AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT CHARTER SERIES

In strengthening collaborative research, the African Research Council on Sustainable Development adopts a flexible approach to improve technical skills of researchers by allowing for regional determination of research priorities. This strengthens closer ties among researchers, government Institutions and other agencies who work within the purview of reviewing development policies and challenges in other to advance alternative strategies for sustainability.

Most issues presented here were first discussed at International Policy Research Summits and Conferences. The African Development Charter Series (ADCS) is not just a research document, but a strategic and well coordinated policy framework, featuring broad-based and integrated strategies towards transforming the social and economic landscape of developing economies of the World and Africa in particular. It does not claim to capture the complexity of development issues in Africa but provides useful insights and new directions based on the expertise of respective authors that shed light on the challenges within, newly emerging development concepts, and opportunities that arise for sustainability. Other Charter series are:

1. Rethinking Sustainable Development in Africa
2. Infrastructure, Economic Development and Poverty Reduction in Africa
3. The Nigerian Economy: Structure, Growth, Diversification and Sustainability
4. Entrepreneurship Innovation and Management Techniques
5. Inclusive Strategies for Achieving Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)
THE NIGERIAN ECONOMY: RECESSION, RECOVERY AND GROWTH PLAN

Published by
International Institute for Policy Review & Development Strategies
www.internationalpolicybrief.org

© April, 2018


Editorial Contacts
Bassey E. Anam
Institute of Public Policy and Administration
University of Calabar, Cross River State
Nigeria- West Africa
admin@internationalpolicybrief.org
Tel: +234 8174 380 445

Collaborating Research Unit
International Scientific Research Consortium
C/O Abdulazeez D. El-ladan
The Future Institute
10 Coventry Innovation Village
Coventry University
CV1 2TL

ED. Jonah Ulebor
Lextra Education LTD
Oakhurt Avenue.
Leeds, LS11 7HL
United Kingdom

PT. Hussein Botchway
University of Energy and Natural Resources
Sunyani, Ghana.
IDPR, Nairobi
Dr. Andre Yitambe
School of Public Health
Kenyatta University, Nairobi

Africa Research Council on Sustainable Development (ARCSD)
C/O Dr. Chuks J. Diji
Head, Department of Mechanical Engineering
University of Ibadan, Nigeria-West Africa

International School of Advanced Research Study (ISARS)
AG Registrar
Dr. Veronica Babajide
Department of Science and Technology Education
University of Lagos, Nigeria

First Assured International School of Business (FAISB)
AG Registrar
Prof. Nathaniel Ozigbo
Department of Business Administration
University of Abuja

Publishing Contact
Science Publishing Corporation
Germany

KEJA Publications
G. S. T. Road, Otteri, Vandalur
Channel – 600048 INDIA

Indexing/Abstracting/Library
The book is processed for inclusion in,
- Google Scholar
- PIAS International Fact Sheets/Achieves
- Ulrich's Periodicals Directory (ProQuest)
- International Bibliography of the Social Sciences (IBSS)
- National Library of Nigeria cataloguing in Publication data
- Brilliant International Research Library
African Regional Research Office
International Institute for Policy Review & Development Strategies
House 66, Mayne Avenue/ Murray
Calabar South, Cross River State
Nigeria- West Africa
P.O. Box 388
Tel: +234 8174 380 445
admin@internationalpolicybrief.org
www.internationalpolicybrief.org

International Copyright Law: All right reserved under the International Copyright Law. This volume is published by the International Institute for Policy Review and Development Strategies, Nigeria. This book- its cover page design and content may not be used or produced in any manner without written permission from the International Institute for Policy Review and Development Strategies; admin@internationalpolicybrief.org.

Designed & Produced by:
Advanced Publishers
Dedication

Dedicated to the International Institute for Policy Review & Development
Strategies for providing a platform and supporting Institutional and
Collaborative Research and Sustainable Development.
Acknowledgement

Contributors are greatly acknowledge for supporting the agenda towards achieving sustainable development in developing economies of the world, especially in Africa.

The following members of the Institute Editorial Team are specially acknowledged for their useful contributions;

**Dr. Bassey Anam**
University of Calabar, Nigeria

**Associate Prof. Antai, A. S.**
University of Calabar, Nigeria

**Professor Nathaniel C. Ozigbo**
University of Abuja, Nigeria

**Professor Y. A. Zoaka**
University of Abuja, Nigeria

**Dr. Chucks J. Diji**
University of Ibadan, Nigeria

**Dr. Kabuoh Margret**
Babcock University, Nigeria

**John Nma Aliu**
Kaduna Polytechnic, Nigeria

**Anuli Ogbuagu**
Federal University, Ndufu Alike Ikwo, Ebonyi State, Nigeria
Contents

Dedication
Acknowledgement

Editorial & Executive Comments

Introduction
Economic Recession, Recovery & Growth Plan: The Nigerian Experience
'Bassey E. Anam & 'Antai, A. S.

