states experience shortages, it will also make available to the population reliable and affordable electricity (Minde and Nakhumwu, 1998).

## **2.4 DEVELOPMENT AND TRADE INTEGRATION IN AFRICA**

In the case of both ECOWAS and SADC, the development of or improvement in existing regional infrastructure and food security enhances the ability of countries to have access to markets of each country and it allows those historically marginalised because of poor infrastructure and food insecurity to become active participants in either their national or regional economy. Again, this is development integration:

Regional cooperation should be accompanied by a strategy of regional integration which is defined as the process by which a group of nation-states voluntarily and in various degrees have access to each other's markets and to establish mechanisms and techniques that maximise internal and external economic, political, social and cultural benefits of their interaction (Handley and Mills, 1997).

Both the formal and informal market is taken into consideration in this definition with respect to the idea of Boas et al (1999) to have the informal economy, leading to a strategy that considers studying the political economy of the informal sector from below, is certainly worth considering. In Southern African region for example, because of trade and through bilateral trade agreements, the region is significantly integrated (Friedrich and Hendrik, 1998).

African countries spend huge sums of money negotiating for free trade agreements (FTA) when in the end member states have made it very clear that it is only when the advantages of FTA outweighs the advantages of bilateral agreements, that they will implement the former (BESE et `al, 2009). In addition, it is very difficult to enforce FTA agreements in Africa. Instead of fighting among themselves for access to regional markets, more time could be spent planning for comparative advantages in anticipation of developing the foundation for market integration (Lee, 2007).

It goes without saying that regional cooperation and regional trade formalization can only be implemented under conditions of political and economic stability. In addition, African leaders should make a serious commitment to the regional agenda. This means the rationalisation of overlapping regional memberships and using African funds to spearhead the regional agenda. Without economic autonomy, the capitalist core will continue to dictate how best the regionalism and globalisation can satisfy its objective of continued economic hegemony in Africa (McCarthy, 1999).

At the beginning of the new millennium it is imperative that African countries begin to seriously redefine both the theory and practice of regionalism in Africa. Although market integration, based on the EU

model, has failed miserably on the continent, African governments continue to adopt it believing the strategy will enhance economic growth and development. (Lee, 2007).

Lee (2007) further argued that one of the major reasons for its failure rest with the fact that the strategy does not take into consideration African realities. Instead of market integration, it is proposed that African leaders adopt strategy that includes both regional cooperation and regional integration. Such a strategy, it is argued, is more conducive to African realities and could perhaps result in Africa's capacity to better co-exist within the weave-world of regionalism and globalisation. Although the implementation of the proposed regional integration and regional cooperation nexus strategy will not solve Africa's economic problems, it will certainly not be counterproductive to the African regional agenda. If placed within the context of African realities, regionalism in Africa can certainly be part of the solution instead of part of the problem.

Globalisation has been recognised as the main force dominating the economic, political and social universe. Indeed, it light-up the world with economic prosperity and seeks a victory of market over government and self-interest over altruism. No less imperative is the global commitment to continuing and accelerating the pace of human

development, which signifies the culminating of the historical processes of cultural progress (Asongu, 2012).

The dilemma is that while globalisation is a lusty, ineluctable historical process whose march can be stopped only by endangering the prosperity of people and nations; it also threatens to disfigure human development in the manner it is evolving. As a dynamic force for change throughout the world, it is causing unprecedented surges in the wealth of nations by extending outwards the world production possibility frontier and redefine the world as a global village (Firebaugh, 2004). On the other hand, it is also reviled as a process destined to cause social and economic disintegration as well as ecological decay. It is feared to be spurring on the race to the bottom by grabbing from the poor and giving to the rich, marginalising nations already integrated in the world economy, decoupling them from scientific advancements carried out in the developed world and widening the pre-existing disparities in the level of economic wellbeing within nations and between nations to a point where they have become socially, morally and economically unacceptable (Asongu, 2011).

Though not in substance, yet in form, there are increasing fears that developed countries may increasingly use globalisation to re-enact colonialism in another way. Thus, not surprisingly, the public support for

globalisation has waned in both developed and developing countries with a frantic search for a third way out of the morally enervating regime of unvarnished capitalism (Easterly, 2005).

In line with Tsai (2006), two theories prevail in the debate over how globalisation affects transborder trade and human wellbeing from the neoliberal and hegemonic schools. “The neoliberal school contends that globalisation is an omnipresent power of creative destruction in that global trade, cross-border trade and investment and technological innovation improve production efficiency and generate extraordinary prosperity despite replacement of old jobs and fall in wages for unskilled workers. Globalisation manages these potential threats by signalling to the latter group about pay-offs from acquiring new skills. Rewards can spread over the masses in response to changes in supply and demand (Grennes, 2003)”.

Empirical studies have also documented that globalisation is fashioned to spread industrialisation to developing countries and hence reduce global income inequality (Firebaugh, 2004). Rodrik et al (2004) find foreign trade closely tied to societal institutional building, which constitute a decisive factor in economic growth.

The second school conceives globalisation as a new hegemonic project. According to Petras and Veltmeyer (2001), globalisation demonstrates the creation of a new world order by the global powers (industrial countries, international financial institutions, world trade organisations, etc.), with the prime objective of facilitating capital

accumulation in an environment of unconstrained market transactions. Petras and Veltmeyer (2001) predict worldwide crisis of living standards for labour since the brunt of the capitalist globalisation process has been borne by the working class as technological change and economic reconversion, endemic to capital development has generated an enormous growing pool of surplus labour, an industrial reserve army with incomes at or below the level of subsistence.

Another stand of this school is that contemporary global system on its neoliberal course has imposed a flexible mode of production that undermines the redistributive mechanisms that were constructed through Keynesian social democracy. As observed by Smart (2003), globalisation features a market ethos whose fervent pursuit of private interest operates without regard for persons (cited in Tsai, 2006). In confirming this assertion, Scholte (2000) posits that an unequal allocation of benefits is generated that favours the already advantaged.

Though this radical stance is not explicitly shared by Sirgy et al (2004), they do predict several negative effects in suggesting globalisation has double-bladed outcomes.

Liberalisation of trade and flows of capital: The increasing trend towards liberalisation denotes a gradual lifting of the tariff and non-tariff

restrictions on the flow of goods and services, factors of production (capital and labour for the most part), and ideas so that these move freely across national borders and ideally as if no national borders existed. A positive movement towards this goal has been eased since 1948 by the General Agreement to Tariffs and Trade (GATT) and since 1995 by the World Trade Organisation (WTO). Both have sought, although with no much success this far to facilitate market access and promote rule based trade in a multilateral and non-discriminatory fashion.

According to Bhagwati (1990), the proliferation of the bilateral trade agreements and the regional trading blocs in the Cold War era have greatly weakened the multilateral trading system. There are definite signs that bilateral trade agreements will become the preferred mode of doing business with the developing countries (to extract better terms of trade than is possible with multilateral bargaining at the WTO where they have received a considerable leverage).

Majority of the developing countries are still largely dependent on agriculture. This implies that, with the advent of globalisation, when developed countries are transiting from an industrial to an information era, most developing countries are still entering the industrialisation phase of development. A great chunk of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of developing countries still comes from the agricultural sector.

As held by Rabbane and Zed (2010), a bumper production of crops usually results in a hike in GDP and vice versa. This low agricultural productivity which may create food insecurity owing to trade openness could be due to the following:

Asongu (2012) argues that there is low government support to domestic farmers, in other words, the absence of subsidised fertiliser and electricity, as well as agricultural capital at low interest rate. It should be recalled that between 40 – 50% of the European Union's (EUs) budget is allocated to agricultural subsidies, of which the agricultural sector represents less than 2% of the GDP and employs less than 2% of the population. This guarantees a minimum price for farmers within the EU. By definition, this is a form of protectionism, inhibiting trade and damaging developing countries in terms of low level of agricultural development and food insecurity (Asongu, 2012).

Secondly, there is the issue of Aggregate Measurement Commitments (AMCs) and Reducing Commitments, which are quite detrimental to developing countries (Rabbane and Zed, 2010). Even the Uruguay Round Agreement on Agriculture (URAA) did not settle interesting terms for poorer nations that are heavily reliant on agriculture. This is because the share of export subsidies for developed countries is

far smaller in overall agricultural support in comparison to that of developing countries.

The potential for production of tariffs will render farmers of developing countries vulnerable to tough competition against highly subsidised agro-products. Tough competition may lead to price reductions and subsequently deterioration of the domestic agricultural industry in African countries. All these in the long run may lead to a large-scale displacement of the rural population owing to rural exodus and food insecurity in developing countries (Welbrot and Beker, 2002).

Brown et al (2001) have calculated the annual loss in the agricultural sector of different countries owing to trade liberalisation. The picture depicts a negative trend in annual GDP in the aftermath of the Agreement, with the South American and Caribbean countries most affected. Subserving, to the peril in agricultural productivity, is the issue of food security and impact on peasants.

## **2.5 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

In order to establish the need for a study of the transborder trade relations between Nigeria and Niger Republic, and the influence of Jibia border market in maintaining food security in the two countries, it is appropriate to discuss the theory within which the study is situated.

The research work is situated within the framework of neo-liberal theory. Its assumptions, development models and policy framework of the free-trade were explored to understand the direction of the theory so as to comprehend its relevance to the research. This theory is chosen simply because it explains in greater detail, matters of social realities about transborder trade in the current era of globalisation.

Neoliberalism is a political philosophy which advocates support economic liberalisation, free trade and open market, privatisation, deregulation and decreasing size of the public sector while increasing the role of the private sector in modern society.