Diversification of the Nigerian Economy: the Role of Nigerian Institute of Leather and Science Technology (NILEST), Zaria-Kaduna, Nigeria
Dr. Eucharia Ngozi Oparah

Part One - Economic Recession: The Nigeria Experience

Chapter 1
Economic Recession and the Future of the Nigerian Economy: Issues, Challenges and Prospects
Prof. (Mrs.) Sarah O. Anyanwu

Chapter 2
Economic Recession and the Future of Nigerian Economy: Issues, Challenges and Prospects
Prof. Y. A. Zoaka

Chapter 3
The Legislature and Economic Recession in Nigeria: an Assessment of the Role of the National Assembly
'Ogbu, Collins & 'Ernest, Ereke, PhD

AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT CHARTER SERIES - 5
Contents

Chapter 4
Economic Recession in Nigeria and Family Instability in Port Harcourt City Local Government Area, Rivers State, Nigeria
'Onyebueke, Victoria Esima & 'Eze, Ifeoma Louisa 85

Chapter 5
The Made in Nigeria Recession 2000 - 2016: Growth without Development
Rose Mbatomon Ako PhD 97

Chapter 6
'Murtala Mohammed Alamai & 'Usman Yusuf Dutse 113

Part Two - Strategies for Economic Recovery and Growth Plan

Chapter 7
Nigeria's Diplomatic Relations in the Recession and Economic Enhancement
Dr. Chukwu, R. Doris 131

Chapter 8
Prof. (Mrs.) Sarah O. Anyanwu 141
## Contents

### Chapter 9
The Economic Recovery and Growth Plan, National Universities Commission, Falling Academic Standards and Nigerian Development
Rose Mbatomon Ako PhD  
148

### Chapter 10
Investing in Nigerian People: an Agenda for Sustainable Livelihoods and National Development
'Kalu, Chris U., PhD, "Metu, A. G., PhD & 'Ezenekwe, U.R. PhD  
172

### Chapter 11
Corruption and Effective Public Service Performance in Nigeria
'Dr. Collins Friday Obialor & 'Ozuzu, Henry Ugochukwu  
199

### Chapter 12
Stagflation and Policy Mix in Nigeria
'Anuli Regina Ogbuagu & 'Dennis Brown Ewubare  
213

### Chapter 13
Changing Nigerians Attitude to Locally Made Goods: an Issue for Economic Recovery
'Iliya Bawa, 'Paul, Vincent & 'Idika Kalu  
257

### Chapter 14
Achievement of Sustainable Development Goal 11 and the Question of Environmental Justice in Nigeria: the Ogoni Experience
'Dr. John Kalama & 'Dr. Jacob Ogedi  
271

### Chapter 15
The Challenge of Insecurity in Nigeria: an Examination of the Herders and Farmers' Conflicts in the Middle Belt Area of Nigeria
Ayaka Simon Silas  
288
Contents

Chapter 16
Nigeria's Economic Recovery & Growth Plan: Tackling The Macroeconomic Downside Risks
'Kyarem, Richard N. & Ogwuche David D. 303
Introduction

Economic Recession, Recovery & Growth Plan: The Nigerian Experience

A n economic recession is a general downturn in any economy. It is a period of general economic decline and is typically accompanied by a drop in the stock market, an increase in unemployment, and a decline in the housing market. This generally occurs when there is a widespread drop in spending. Economic recession may be triggered by various factors among which include financial crisis, an external trade shock, an adverse supply shock or the bursting of an economic bubble.

As it should be expected, in any economy of the world, the blame for a recession generally falls on the federal government, often either the president himself, the head of the Federal Reserve, or the entire administration. Relating the recent experience of economic recession in Nigeria, the National Bureau of Economic Research (2017), stated that there is a “significant decline in economic activity spread across the economy, lasting more than a few months, normally visible in a real Gross Domestic Product (GDP), real income, employment, industrial products and wholesale-retail sales”. It is a known fact that the Nigerian economy is experiencing recession.

The Federal Government, under the leadership of President Mohammed Buhari, developed the Economic Recovery and Growth Plan (ERGP) as a strategy of
addressing the challenges of the recession in the economy. ERGP is a Medium Term Plan for 2017 – 2020, builds on the Social Investment Programme (SIP) and has been developed for the purpose of restoring economic growth while leveraging the ingenuity and resilience of the Nigerian people – the nation's most priceless assets. Consistent with the aspirations of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), the ERGP initiatives address three dimensions of economic, social and environmental sustainability issues. One year now, for most people, it is one of such policy measures of the government that may not achieve its objectives. For others, especially key players in government, the policy has already achieved its objectives and the country is out of recession. Of course, both positions are examined from various indicators.