The term neoliberalism was introduced in the late 1930s by the European liberal scholars to promote a new form of liberalism after interest in classical liberalism had declined in Europe.

In the decades that followed, neoliberal theory tended to be at variance with the more laissez-faire doctrine of classical liberalism and promoted instead a market economy under the guidance and rules of a strong state, a model which came to be known as the social market economy. In the sixties, usage of the term “neo-liberal” heavily declined. When the term was reintroduced in the following decades more precisely around 1980s, the meaning had shifted. The term neoliberal is now

normally associated with laissez-faire economic policies, and is used mainly by those who are critical of legislative market reform (Taylor and Jordan, 1994).

The term “neoliberalism” was originally coined in 1938 by the German scholar Alexander Rustow and his colleagues Walter Lippman (Mirowski, 2009; Hartwich, 2009; and Hans-Wernersinn, 2010). The colloquium defined the concept of neoliberalism as “the priority of the price mechanism, the free enterprise, the system of competition and a strong and impartial state” (Mirowaski , 2009). To be “neoliberal” meant that in the name of liberalism a modern economic policy is required (Denard Francois, 2009).

According to Boas and Gans-Merse(1994), nowadays the most common use of the term refers to economic reform policies such as “eliminating price controls, deregulating capital markets and lowering trade barriers, and reducing state influence on the economy, especially by privatisation and fiscal austerity (Taylor and Jordan, 2009). Neoliberalism has become a key object of analysis in transborder trade. Although the words neoliberal and neoliberalism have been around for a long while, it is only since the end of the 1990s that they have taken on the aura of grand theoretical terms. Neoliberalism emerges as an object of conceptual

and empirical reflection in the process of restoring to view a sense of political agency to process previously dubbed globalisation (Hay, 2002).

This research work aims to examine the way in which neoliberalism is conceptualised in transborder trade relations vis-à-vis maintaining food security in both Niger Republic and Nigeria. It argues that theorising neoliberalism as a “political aspect” critical international political economists have ended up producing the same problem they ascribed to the idea they take to be the driving force behind contemporary transformations; they reduce the social to a residual effect of more fundamental political economic rationalities.

Proponents of free markets think that people should act like utility maximising egoists, despite lots of evidence that critics of neoliberalism tend to assume that increasingly, people do act like this but they think that they ought not to. For critics, this is what is wrong with neoliberalism. And it is precisely this evaluation that suggests that there is something wrong with how neoliberalism is theorised in critical political economic relations:

In critical political economic relations, neoliberalism refers in the first instance to a family of ideas associated with the revival of economic liberalism in the mid-twentieth

century. This is taken to include the school of Austrian economics associated with Ludwig Von-Mises, Friedrich Von Hayek and Joseph Schumpeter characterised by a strong commitment to methodological individualism, an antipathy toward centralised state planning, commitment to principles of private property and distinctive anti-rationalist epistemology and the so-called Chicago School of Economics, also associated with Hayek, but including leading monetary economists Milton Friedman and David Hayvey's definition of neoliberalism, condenses a set of emphases that characterise accounts of this object of analysis more generally (Harvey, 2005).

Volcker and Thatcher both plucked from the shadows of relative obscurity, a particular doctrine that went under the name "neoliberalism" and transformed it into the central guiding principle of economic thought and management.

Neoliberalism is in the first instance a theory of political economic practices that proposes that human wellbeing can best be advanced by liberating individual entrepreneurial freedoms and skills within an institutional framework characterised by strong private property rights, free markets and free trade. The role of the state is to create and preserve an institutional framework appropriate to such practices. The state has to guarantee, for example, the quality and integrity of money. It must also set up those military, defence, police and legal structures and functions required to secure private property rights and guarantee, by force if need

be, the proper functioning of markets (Chandrasephar,2010). Furthermore, if markets do not exist (in areas such as land, water, education, healthcare, social security or environmental pollution), then they must be created by state action if necessary. But beyond these tasks, the state should not venture. State interventions in markets once created, must be kept to a bare minimum because, according to the theory, the state cannot possibly get access to enough information to second-guess market signals (prices) and because powerful interest groups will inevitably distort and bias interventions (particularly in democracies) for their own benefits (Harvey, 2005).

According to the theory, the neoliberal state should favour strong individual private property rights, the rule of law, and the institutions of freely functioning markets and free trade (Jessops, 2002). These are the institutional arrangements considered essential to guarantee individual freedoms. The legal framework is that of freely negotiated contractual obligations between juridical individuals in the market place. The sanctity of contracts and the individual right to freedom of action, expression and choice must be protected. The state must therefore use its monopoly of the means of violence to preserve those freedoms at all costs. By extension, the freedom of businesses and corporations (legally regarded as individuals) to operate within this institutional framework of free

markets and free trade is regarded as a fundamental good. Private enterprise and entrepreneurial initiative are seen as the keys to innovation and wealth creation. Intellectual property rights are protected, for example, through patents so as to encourage technological changes. Continuous increases in productivity should then deliver higher living standards to everyone. Under the assumption that “a rising tide lifts all boats or of “trickle down”, neoliberal theory hold that the elimination of poverty (both domestically and worldwide) can best be secured through free markets and free trade (Mirowski, 2009).

Neoliberals are particularly assiduous in seeking the privatisation of assets. Being there is less concerned about clear private property rights as in Nigeria and Niger Republic is seen as one of the greatest of all institutional barriers to economic development and the improvement of human welfare. Enclosure and the assignment of private property rights is considered the best way to protect against the so-called “tragedy of the commons” (the tendency for individuals to irresponsibly super-exploit common property resources, such as land and water). Sectors formerly run or regulated by the state must be turned over to the private sphere and be deregulated, freed from any state interference.

Since the 1990s, activists use the word “neoliberalism” for global market-liberalism (capitalism) and for free-market policies.

“Neoliberalism” is often used interchangeably with “globalisation”. But free markets and global free trade are not new, and this use of the word ignores developments in advanced economies since developing countries like Nigeria and Niger Republic have different trade strategies and trade policies and that policies played a significance role towards achieving economic, political and socio-cultural development. The concerned here is to analyse neoliberalism with transborder trade. Neoliberalism is not just economics. It is a social and moral philosophy; in some aspect quantitatively different from liberalism (Jessop, 2002).

Neoliberalism is a set of economic policies that have become Swidespread during the last 25 years or so. Although the word is rarely heard in the United States, one can clearly see the effects of neo-liberalism here as the rich grow richer and the poor grow poorer. Around the world, neo-liberalism has been imposed by powerful financial institutions like the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the World Bank and the inter-American Development Bank. The capitalist crisis over the last 25 years with its high profit rates inspired the corporate elite to revive economic liberalism. That is what makes it “neo” or new (Jessops, 2002).

This sense of the word “liberalism” is widely used in Latin America. However, neoliberalism is more a phenomenon of the rich Western market democracies than of poor regions. That is why the

emphasis is on historical development of liberalism in those Western market democracies. The IMF and the World Bank are not the right places to look, to see the essence of neoliberalism. And the WTO ideology – free trade and “competitive advantage” – is 200 years old. There is nothing “neo” in their liberalism.

At the heart of the globalization project was a particular constellation of ideas and policies known as neoliberalism. Neoliberalism is often used today as shorthand for any idea that is pro-market and anti-government intervention, but it is actually more specific than this. Above all, it is the harnessing of such policies to support the interests of big business, transnational corporations and finance. It seeks not so much a free market, therefore, as a market free for powerful interests (Chalfin,2010).

In terms of development policy, neoliberalism often boiled down to the belief that intensified globalisation was itself development, the two being inseparable sides of the same virtuous coin. Hence, instead of seeing that poor countries would be best served through appropriate targeted policies (limiting domestic vulnerability to the global market through protectionist measures like tariffs, say as South Korea was doing), neoliberals claimed that since global markets were both the means and the desired end of development, the only viable object of

development policy was to do whatever necessary to make local markets and societies “fit” with new global imperatives that the rich world’s drive to internationalisation was bringing into focus (Schumpeter, 1996).

Accordingly, neoliberal development policy was both radical and abstract and, like all such prescriptions, was to be applied strictly according to the instructions. That usually called for several policies. The local state was to do no more (or rather, no less) than facilitate the conditions for “market society”. At the same time, all barriers to foreign investment would ideally be pulled down, the domestic labour force would be “restructured”, industry would be privatised and the profit motive would become the organising value of social life (Hsia,2008). This, in short, was the “trade not aid” approach to development. Get the market conditions right went the theory, get that too easily corrupted (if not corrupting) state out of the way and social justice and human development would follow automatically (Harvey, 2005).

Alas, such an uncompromising approach was always likely to come to blows – if not inflict a few of its own – in the real world. And for all that neoliberalist development policy may with reason claim to have overcome some of the problems of earlier development approaches; an over-reliance on the state as the main agent of change, it soon became clear it had ignored the most important lessons. Most neoliberals, for

example, were convinced that the structuralism of earlier development economists betrayed an excessively political bent to which their own, more “scientific” theories were immune.

It was precisely this sort of dogmatism that made neoliberalism itself so much more dangerous than the previous generation of ideas. Too many nations were to witness this at first hand in the 1980s. That, 1980s debt crisis which neoliberals called for, there could be mitigating factors for Third World debt; they claimed, even debt accrued illegitimately by former leaders for personal gain was to be paid back, plus the interest. Then at the hands of the IMF’s so-called Structural Adjustment Programme which frequently used poor countries existing debt as a lever for drawing yet more market-friendly reforms out to them. Though heavily criticised, neoliberal development theories are still alive and well in the halls of economic and political power today (Kate, 2003).

In respect of this research work, neoliberal theory is used because it is an economic and political theory which promotes privatisation, minimal state interference and critically, free trade involving the removal of trade barriers. Therefore, the theory framed within the economy and heavily promoted within Western economic policies and favour private over public driven industries.

However, in developing markets such as Niger and Nigeria, the state is playing vital role in the economy. Often the state is the only major infrastructure within the markets; with big business only starting to develop local industries. With the absence of big companies providing infrastructure for many major industries, including natural resources, agriculture and processing, the responsibility for developing the infrastructure reliance with the government.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **TRANS-BORDER TRADE AND FOOD SECURITY IN NIGERIA AND NIGER REPUBLIC**

#### **3.0 INTRODUCTION**

The Nigeria and Niger trade relations refer to the current and historical relationship between the two countries. The relations are based on a long shared border and common interaction. The 1,500 kilometres (930 miles) long border between Niger to the north and Nigeria to the south cuts through one of the more densely populated areas of both nations. Culturally, the centre and west of this border bisects the northern section of Hausaland, the home of the Hausa people. Prior to the turn of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, there was no formal border here, but the current line is roughly the northern reach of the 19<sup>th</sup> century Sokoto Caliphate. City states south of this such as Katsina, Kano and Sokoto were allied in a system of Islamic Fulani Jihad states. Areas to the north, Maradi the Gobir refuge state and the Sultanate of Damagaram resisted the Sokoto Caliphate. Both areas were culturally Hausaphone in the centre and west, and the Kanuri in the east. In the east, both sides of the present border had been part of the Borno empire (Finn, 1983).

The expansion of French and British imperialism in the period 1890 – 1905 demarcated the line which would become the modern Niger-Nigeria border. During colonial rule, the French and English languages were implanted on each side of the border, along with cultural, educational and political traditions as well as economic. Rival French and British interests meant that during much of the colonial period, trade relations across this border were dissuaded (Finn, 1983).

Niger, entirely landlocked, was supplied with access to the sea through fellow French West African colonies, for instance, Benin and Togo. However, there was a common Hausa language and cultural ties which meant that there was much informal trade and travel over the long border during the colonial period (William, 1994). He further added that, since independence in 1960, these nation-states pursued close relations. Each side has based diplomatic and strong trade relations upon non-interference in the internal affairs of the other.

The cities of Southern Niger and Northern Nigeria have been linked since the Trans Sahara trade period. Cities such as Kano and Katsina have long been the Southern terminus of trade networks which sustain much of Niger's economy. Nigeria benefits from the trade and agricultural sales (especially Nigerien cattle taken to Nigerian markets);

while Niger's most direct routes to overseas trade are through Nigeria's and Benin's waterways and railway systems.

Niger being a landlocked country dependent on neighbouring countries to the south for food supply where shares along its border with Nigeria as well as complementary agro-pastoral activities and socio-cultural factors. The Hausa people on both sides of the border live in symbiotic proximity, by virtue of their shared culture, language, social and religious values. Their family ties and multiple relationships of friendship and patronage form the social basis for this transborder trade. The territory surrounding the cities of Maradi in Niger, Katsina-Kano in Nigeria (the "K2M axis") is one of the oldest development corridors opened to the Gulf of Guinea.

### **3.1 REGIONAL AGRICULTURAL TRADE FOR ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT AND FOOD SECURITY IN NIGERIA AND NIGER**

The promotion of trade between neighbouring countries is one strategy to enhance food security as regional trade can contribute to food availability (Gesellschaft D., 2011).

The study developed a general framework to assess the potential of regional agricultural trade for food security. This concept was applied to

analyse the cross-border trade between Niger and Nigeria through the Jibia-Dan-isa border. Both countries are members of the Economic Community of West African Countries (ECOWAS) and are intensifying co-operation and liberalisation of trade. For food staples however, markets are highly regulated (UNCTAD, 2009).

The Niger government pursues an interventionist policy by purchasing food staples in surplus areas to sell these at subsidised prices in deficit regions. Beyond that, there are several barriers to cross-border trade. Niger's food security policies are biased towards maize as the major food staple. In Nigeria, the government intervenes in domestic markets and provides farmers with subsidised inputs in fertiliser (Khnhardt, 2008). Khnhardt (2008), added that quantities are influenced by the imposed Nigerian export ban, which contributes to the increasingly informal cross-border trade flows.

Generally, trade is hampered by a number of non-tariff barriers, ranging from cost-intensive and time-consuming custom procedures to road blocks. Most of the non-tariff barriers are relevance for both formal and informal trade. The assessment of the trade policy measures shows complicity of interests between national food security on one side and agricultural trade liberalisation on the other side. Market intervention with food reserve agencies have negative effects on traders in particular.

Additionally, export ban creates disincentives for farmers and traders. However, the assessment also shows potentials for increasing the cross-border trade and intensified dialogue between both countries (Bese . et al, 2009).

Nigeria and Niger agricultural trade contributes to socio-economic development. International experience has demonstrated that regional trade integration can serve as a powerful catalyst to economic growth and sustainable economic development in predominantly agricultural societies. Regional approaches designed by ECOWAS it foster political stability by defusing conflicts within and between Nigeria and Niger in promoting human rights, helping to build trust, enhancing understanding between groups and deepening interdependence. Hence, genuine and trust-based region building requires the mutual recognition of governance of all partners in a regional grouping (Khnhardt, 2008).

A regional approach used by Nigeria and Niger ensures coherence of regional policies and leads to more efficient use of public resources. Pooled regional resources can ease the financing of commonly essential regional public goods such as transport, energy, water, information and communication technology. Provision of regional approach of public spending allows infrastructure investment and trade facilitation measures

to be implemented in a coherent, sequenced and coordinated manner (UNCTAD, 2009).

### **3.2 TRADE INTEGRATION BETWEEN NIGERIA AND NIGER**

The concept “integration” in ordinary usage means unification or putting parts together into a whole (Ezenwe, 1984). In economic literature, the term “economic integration” is sometimes hard to pin down to a precise definition. From the static point of view, integration is considered as a state of affairs which would be obtained at the end of a fairly long process leading to the complete merger of national identities (Balassa, 1976). Balassa (1976) further argues that the dynamic view, on the other hand, sees integration as a process whereby discriminations existing along national borders are progressively removed between two or more countries. Even further afield there are other definitions which view integration as the mere existence of some measure of trade relations between independent national economies. Integration according to this view, progresses in stages from its lowest to its highest forms; the freeing of barriers to trade, “trade integration”, the liberalisation of trade and movement (Ezenwe, 1984).

Furthermore, there is one more conceptual aspect of integration which should be put in its proper perspective. The economic significance

of national borders is that they introduce discontinuities in the flows of commodities and factors of production. And it is these discontinuities which actually lead to effective discrimination in the economic sphere. But when the discriminatory tariff walls are dismantled, obstacles to intra-zonal trade will be lessened or even completely removed. However, the degree of free movement of goods and factors of production would be a function of the stage of integration (Green and Seidman, 1968). According to Balassa (1976), five major categorisations are usually made. They include:

- i. The free trade area, which implies the removal of quantitative restrictions and customs tariffs.
- ii. The customs union, which unifies the tariff of the countries within the area against outsiders;
- iii. The common market, where all restrictions on factor movements within the area are abolished;
- iv. The economic union, where economic, monetary, fiscal, social and counter-cyclical policies are to some extent harmonised.
- v. The supranational union, where the respective governments completely abandon their sovereignty over the policies listed above and supranational authority issues binding decisions.

Based on the argument of Balassa, and considering the ECOWAS Trade Liberalisation Scheme, items (1) and (3) above support the researcher's argument which aimed at removing the trade barriers to encourage economic development and control illegal trade.

Balassa added that West Africa falls squarely within the beginner's class. The last stages, which are very advanced would in any case have little chance of success in most less developed countries. Although the forms of integration mentioned above represent varying degrees of economic integration, they nevertheless share two basic characteristics. Firstly, they promote expanded intra-zonal specialisation and exchange through the reduction and elimination of trade restrictions among the union members; and secondly, they entail discrimination of one kind or another against non-member countries (Balassa, 1976).

The integration plays an important role both in economic and social development, and it is therefore linked with development theories. Development integration requires more state intervention than market integration. States must first and foremost make a political commitment to integration, since such commitment is seen as laying the foundation for cooperation. It is anticipated that this will help with member-states work towards implementing policies that will help with problems created as a result of the unequal distribution of benefits; one of the major causes of

the failure of market integration, development integration has proven more difficult to implement than market integration. Regional integration is defined as the process by which a group of nation states voluntarily and in various degrees have access to each other's markets and establish mechanisms and techniques that minimise conflicts and maximise internal and external, economic, political, social and cultural benefits of their interaction (Haarlov,1997).

Trade is veritable instrument for organizing economic activities and moving food efficiently from surplus region to deficit regions. It can in fact smooth out the fluctuations and uncertainties interest in local food production (Runge et`al,2013).

Concern about informal trade has gained precedence in the literature. According to Soule and Obi (2011) informal trade highlights the gap between actors real needs of public authorities caught up in an international environment that is ever harder to manage. Transborder trade can be formal or informal, legal or illegal exchange of goods. It can be illegal because it avoids official procedures and channels, but it does not mean that the traded products themselves are illegal. It can involve small amounts of food product moved over short distance or large volumes moved over vast distance (Little, 2007).

Transborder trade has already been defined in the introduction of this chapter. The only new concept from the above heading is regionalism. Regionalism as defined in this context encompasses efforts by a group of nations to enhance their economic, political, social and cultural integration. Such efforts can take on different forms including regional cooperation, market integration, and development integration (Lee, 2007).