As a way of assessing and strengthening the policy framework, in May and November 2017, the International Institute for Policy Review and Development Strategies (IIPRDS) organized 2 Research Conferences in Abuja; 24th – 25th of May, 2017 and 2nd of November, 2017. The aim of the conferences include among other things, a strategy on the causes, trends, and impact of the recession on the Nigerian Economy, and a careful evaluation of the Nigerian Economic Recession Experience and Economic Recovery and Growth Plan (2017-2020). Contributions and findings from these 2 conferences form the framework for this Volume.

This strategic assessment of the Nigerian Economic Recovery and Growth Plan (ERGP) examines Nigeria’s experiences with the recession and further attempts to evaluate the structure and implementation strategies of ERGP. Despite identified challenges, the each contribution submits that, with a strong political will on the part of government, effective public and private institutions that leads to building a globally competitive economy, Nigeria has the potential to become a major player in the global economy by virtue of its human and natural resource endowments.
Diversification of the Nigerian Economy: the Role of Nigerian Institute of Leather and Science Technology (NILEST), Zaria-Kaduna, Nigeria

Dr. Eucharia Ngozi Oparah
Acting Director General/CEO
Nigerian Institute of Leather and Science Technology (NILEST)

Introduction

Africa is the second largest continent in the world in both, landmass and population. She covers about 20 percent of Earth's total land area (about 30,244,000 km²). The area of Mainland Africa is shared by Forty-eight (48) countries, plus six (6) Island nations. Recently, it was reported by United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO) that Africa has a population of 1.1 Billion human inhabitants, which is about 14 percent of the world's population. The most populated country is Nigeria with 198 million people according to the National Population Commission. This is probably why Nigeria is referred to as the “Giant of Africa”.

Allow me, at this outset to zero on this so-called “Giant of Africa”, Nigeria. Nigeria is a land rich in human and other natural resources. Her superior climatic conditions and vegetations support all kinds of lives. The country's natural resources include minerals such as tin ore, iron ore, gypsum, gold, talc, zinc, kaolin, rocksalt, lead, coal, steel, bitumen, bentonite, barite, crude oil and natural gas; gemstones such as tantalite, sapphire, ruby, emerald, aquamarine, topaz, tourmaline, garnet, amethyst, fluor spar, zircon. The agricultural proceeds include plants/crops such as cocoa, groundnut,
cassava, gum arabic, maize, yam, soybean, beans, sesame, tobacco, rice, timber, sugarcane, cotton, cashew, oil palm, rubber. Nigeria also has livestock such as cattle, goats, donkeys, sheep, pigs, poultry, fishes and reptiles. The availability of these diverse resources and emergence of modern technology gave birth to industries such as leather, textile, oil & gas, pharmaceutical, fashion, furniture, food & beverage, chemical, metallurgic, construction and building.

Industrialization is the key object to the economic development of any country. Since Nigeria became independent in 1960, achieving economic development through rapid industrialization has remained a major challenge. It is also not surprising that this has been the principal focus of the various administrations in the country. Thus, different economic development policies (with each having a bearing on the industrial sector) were adopted ranging from Import Substitution Strategy (ISS) through Indigenization to the Structural Adjustment Program (SAP). It also seemed as if none of these policies provided sufficient answers to the challenges of the country's industries to the point that many have concluded that the more new policies are introduced, the farther the country moved away from being industrialized.

The Nigerian economy prior to the discovery of crude oil was driven by agriculture. Agriculture was the major source of her foreign exchange earnings through the exportation of cash crops such as rubber from Delta and Edo States in south-south region; groundnut, hides and skins produced by the northern region; cocoa and coffee from the western region; and cashew, palm oil and kernels from the eastern region of the country. This sector offers vast opportunities and employs over seventy percent (70%) of the Nigerian labour force and accounted for almost 50% of her GDP. Consequently, Nigeria economy became a commodity market of the industrialized Western world for its foreign exchange while the industrialization of the country was discouraged. Therein lay the argument to the foundation of the dependency of Nigerian economy on finished goods and technology of foreign countries while we export raw materials to them at lesser cost.

Slowly industrialization boomed despite many infrastructure constraints. Growth was particularly pronounced in the production and assembly of consumer goods, including vehicle assembly and the manufacture of soap and detergents, soft drinks, pharmaceuticals, beer, paint, building materials, textile and footwears. By the late 1960s, oil had replaced cocoa, peanuts, and palm products as the country's biggest foreign exchange earner. The dramatic rise in world oil prices in 1974 caused a sudden
flood of wealth. Much of the revenue was intended for investment to diversify the economy, but it also spurred inflation and underscored inequities in distribution. The money earned by a country with less or little effort; through petroleum, resulted in the abandoning of the agricultural sector. The country then deviated completely from an agro-dependent economy and built a political economy around oil. Oil and Gas provide about 90% of the foreign exchange needs of the nation. Structurally and otherwise, the oil boom of the 1970’s helped significantly in transforming Nigeria from an ordinary third world black country to an appreciable position both in terms of development, infrastructure, international politics et cetera.