West African leaders have long envisaged regionalism as a viable strategy to pursue with a view to uniting the continent's sub-region both politically and economically. While regionalism in West Africa has taken on different forms to accommodate the changing national, regional and international environment, all organisations that aim to integrate regional economies in West Africa have adopted market integration as a component of their strategy with a view to increasing intra-regional trade. Market integration is the linear progression of degrees of integration beginning with a free trade area (or in some cases, a preferential trade area) and ending with total economic integration. The model for such integration is the European Union (EU), notwithstanding the fact that market integration has failed miserably in the West African sub-region (Lee, 2007).

Considering the African continent generally, it continues to be highly regarded by most African leaders as a solution to Africa's growing marginalisation within the world economy. The creation of NAFTA (North American Free Trade Agreement) and the movement toward EU monetary integration only served to reinforce the commitment African leaders have toward market integration. In response to these events, the member states of the Organisation of African Unity (OAU), now AU (African Union), in 1991 signed the Abuja Treaty creating the African Economic Community (AEC) which calls for the total integration of African economies by 2025 (Handley and Mills, 1997). The creation of the AEC falls on the heels of the 1980 Lagos Plan of Action, which had called for the creation of an economic community in African countries, continues to be actively involved in pursuing market integration. Some critics argue that instead of attempting to enhance intra-regional trade, African countries should be involved in attempting to integrate their economies into the world economy. It is the latter process, they argue, that will facilitate the type of growth and development that is crucial to prevent Africa, more especially West Africa, from being further marginalised within the world economy (Jeffrey, 2000). Regionalism will not shield West Africa from the global economy and West Africa will only begin to grow again if it opens itself to the financial and trade flows

from the world economy. Instead of attempting to integrate their economies at the regional level, clearly, it will be best for the West-African region to integrate within ECOWAS and reap all the possible benefits (Olatunde, 2000).

The temptation to use regionalism as a vehicle for import-substituting industrialisation will only divert attention to integrate West Africa with the world economy. Meanwhile, there are other areas including West Africa where there are proposals where the political and social conditions seem no easier to meet than those for global integration. In these, it is difficult to see any argument (except perhaps that of limited bargaining ability) for regions as an alternative or supplement to global integration (Page, 2000).

No matter how committed African leaders can be to a regional integration agenda, such criticism cannot be ignored. Since globalisation is having a significant impact on Africa. In fact, the impact is so potentially devastating that seemingly there exists a race to the bottom (Mazur, 2000), in which Africa is being further underdeveloped by multinational corporations who work closely with corrupt African leaders to continue to extract African's wealth from its soil, leaving poverty and destitution in its wake. In the light of the above, the question must be raised as to whether African countries should pursue strategies designed

to unify economies at the regional level in anticipation of protecting them against the onslaught of the world economy. Or alternatively, given the rapid speed in which world economies are integrating, should they abandon such efforts and pursue strategies that bypass the region and focus on integrating their economies into the world economy? With respect to the first question, many argue that integration at the regional level must be outward-looking and only be pursued if the ultimate objective is integration at the worldwide level. According to McCarthy (1996), he argued that the acceptance of overambitious integration schemes in Africa has not been a good policy and Africa needs rapid economic growth and development.

Instead of market integration, regional economic organisations in West Africa generally should focus on regional cooperation with market integration as a future goal. McCarthy further notes that even if regional integration could in the end succeed as a formal exercise, sustainable growth will require competitiveness in the world market (McCarthy, 1996).

The real challenge before African leaders in the new millennium is to develop a strategy that enhances the political, economic, social and cultural integration of the continent, while simultaneously ensuring that it is not further marginalised within the world economy. In essence, this

means determining how regionalism and globalisation can coexist and be conduits for rather than hindrances to growth and development in Africa. This seeks to explore the prospects for this co-existence. It will be argued that regionalism, as currently practiced in Africa, is part of the problem and not part of the solution. It assumed that many questions will be raised about regionalism in Africa than answers provided, since the phenomenon examined is very complex and one that some have termed the weave-world of regionalisation and globalisation (Boas, 1991). In order to explore the weave-world of regionalisation and globalisation based on the theories of regionalism within the context of neoliberalism.

Regional cooperation is a collaborative venture between two or more parties, with common interests in a given issue (Bourenane, 1997). Such ventures can include, for example, execution of joint projects, technical sector cooperation, common running of services and policy harmonisation, joint development of common natural resources, joint stand towards the rest of the world, and joint promotion of production (Haarlov, 1997).

Market integration consists of the linear progression of degrees of integration. They include a free trade area where tariffs are removed among member states; but each country retains its own tariffs against non-members, customs union where the free trade remains in place and

member states impose a common external tariff (CET) against non-member states, common market where the customs union remains in place along with the free flow of the factors of production (capital and labour), economic union which consists of a common market with the harmonisation of monetary and fiscal policies and total economic integration which consists of a common market along with the unification of monetary and fiscal policies (Balassa, 1961).

The welfare benefits from trade integration are based on the notion of trade creation and trade diversion. The former takes place when there is a shift from a high-cost, less efficient regional producer to a low-cost, more efficient regional producer. Trade diversion on the other hand, consists of a shift from a low-cost, more efficient non-member producer, to a high-cost, less efficient regional producer. The potential gains from market integration include increased production arising from specialisation according to comparative advantage, increased output arising from better exploitation of scale economies; improvements in terms of trade of the group with that of the world, force changes; inefficiency arising from increased competition within the group, integration includes changes affecting the quality and quantity of factor inputs, such as increased capital inflows and changes in the rate of technological advances (Robson, 1980).

For these benefits to be realised, the theories assumes that there exists perfect competition in transport markets, free flow of labour and capital inside but not between countries, no transport cost. Tariffs are the only trade restrictions and balanced trade between countries. Price reflects the opportunity costs of production resources, e.g. labour, fully employed (Haarlov, 1997). Haarlov further argued that while some benefits of market integration are static since they are realised during the early period of integration, others are dynamic and are therefore only realised overtime. Market integration has failed miserably on the continent largely because the above mentioned conditions do not exist for its successful implementation.

### **3.3 TRANSBORDER TRADE AND FOOD MARKET IN NIGERIA AND NIGER**

In the early 1990s Nigeria and Niger embarked on a process to develop markets, limit government market interventions and liberalise trade. The achievement of this process, which was encouraged at the regional level by the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) barriers to trade, both formal and informal, still limit the free play of the market (World Food Programme, 2010). This mix of trade liberalisation and trade restrictions has an important influence on household food security. The high retail price of cereals in Niger during

the summer of 2005 and its devastating impacts on poor households is often used to support the argument that “markets” are to blame for creating food insecurity (Hsia,2008). Free trade proponents, however, emphasise that the majority of Sahelian households benefit from market for their food and income (Bese, et al, 2009).

Humanitarian actors recognise that markets can alleviate or aggravate food insecurity and acknowledge the imperative need to understand how markets work and the links between markets and livelihoods. Based on the vital role of markets in food security in Nigeria and Niger and the lessons learned from the Niger food security crisis, it concluded with an agenda to guide the future work of the World Food Programme (WFP, 2010).

According to a popular Nigerian saying some twenty years ago, a person from Nigeria or Niger who wished to marry should not depend on the market, he should be self-sufficient in food production. Today however, high population growth has reduced the size of agricultural plots. This, in the context of market liberalisation, has obliged Nigerian and Nigerien households to rely increasingly on markets for their food security (Udelsman, 2012).

In April 2005, a typical household in Niger depended on market purchases for 90% of its food (WFP, 2010). The large majority of the two countries' households being that they are pastoralists, subsistence farmers or urban families, are not self-sufficient in staple foods. This market dependence increases in years of poor agricultural production. Households also rely on the sale of animals, staple foods, cash crops and labour to cover non-food expenditure (Tandia, 2012).

During bad years, coping strategies including selling small livestock and taking out loans by the farmers and traders of the community. Debt forces subsistence farmers to sell staples at very low post-harvest prices to repay loans, creating spill-over effects in the following year. Food security analysis in Nigeria and Niger Republic has for sometime focused on the assessment of agricultural production. It is now time to devote more resources to analysing how markets contribute to the distribution and pricing of food. Other sources such as imports, demand factors and policies, informal trade barriers and public interventions, the key player with respect to food security analysis in the Niger as well as its national counterparts have moved in this direction and this process should continue with technical and financial assistance of its partners (Bese et al., 2009).

According to the World Food Programme report (2010), the market analysis is important for food security assessment for the following reasons:

- First, the market has the capacity to ameliorate the negative impacts of shocks without trade; a modest drop in domestic cereal production may lead to price increase and consumption shortfalls with trade. Price increases until they reach parity with import price, limiting the consumption shortfall. Understanding how markets function and the interventions that can facilitate trade can help in identifying measures to alleviate the negative impacts of shocks. It may also allow for better estimate of the appropriate amount of food aid to import, reducing potential market distortions.
- Second, market analysis contributes to food security monitoring. If markets function well, surpluses readily move to deficit zones with adequate purchasing power. However, if purchasing power in deficit zones is very low, or trade is constrained by security problems, lack of infrastructure or the absence of competition, disastrous effects on local food supply and price may result. Market monitoring should provide the logic of food price changes; it should explore future market developments and it should assess

the potential impacts of prices on food security of the various livelihood and wealth groups.

- Third, market analysis causes the debate over cash versus food assistance. If markets are well-integrated, transport costs are reasonable and food may be appropriate, traders will respond to the increased demand from households (WFP, 2010).

In another development, Jacks (2013) argued that if African leaders can draft an accord aimed at taking down current cross-border trade hurdles in Sub-Saharan Africa, the continent will earn an additional \$20 billion in annual earnings according to the World Bank.

Dismantling border trade barriers could also bolster the continent's food trade over the next couple of years, avoiding the negative impact of Africa's deteriorating drought and surging food prices in the process. However, this potential is not being realised because farmers face more barriers in getting their food to market than anywhere else in the world. Too often, borders get in the way of getting food to homes and communities which are struggling with too little to eat ( Makhtar, 2013).

West Africa's Sahel region has about 19 million people threatened by hunger and malnutrition making the opening of borders for trade

among African countries the more urgent (Jacks, 2013). In a related development:

The World Bank believes that in Africa, the need for food is set to double in 2020 as more people exit the rural backwaters and move to settle in the bright cities. Rapid urbanisation will challenge the ability of farmers to ship their cereals and other foods to consumers, when the nearest trade market is just across a national border ( Makhtar, 2013).

Africa's production of staple food is valued at about \$50 billion with 5 percent of cereals imported from other African countries. This happens at a time when fertile land remains uncultivated on the continent. Africa has the ability to grow and deliver good quality food to put on the dinner tables of the continent's families, Makhtar (2013) concludes.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **AN ANALYSIS OF THE TRADE RELATIONS AT THE JIBIA-DAN ISA BORDER OF NIGERIA AND NIGER**

#### **4.0 INTRODUCTION**

The most salient aspect of this study is to analyse the extent of transborder trade and food security between Nigeria and Niger by using the Jibia – Dan-isa border, being the study area, as already indicated in Chapter One. However, this chapter is designed purposely for the presentation and analysis of data so far collected to address and answer the five research questions. Answering these questions will determine the real situation and current status of transborder trade and food security in Nigeria and Niger at the Jibia – Dan-isa border. The research questions which were stated in Chapter One already are:

- i. What is the nature of transborder trade between Nigeria and Niger?
- ii. How can transborder trade contribute to the economic development of the country?

- iii. Is there a link between transborder trade barriers, tariff and food insecurity in Nigeria and Niger?
- iv. What are the restrictions on Nigeria and Niger trade at the Jibia – Dan-isa border?
- v. How do such trade restrictions cause illegal trade in Nigeria and Niger at the Jibia – Dan-isa border?

It is pertinent to note that the above research questions would be answered based on two data gathering techniques: the specialised interview and documentary sources. The research also utilises secondary texts and re-interpreted them to answer the research questions. Such texts include textbooks, journals, articles, newspapers and some reports about the topic of the study.

While the specialised interview technique were used to generate primary data, the direct interviews were conducted on the border authorities, which include the Nigeria Customs Service at the Jibia border. The Customs assigned the Head of Operations, who is in-charge of imports and exports at the Jibia – Dan-isa border to answer the interview questions together with his assistants, the Custom officer responsible for imports and the other for exports. Three of them were delegated by the Assistant Controller in-charge of the border to give out the answers of the research. Another category was the community leader,

the Sarkin Arewan Katsina, the District Head of Jibia, Alhaji Rabe Rabi'u. He was interviewed and responded to many issues concerning the border community.

The last category was the traders' associations. Two traders' associations were interviewed: the Beans Traders' Association which is headed by Alhaji Rabe Tukari as Chairman was interviewed and he spoke for all the members of the association. There was also Nagarta Traders' Association of Magamar Jibia, which delegated its Secretary (Alhaji Yazidu Mai Dabino Jibia) to respond to the interview on behalf of the association.

In relation to the above questions, the specialised interviews were designed and divided into three separate categories in order to capture the relevant information needed.

The questions in the first category were centred on whether the transborder trade can promote food security and economic development for Nigeria and Niger Republic. Some questions were centred on the trade restrictions and trade liberalisation. In doing this, the questions were designed to find out the nature of trade and the kind of trade restrictions, barriers and tariff and its relationship with food security or otherwise; and whether trade liberalisation can promote trade formalisation between

Nigeria and Niger Republic. The questions were also planned to address whether food security can be affected by international trade in general, or agricultural trade in particular. Based on that, there were questions as to which extent will increase in Nigeria and Niger trade foster economic growth, increase employment opportunities and the income earning capacities of the poor and promote food security. These were examined from the traders and border authorities (see Appendices 1 and 2).

The second category comprises the questions that were designed purposely to find out the situation of the communities and their response to transborder trade by interviewing the leaders of the communities. This aspect addresses the ECOWAS policy of free movement of goods and services between Nigeria and Niger in relation to food security.

There are two main aspects to this interface. On one hand, it considered the consequences of free trade of goods and services and on the other hand, the opportunities which exist to address the food security issues within the Nigeria and Niger trade framework, in regard to transborder trade (see Appendices 2 and 3).

#### **4.1 THE NATURE OF TRANSBORDER TRADE BETWEEN NIGERIA AND NIGER AT THE JIBIA BORDER**

Based on the responses from the specialised interview, the Nigeria Customs Services through its Head of Operations Unit at Jibia border, Superintendent Shehu A. Sokoto, stated that the transborder trade transactions at the Jibia – Dan-isa border is more in the third quarter of the year. From the statistics with Nigeria Customs Service, every month, more than 15,000 bags of date nut, beans, maize, millet and guinea corn pass from Nigeria to Niger and vice versa. Although the Customs officials confirmed that food items such as maize, guinea corn and millet are restricted from moving to Niger, what is normally transacted freely include other items usually for marriage such as mattresses, beds, pots and the like, and other food items only in small quantity, being that Nigeria and Niger communities live as one family in different nationalities.

Also, Kano being the commercial centre close to the border used that opportunity to transact in industrial products produced in Nigeria such as rubber plastics of different kinds, centre tables, chairs, groundnut and groundnut cake pass through the Jibia – Dan-isa border to Niger. Similarly, some industrial products come from Niger to Nigeria through the Jibia – Dan-isa border like spaghetti, drinks, turkey oil products,

different kinds of rice from Thailand and Brazil and other industrially produced food items also pass through the Niger border to Nigeria. According to the Nigeria Customs Service, these commodities coming from Nigeria to Niger attract high tariff, which causes the smuggling of the commodities. People with different vehicles such as cars, motorcycles, donkeys and camels, and some people carrying goods on their heads bypass border authorities in order to escape paying duties. For instance, rice attracts high tariff and the tariff also depends on the product and the country from which the product comes from. For example, products from Thailand attract more tariff, according to the Nigeria Customs Service.

As earlier stated by the Nigeria Customs Service, the trade is more in the third quarter of the year, from the 2012 and 2013 statistics with them. This is as a result of the fact that the period is the harvesting period for farmers in both Nigeria and Niger. They were asked whether climatic factors can affect the trade transactions in the Jibia – Dan-isa border and the Customs officials confirmed that the turnout is less when there is shortage of rain or other related climatic factors that would lead to less production in the year.

The Nigeria Customs Service through the Head of Operations, SP Shehu A. Sokoto noted that many engage in smuggling because of the

poverty of knowledge about the Nigeria Customs Service. He viewed that the Customs officials are in the border to facilitate the trade, not to restrict trade. Therefore, the ignorance of traders about the Customs exercise and their operations leads to smuggling; even though the Nigeria Customs officials are of the view that wherever law exists, there would be a law breaker. The Customs officials considered the smugglers as unpatriotic and enemies of their country (NCS, 2014).

#### **4.2 THE CONTRIBUTION OF TRANSBORDER TRADE TO THE ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT OF NIGERIA AND NIGER**

Based on the specialised interview responses and as Lee (2007) stated, Nigeria and Niger Republic like many other developing countries, consider trade as the main engine of development strategies. The research addressed the question of “How can transborder trade contribute to the economic development of the country?”. From the analysis, it was seen that transborder trade contributed to revenue generation, as the Nigeria Customs Service proved by generating one billion and forty seven million naira (₦1.04bn) in 2013. This has actually clarified the contribution of transborder trade. Government can budget this money for the construction of good roads, electricity, and the establishment of schools and other social infrastructure, which are ingredients of economic development.

Another important thing is employment opportunities; many people living in the communities around the Jibia-Danisa border earn their living through the business activities of the border. Some are traders, while others are labourers and drivers, who engage in the trade transactions across the Nigeria – Niger border. This proves that the border has an important influence on economic development.

According to Alhaji Yazidu Mai-dabino Jibia, the Secretary of Nagarta Traders Association, Jibia-Danisa border, he expressed satisfaction with the date nut trade because all members earn their living through the trade and paid their duties to the Customs for the development of their country and the trade was carried out by over five thousand (5,000) people both in Nigeria and Niger. Indeed, the trade enabled those involved to earn their living and contributes to the revenue generation and economic development of both countries (Nagarta, 2014).

Similarly, Alhaji Rabe Tukari Jibia, the Chairman, Beans Traders Association Jibia, stated that the contribution of their trade to economic development is enormous. According to the Chairman, people from various parts of Nigeria are coming down to the Jibia border to purchase the beans and distribute to many states, especially the Western and Eastern parts of the country. Despite the Customs duty, they also pay the state and local government revenue, which is adding to the revenue

generation of the country. Meanwhile, this trade in beans involves many people, including vehicle owners, drivers and those selling bags, with many other people including labourers (Beans Trade Association Jibia, 2014).

In another view, the Sarkin Arewan Katsina, District Head of Jibia, stated that Jibia looks different from other local governments in Katsina State because of the border. He asserted that many people in the area depend on the border for their income earning and the border trade contributes in providing opportunities for the people of his district to earn a good living. Many people in Jibia became rich through different trade transactions in the border. Again, this is part of the development by the transborder trade which includes the establishment of many banks and money exchange houses, the employment of people of the area. There is also a school established by the Nigeria Customs Service and donated to the Jibia Community. All these are part of the contributions of the border trade.

#### **4.3 THE LINKAGE BETWEEN TRANSBORDER TRADE BARRIERS, TARIFF AND FOOD SECURITY IN NIGERIA AND NIGER**

The third question of this research work is, “Is there a link between transborder trade barriers and tariff with food insecurity in Nigeria and Niger?” The research answered based on the responses from the Nigeria Customs Service, Nigeria Immigration Service, Beans Traders Association, Nagarta Traders Association of the Jibia border and the Quarantine officials of the Jibia – Dan-isa border.

Trade is not only limited to goods transactions, but includes services; the Nigeria Immigration officials at the border investigate and monitor the movement of people. According to the Nigeria Immigration Service, there is less restriction in the border, being that both countries are members of ECOWAS. What is needed is the required ECOWAS travelling documents, which would guarantee a person to move freely and cross the boundary of Nigeria to Niger, and vice-versa.

Even people without the travelling documents of ECOWAS can enter into Niger from Nigeria; when they provide concrete reasons, they would be allowed in based on where they are going and the reasons they give. Apart from the Customs and Immigration officials, there are Quarantine officials, who check animals, humans and goods that are

passing across the boundary. Although this research work places more focus on transborder trade and food security, the trade of food items is more of goods, even though it includes services because of the transportation.

To address this research question, the argument of Faggenbaum et al (1999) is essential because he posited that in the continued existence of border control, three stages of market integration can be distinguished. The initial stage is where barriers to intra regional trade, arising from payment difficulties (currency inconvertibility, absence of clearing facilities or long delays in receiving payments, illegal roadblocks, etc.) are removed. This stage must still be reached among the same countries, especially in Africa. Indeed, Nigeria and Niger has to withdraw unnecessary restrictions to allow free flow of trade, more especially on agricultural products, like the restriction by Nigeria of the passage of maize, millet and guinea corn to Niger.

The second stage, according to them, is that which characterised the EU between 1968 and 1992, where formal trade barriers are removed on intra-regional trade, but border and frontier formalities still exist for the purpose of collection of statistics, preventing animal and plant diseases, regulatory enforcement of food safety and technical standards, controlling tax collection, etc. Still Nigeria and Niger can adopt this

model to assist their transborder trade to allow all the border authorities remove all the trade barriers of the trade but screen all the goods before they pass through the border, especially food and animals.

The third most ambitious stage is to move to a single market, where frontiers no longer exist. Even in a Customs union, frontier formalities act as non-tariff trade barriers.

The trade effect of borders can be reduced by harmonising regulatory policies across member countries and by simplifying trade procedures and documentation (trade facilities). The priorities of removing barriers to intra-regional trade should take into account the stage of integration already reached; although there is this stage in ECOWAS but the level of implementation matters. But to ensure food security through transborder trade, there is need of less tariff and less barrier on foodstuffs.

The link between the transborder trade and food security in Nigeria and Niger at Jibia – Dan-isa border is established according to Nigeria Customs Service; more than sixty percent (60%) of the beans used in Nigeria is coming from Niger. According to them, more than 15 trailers of beans carrying from 250 – 300 bags are coming in daily (NCS, 2014). The Chairman, Beans Traders Association Jibia – Dan-isa border, Alhaji

Adamu Rabe Tukari Jibia asserted that their contribution in feeding the country and their effort in nation building through the contribution of the revenue of ₦40,000 to ₦60,000 that they are paying per trailer depending on the tonnes of goods it carries. He also added that they cannot estimate the number of people the business is supporting because it has a very wide span. Every day, trailers are carrying beans to different parts of Nigeria, that is, the southern, eastern, western and northern parts of the country depending on the market demand.

The Nigeria Customs Service also noted that there is less tariff and barriers on agricultural products like date nut, beans, maize and millet, which contributes in providing food for both Nigeria and Niger, and this makes the food available. Even if there is shortage of beans in Nigeria, the beans from Niger can cover the gap, and this enhances food security by providing hygienic food, since any food product that passes the border into the country has to be screened by the Quarantine officials to ensure it is hygienic. According to Aminu K. Salisu, a Quarantine officer at Jibia border, noted that their work is not only restricted to foods and animals, but including human persons, whether someone is carrying a disease which he can spread to the citizens of the country like Ebola virus. There is also trade in animals, which provide meat to Nigeria, as small animals are coming in en-masse according to the Customs and Quarantine

officials. Based on the fact that there is less tariff on beans, date nut and other agricultural products makes the food items available. This food availability enhances food security and makes food to be available to households.

The trade restriction is based on the industrial products produced by non-ECOWAS countries. Therefore, it is clear to say that when there are barriers and tariffs, they would reduce the flow of trade and affect food availability and increase the price of that commodity which is restricted, like rice, macaroni, turkey oil, etc. in which the price gap is much between Nigeria and Niger. According to the Chairman, Beans Traders Association, Jibia – Dan-isa border, he asserted that there is a difference of about ₦1500 between the prices of one bag of rice in Nigeria and that in Niger. He said rice is more expensive in Nigeria than in Niger due to the trade barriers and tariffs. He further added that the transport, if it is allowed, is more than ₦100 per bag. Therefore, according to the trade unions that created tension to the traders to engage into the trade of such restricted commodities and the people that the households who rely on such food products may likely face food insecurity because food is not always available and even if it is available the price is not stable.

#### **4.4 THE TRANSBORDER TRADE RESTRICTIONS ON NIGERIA AND NIGER AT JIBIA – DAN-ISA BORDER**

With regard to Nigeria and Niger Republic trade agreement as members of ECOWAS and the formation of ECOWAS Trade Liberalisation Scheme (ETLS) which aims to liberalise trade and provide free flow of trade within the region of West-Africa, with the elimination or reduction of barriers and tariffs, more specifically to the agricultural products.

Based on this regard, the research work formulated a research question as, “What are the restrictions on Nigeria and Niger trade at Jibia – Dan-isa border?”

The ECOWAS Trade Liberalisation Scheme is a scheme that was purposely designed to eliminate custom duty, so as to have free flow of trade between the ECOWAS member states as stated above. But there is still a benchmark, with bilateral or local negotiation on the Custom External Tariff (CET). Considering ECOWAS as a regional group in which Nigeria and Niger signed the treaty, the trade is supposed to be free with very little restrictions, but Nigeria and Niger fail to open their borders freely for trade activities. In the case of Nigeria, according to the Nigeria Immigration Service and Nigeria Customs Service officials, there are restrictions on both goods and service passing through the Jibia and

Dan-isa border. For instance, Nigeria sometimes closes her border and prevents the passage of maize, guinea corn and millet to Niger. This gives rise to illegal business transactions when there is a wide difference in price in the markets close to the border. This shows that despite the regional interests, each member country has its respective interest which the country wants to protect. The main concern of Nigeria is that when these agricultural products are carried to its neighbouring countries, there is tendency for food shortage, and it is only when the country is satisfied that it can feed others.

At the household level, the key objective is to ensure sufficient access to food by all households. Access is a function of the demand and purchasing power of both urban and rural consumers. Lack of access to food is basically an outcome of poverty. With 70 percent of the world's population being extremely poor and food insecure people living in rural areas, the role of agriculture is crucial to the eradication of poverty (FAO, 2003). Based on the response of Nigeria Customs Service were they proved there was more trade in the third quota of the year, according to 2012 and 2013 statistics. This shows that trade at the Jibia – Dan-isa border is determined by agricultural production because that period is the time of harvest of most agricultural products. The rural poor depend on agriculture, both for their income and food entitlement.

Chronic food insecurity can be tackled most effectively through policies that promote agricultural productivity, rural incomes and food production (FAO, 2001).

The risks of trade integration point to the need for country-specific and region-specific evaluation, on the overall status of food insecure households. Where supply constraints are identified, regional integration strategies which include investment and training interventions to address these constraints, including technology transfer and rural extension, new production alternatives, labour training on new farm practices and for off-farm activities, and possible ways to integrate small holders with more commercial farm enterprises. ECOWAS being a strong regional group in West Africa should encourage trade between Nigeria and Niger to enhance agricultural production. Where negative impacts are identified like shortfall or food shortage, like what happened to Niger in 2005 and 2010, ECOWAS through the regional integration strategy, which includes food security, should be accompanied by flanking measures to address the negative impacts (Skully, 1998).

#### **4.5 TRANSBORDER TRADE RESTRICTIONS AND ILLEGAL TRADE AT JIBIA – DAN-ISA BORDER**

The Nigeria and Niger border trade is based on the ECOWAS regional trade strategies that are based on the key recommendations emerging from the World Food Summit which places emphases on National Agricultural Development prepared by the individual members of ECOWAS. They identify areas requiring investment and technical support for agricultural development and food security, including the National Special Programme for Food Security in those countries where it is operative. The ECOWAS programmes for food security are designed to implement the key elements in the programme strategies, and usually consist of the following components:

- Trade facilitation
- Harmonisation of National Agricultural Policies
- Support for the National Special Programmes for Food Security

Based on the above assertion, the research formulated a question on “How do such trade restrictions cause illegal trade in Nigeria – Niger at the Jibia and Dan-isa border?” In view of this, the research considered trade facilitation as the scale for the transborder trade.

The trade facilitation component in general includes proposals to support modernising food safety control systems and standards, standardising phyto-sanitary and zoo-sanitary standards, promotion of intra regional trade through identification of trade barriers, preparation of development programmes for major export commodities, review of the impact of implementing the relevant WTO trade agreements, and assistance in participating in the current WTO negotiation (Matto & Fink, 2002).

At the Nigeria – Niger borders, Jibia – Dan-isa border in particular, there are still trade restrictions, which include barriers and high tariffs on many commodities, including agricultural products. According to the border authorities, that is, the Nigeria Customs Service, Nigeria Immigration Service and the Quarantines authorities (see Appendix 1).

The restrictions, including the searching at the road blocks, other protocols at the border which usually cause delay, and the restriction of the movement of persons, is happening despite the agreement by the ECOWAS protocol and treaty on the free movement of people within the West-African sub-region.

However, presently, the movement of some goods is restricted, and the tariff is high. For instance, foodstuff like rice, which is a common

food in most Nigerian households, is facing a lot of restrictions. Similarly, other commodities such as spaghetti, macaroni, turkey oil and other tin products are restricted from coming to Nigeria from Niger. Therefore, the restrictions of such goods causes the smuggling of such commodities despite the efforts of the Nigeria Customs in controlling illegal trade at the Jibia – Dan-isa border. It is clear to say that there is a correlation between trade restrictions and illegal trade.

According to the Beans Traders Association and Nagarta Traders Association at the Jibia – Dan-isa border, they asserted that less tariff will discourage illegal trade. A good example is that of beans and date nut trade at the Jibia border which, according to the Nigeria Customs Service, only ₦200 is charged as duty for a bag of beans while only ₦107 is charged as tariff for a bag of date nut. They noted that this actually discourages illegal trade of such commodities. All the traders trading beans and date nut pay their duties and clear their goods through the border and make a legal and lawful trade.

On the other hand, the traders stated that when the trade is free from restrictions with less tariffs, the trade would be more comprehensive and boost the economies of both Nigeria and Niger. There are many people engaged in the smuggling of rice, spaghetti, macaroni, vegetable oil, etc. through the Jibia – Dan-isa border. Many traders follow illegal

ways to enter into Nigeria with such commodities so as to attract higher profit. For instance, the difference in the prices of rice in Nigeria and Niger; rice is cheaper in Niger than in Nigeria, with a difference of more than N1000 per bag. This is attributed to the illegal trade, since the traders sometimes need to maximise their profits. When successful in the trade, within a short time, those involved in the illegal trade make more profits. Therefore, people with different means of transportation carry goods from Niger to Nigeria and follow illegal ways to cross the border as a result of the trade restrictions and high tariffs.

According to the District Head of Jibia, Alhaji Rabe Rabi'u, he asserted that transborder trade is the second way for generating food to the people of Jibia community. Agricultural production is the first source and it determines the border trade, as it recognises that low incomes are the main cause of chronic hunger (Asante, 1997). In order for the instrument to effectively address the adverse food security impacts of transborder trade, the population groups which are adversely affected by this process would need to be identified, and appropriate projects to assist them would need to be defined.

Nigeria in particular has passed through different national agricultural policies to address the issue of food security. There was the Green Revolution, Operation Feed the Nation, and recently, there was the

Seven Point Agenda of Late President Umaru Musa Yar'adua. This has similarly proved that the agricultural domestic policies and programmes help and guarantee the food security of the country. So, despite the border trade, the internal trade and foreign policy are always working to achieve successful implementation of the policies and programmes of the nation. Therefore, the community leader, Sarkin Arewan Katsina, the District Head of Jibia, emphasised on the domestic subsidy to farmers to enhance food production, which would enable the members of the community to have easy access to food. He further narrated that those who benefit most from higher food prices may not be the most food insecure and the negative impact of higher food prices for rural food deficit farm households and the urban poor, as well as wages and employment in the non-farm sector, more generally, must be taken into account.

Transborder trade between Nigeria and Niger through the Jibia – Dan-isa axis benefits both countries. All the countries generate revenue from the trade and the foodstuffs flow into the border which help the countries in ensuring food security and employment opportunities for their members. Indeed, it is real to say that the promotion of trade between neighbouring countries is a good strategy to enhance food security and transborder trade, thereby contributing to food availability and economic development.

#### **4.6 SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR RESEARCH FINDINGS**

The following are the major research findings of this work:

- The research found that date nut and beans are the main agricultural products being imported through the Jibia border. For instance, more than 15,000 bags of date nut are imported into Nigeria every month, and more than 60% of the beans used in Nigeria is coming from Niger; while the maize and guinea corn are exported to Niger Republic from Nigeria (Nigeria Customs Service, 2014).
- The research also found out that illegal trade and smuggling is as a result of high tariffs and restrictions on such items. For instance, there is no smuggling of beans and date nut because the tariff for the bag of beans is only ₦200 while that of date nut is ₦107, therefore, there is no illegal trade on such products.
- There are more trade transactions in the third-quarter of every year. This is because the period is the harvesting time and it proves that the major trade at Jibia – Dan-isa is the trade of agricultural commodities.
- The Jibia – Dan-isa border promotes economic development in Nigeria. For instance, the trade generated 1 billion, 47 million naira for Nigeria in 2013 only. Also, in June 2013, 3 million naira was

generated from tariffs on date nut only. And the border trade provided job opportunities for many people. For instance, the Beans Traders Association asserted that more than 5000 people earn their living from the beans trade only.

- The fluctuations of Nigeria and Niger currencies cause inflation and general price instability on the agricultural products. In addition to that, despite the trade agreement based on ECOWAS Liberalisation Scheme, there are still restrictions on commodities like rice, spaghetti, macaroni, vegetable oil and other tin products that create inflation on such items which are restricted and sometimes unavailable in the market.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.0 INTRODUCTION**

The main objectives of the study, as already mentioned in Chapter One, was to analyse the transborder trade and food security between Nigeria and Niger, through the Jibia – Dan-isa border. Hence, part of the outcome of this study includes considering the transborder trade through the Jibia – Dan-isa border as a means of revenue generation, source of food supply and employment opportunities to many people. The intra-regional trade between Nigeria and Niger Republic, being that both countries are members of ECOWAS, was also observed. The trade restrictions, barriers and tariffs on one hand the ECOWAS Trade Liberalisation Scheme (ETLS) and the policy of Common External Tariff (CET) on the other hand are parts of the major issues of concern. Therefore, this chapter will generally conclude the findings and provide some recommendations.

#### **5.1 SUMMARY**

Transborder trade agreements are an increasingly important part of the global trade environment. Indeed, Nigeria and Niger are active

members of ECOWAS with many trade agreements, among which are free trade of agricultural products. The study identified and addressed the potential role which transborder trade plays in promoting food security for the communities of Nigeria and Niger at the Jibia – Dan-isa border.

Essentially, transborder trade between Nigeria and Niger through the Jibia – Dan-isa axis is hampered by a number of non-tariff barriers ranging from cost-intensive and time-consuming Custom procedures to roadblocks, because there are different authorities at the border which include Nigeria Customs Service, Nigeria Immigration Service, State Security Service, Nigeria Police, Nigeria Military Intelligence, Quarantine Authority, NAFDAC, NDLEA, etc. all to check the goods at the border before they are allowed to pass into Nigeria. This causes delay and most of the non-tariff barriers are relevant for both formal and non-formal trade. As Nigeria and Niger realise that transborder trade contributes to socio-economic development, international experience has demonstrated that transborder trade between the neighbouring countries can serve as a powerful catalyst for economic growth and sustainable economic development in predominantly agricultural societies, Nigeria and Niger inclusive.

The transborder trade between Nigeria and Niger foster the political stability by defusing conflicts within and promoting human

rights, helping to build trust, enhancing understanding between the communities of the two countries and deepening interdependence. Hence, genuine trust-based transborder trade relations building requires mutual recognition; that was the reason Nigeria was seriously committed during Niger's food crisis in 2005 and 2010 respectively.

Indeed, the assessment of the transborder trade between Nigeria and Niger through the Jibia – Dan-isa axis shows conflicting interests between national food security on one hand and agricultural trade liberalisation on the other hand. Therefore, the assessment also shows the potential for increasing the transborder trade and intensifying dialogue between Nigeria and Niger in order to eliminate or reduce the barriers on agricultural products that promote food availability and ensure food security among the households of both Jibia and Dan-isa communities.

## **5.2 CONCLUSION**

The transborder trade between Nigeria and Niger at the Jibia – Dan-isa border is generally regarded as international trade and is a good example of regional trade because Nigeria and Niger are active members of ECOWAS, which is the economic regional group, and as these countries emerged from colonial rule and entered a new era of economics. The two countries value the trade and consider the trade as the engine for

development. Nigeria benefits from Niger's food production in commodities like beans and date nut which are imported into the country, while Niger also obtains foodstuffs from Nigeria like maize, guinea corn and millet, which brings about interdependency between both countries. Therefore, transborder trade is always supported by the agricultural food production and such items are mainly traded on at the Jibia – Dan-isa border.

The global trade is largely dictated by the world's economic powers and global institutions such as the IMF, the World Bank and the WTO. African countries are not exempted from the effect of their economic policies because they have suffered from foreign interference in their economic affairs. But despite all that, the transborder trade between Nigeria and Niger promote economic development and food security among the communities of both Nigeria and Niger around the border of Jibia and Dan-isa on one hand, and on the other hand, Nigeria and Niger Republic in West Africa are prime examples of how western neo-liberal policies have damaged economic development. This is because there is need for government intervention in the market through the provision of subsidies in agriculture considering how neoliberalism promotes privatisation, minimal state interference and critically free trade involving the removal of trade barriers. The Nigeria and Niger

transborder trade focuses more on agricultural commodities based on the information available and the neoliberal form of economics favours private over public sectors. However, in the developing markets such as Nigeria and Niger, the states have a very significant role to play in promoting the food market through the provision of subsidies to farmers and sustain the value of the currency. Often, the state is the only major infrastructure within the market. That is the reason domestic trade and agricultural policies motivate and encourage or discourage food security depending on the effectiveness of the policy and programme.

According to the findings of this work, transborder trade contributed to the food availability and based on that assertion, the price is reasonable and affordable by the household when there is available food in the market and this can protect and secure food in both Nigeria and Niger. The provision of subsidies to farmers in their production processes and the use of common currency in Nigeria and Niger will create sustainability in the prices of agricultural products and also ensure standard in the price and quantity of the products.

Conclusively, it must be noted that this research work concluded that the transborder trade between Nigeria and Niger has great influence on food security; and there are still good trade relations especially on agricultural commodities, which virtually consists of foodstuffs. The

people living close to the Nigerian border to Niger at Jibia largely rely on the food coming from Niger despite their farm products; food items like beans, rice and spaghetti are all coming from the border trade. Yet, there are still some questions to answer in this area of research for the benefit of knowledge and in future research, there is need to find out whether there is correlation between transborder trade, poverty and inequality.

### **5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS**

The real challenge before Nigeria and Niger Republic, in the contemporary era of neo-liberalism is to develop a strategy that enhance the political, economic, social and cultural bilateral trade relations, while simultaneously ensuring that it is not further marginalised within the world economy.

Therefore, according to the findings of this study, there are certain things to recommend for the benefit of knowledge.

#### **5.3.1 The implementations of Regional Common Currency for Nigeria and Niger trades**

Based on what is on ground, the prices of food are fluctuating as the currency values always change. This affects the price and when the price goes high, the purchasing power of the common man and his

household is low, and this leads to the unavailability of food in the household; although there is food available in the market, the price is however beyond the capacity of the common man. Sometimes, the price can come down as a result of devaluation of the currency of one country and this affects the farm households that exchange their farm products in the market for other commodities, thereby causing tension in the households. But a single currency within the sub-region will help in stabilising the price and reducing the contradiction in the trade since the currency will be common and acceptable among the member states. The prices of the commodities can be determined based on their value and not just the value of the currency. Therefore, there is need for ECOWAS to speedily implement the plan for a common currency in the West African sub-region.

### **5.3.2 Food Security Resources Measures for both Nigeria and Niger**

Mechanisms to insure against the dangers which the volatility of food prices or supplies pose are an important part of a food security strategy. The option to import is usually a more cost-effective approach than holding grain reserves. However, for land-locked countries like Niger Republic, this approach is more important to the country's situation. Although Nigeria banned taking maize, millet and guinea corn out in order to prevent food shortage, it is rational because when such

food is carried away from the country without reserving it, it would pose a challenge to the country's food security. Therefore, there must be some protection measures to ensure that the food is adequately enough for the country. Indeed, there must be reservation and to help the citizens, the food prices should be subsidised by the national government when selling the reserved food. In another way, food should be allowed to circulate freely within the sub-region, and protection measures should only be put in place against taking food out of the regional group.

### **5.3.3 Development of the Agricultural Sector**

Continuous government assistance in agricultural sector will make the country less vulnerable to food insecurity. Policy towards the cultivation of agricultural land for biofuels should not be at the price of inflationary pressures on basic consumer agricultural commodities. Therefore, there is need for government assistance to the agricultural sector; this involves subsidising farmers with agricultural equipment and material that would improve the productivity and the prices of commodities, so that Nigeria and Niger Republic products can compete in the international market with products from Asian and Western countries.

#### **5.3.4 Improvement of Infrastructure**

Agricultural growth should move in tandem with social and physical development. Unfortunately, rural areas in Nigeria and Niger Republic have very few roads. The means of preserving and transporting agricultural produce to the market is also a problem. Thus, the agricultural development paradox has also been the outcome of weak infrastructure. The infrastructure would help both agriculture and trade of agricultural commodities that can help and assist the development of the country. Also, easy transportation assists in ensuring price stability and reducing price fluctuation. Therefore, good roads reduce the cost of transport and encourage agricultural trade transactions at the border.

#### **5.3.5 Enlightenment Campaigns**

There is need for enlightenment of traders. From the findings of this work, there is less awareness among the traders because the Customs authorities at the border say illegal trade at Jibia-Dan-isa border is as a result of less awareness among the traders about Customs policies and protocols. But the traders association say illiteracy is not the problem but lack of awareness among the traders. It is important for traders to categorise commodities which are free for trade and those that can attract high tariff. Also, they need to know the reasons for that. Therefore, there is need for the Custom authorities to make the traders understand all their

policies, and changes when they arise. Similarly, the traders' associations have a major role to play to sensitize their members and traders in this regard.

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## APPENDIX 1

### ***QUESTIONS ON TRANS-BORDER TRADE AND FOOD SECURITY: THE STUDY OF JIBIA BORDER***

#### ***SPECIAL INTERVIEW WITH THE JIBIA BORDER AUTHORITIES ON BORDER TRADE RESTRICTIONS, TARIFFS AND TRADE INTEGRATION BETWEEN NIGERIA AND NIGER REPUBLIC.***

- 1) Which type of commodity is more transacted in this boarder?
- 2) Is the transacted commodity more of agricultural products or industrial products?
- 3) Do the traders pay the transaction tax or duty to their goods? If yes are they given receipts?
- 4) Like how many traders formally pay their custom duties in a day?
- 5) How do you measure the commodity before issuing the duty?
- 6) Can you determine the volume of grain traded through this boarder per day?
- 7) Do you think the border trade is contributing in tax generation to Nigeria and Niger republic?
- 8) Which commodities or goods are allowed for trade in this boarder?
- 9) Is this that all commodities attract the custom duties or there are custom duty free goods?
- 10) Which of the two countries benefit more from Jibia-Dan Issa boarder? And why?
- 11) Do you satisfy with the traders/ boarder authorities relationship?
- 12) Does the boarder business transaction reflect in the lives of the members of the community in terms of their daily earnings?
- 13) Which quota of the year is more appropriate for business transaction in this boarder?
- 14) How would the climatic factor affect the business transaction in this boarder?
- 15) If assumed that the Jibia boarder is closed and the transaction stopped which of the two countries would suffer more from food insecurity?
- 16) Is there any tax or custom duty imposed on agricultural products or precisely food stuffs business transaction?
- 17) Do you think illegal trade like smuggling is related to trade restriction banner and high tariff?
- 18) What would you assumed if there is free flow of goods and services without restrictions and barriers as well as tariff free in all the commodities in the boarder?
- 19) What effort are you making in protecting and securing the traders?

## **APPENDIX 2**

### ***QUESTIONS ON TRANS-BORDER TRADE AND FOOD SECURITY: THE STUDY OF JIBIA BORDER***

### ***SPECIAL INTERVIEW WITH THE LEADERS OF TRADERS' ASSOCIATION AT JIBIA BORDER ON TRANS-BORDER TRADE, FOOD AVAILABILITY, FOOD SUPPLY, TARIFFS AND RESTRICTIONS***

- 1) For how long have you been into this business?
- 2) Do you pay tax or duties of your goods to boarder authority?
- 3) Are you usually issued with receipt or licence for the payment of tax or duties to your commodity?
- 4) Which type of commodity are you transacting?
- 5) Do you follow due process in the course if your transaction?
- 6) Is there any difference in tariff between now and the last five years or more?
- 7) Through which process do you pay your tax?
- 8) Do you pay tax to agricultural products specifically food stuffs?
- 9) Can you determine the volume of your transaction within a week or month?
- 10) Do Custom or boarder authorities ever seize any commodity from you or your people?
- 11) If yes why? And what your Association is doing to recover the goods?
- 12) Have you ever encounter any problem with boarder authority? If yes what how and why?
- 13) How the people of your community benefits from your business?
- 14) Does your business contribute in getting more food to Nigeria or Niger as the case may be?
- 15) Does your Association have connection with other trade organizations?
- 16) How such Organization assists or helps you in your business transaction?
- 17) Is there any relationship between your trade organization and the boarder authorities?
- 18) How many of you are members of this trade organization?

### **APPENDIX 3**

#### ***QUESTIONS ON TRANS-BORDER TRADE AND FOOD SECURITY: THE STUDY OF JIBIA BORDER***

#### ***SPECIAL INTERVIEW WITH THE JIBIA COMMUNITY LEADERS ON THE INFLUENCE OF TRANS-BORDER TRADE ON FOOD SECURITY IN THE BORDER COMMUNITIES***

- 1) Which type of food is more commonly used in your community?
- 2) Through which ways are you generating food?
- 3) Is the food available for your community members all the time?
- 4) How the boarder contribute in generating your food?
- 5) Does boarder have any impact about the availability of food in your community?
- 6) Is the price of food stuff portable and affordable to the people of your community?
- 7) Do all people of your community have access to food?
- 8) Does your community ever experience food unavailability or food insecurity if yes when? And what were the causes?
- 9) Do you think the income of the people of your community can enable them to get enough food for their family?
- 10) Despite the food you are producing from where do you supply food from within your country or from neighbouring countries?
- 11) Which of the food items is more commonly coming through the boarder?
- 12) Is the price of that item stable?
- 13) As a leader of this community do you think there is linkage between free flow of trade in food stuff and food security?
- 14) What is the impact of the local food stuff market to the members of your community?
- 15) How would you want the boarder to be for the benefit of your community?
- 16) Is the boarder promoting trade of the locally made commodities with other communities of the neighbouring countries?
- 17) Assuming the boarder is closed and no transaction of any nature or kind is taking place what would to expect to happen to your community?