As you are all aware, the oil boom was short-lived. The 2008-2010 global economic crises caused commodity prices crashing - oil price plummeting from a record peak of $147.42 per barrel to $32.40 per barrel, and since then oil price keeps fluctuating. The Introduction of the Excess Crude Account (ECA) like other policies did not last for sundry reasons including profligacy, corruption and the staunch oppositions. From 2014 to the third quarter of 2017, the country witnessed recession due to the drop in oil price as low as $28.00. Furthermore, the over dependency on the oil sector have led to community crises, environment issues, corruption, joblessness and poverty.

At this point, the Nigerian Government saw the need to redirect its focus and source for sustainable and social-political affordable foreign exchange resources to complement the oil and gas sector. Unfortunately, the volatility associated with international oil prices frequently led the country’s resource expectations into avoidable difficulties resulting in the resurgence of calls for the diversification of Nigeria’s economy in general and revenue base in particular. As in the past, the government, early in 2007 responded by introducing a new industrial development policy, which was based on the Cluster Concept. But, given past experiences, many were not yet convinced that this is along-term solution to Nigeria’s industrial development challenges.

Before the discovery of oil, hides and skins ranked fifth (5th) in the list of export products that earned Nigeria foreign exchange and revenue (Mann, 1966). This means that before the advent of mechanized leather processing in Nigeria, hides and skins had played a vital role in the growth of the economy as major source of income through export to Europe and other parts of the world. The first Tannery was established in Kano by the John Holt group of companies in 1729 followed by Great Northern Tanning Company (GNT) in 1964, CFAO established its Tannery (International tanners Ltd) in 1974 while SCOA established the Tannery named Tanarewa Nig. Ltd in
1977 (Paiko 2002). As at 1994, there were not less than thirty-six (36) mechanized Tanneries in the country. Most of these companies have been close down because of the ban on wet blue exportation in 1992. However, the existing Tanning industries are more modern, and are 3 or 4 times bigger both in size and production capacities. The ban on the export of hide and skins under the export prohibition act of 1978 and consequently in 1992 was to promote industrialization, job creation and value-added revenue from export of semi-processed or finished leather. Today, Nigeria is well known as a leather producing and exporting country, whose revenue can supplement the one from the oil – sector. The industry is considered very critical to National growth and development as the highest foreign non-oil income earner. It has the potential for tremendous growth and is a major contributor to domestic jobs and wealth hence, in line with the Government’s decision to diversify the nation’s economy, and giving emphasis to exploitation of specific natural resources, the industry is essential to achieving this objective.

Permit me to share with you some of the success stories of the Nigerian Institute of Leather and Science Technology (NILEST), Zaria, where you are today. This I believe will give a clear understanding on how to industrialize this country. As you are already aware, NILEST is the only Government Agency on Leather matters in the country, with the mandate of providing courses of instruction, training and research in the field of leather and leather products technology. Through our National Diploma, Higher National Diploma, Long and Short-Term Training programmes, the Institute have trained a number of youths who have become skilled labours in the leather industries, and some have become entrepreneurs. The Institute has also through her various capacity building programmes nationwide provided specific industry based and entrepreneurial skills relevant for national growth and development. Training of the youths, women, Internally Displaced Persons (IDP), Returnees and Disabled would not only reduce the level of joblessness in the country but will also minimize crime and violence. This is in line with the recent Economic Recovery and Growth Plan (ERGP) of this present Administration. The Institute in recent times has established eight (8) extension centers in designated states in Nigeria were leather and footwear clusters are located. These centers engage in training and retraining of artisans/craftsmen.

NILEST is also relating with relevant public and private stakeholders to provide common facility centers in the six geo-political zones to boost activity/productivity across the leather value chain thus enhancing global competitiveness. This would also contribute to the raise in the nation’s income revenue and a step towards economic
recovery. NILEST is collaborating with various relevant public and private stakeholders as well as foreign partners in order to create synergy between key players in the sector which includes the hides and skins dealers, industries, research/academic institutions, input suppliers, government, marketers, and so on. NILEST is also engaged in the creation of a platform for the interaction of the institute, the government, local and foreign agencies such as UNIDO, UNESCO, USAID and UNDP on issues that will promote research and development in the country. These linkages will also bring about technology transfer, market extension, foreign recognition, global competitiveness and national development.

Distinguished participants, over the years, Nigerians were not in the habit of patronising locally made products and services. This often times was due to lack of standards and quality. But things have changed now, with the establishment of regulatory bodies such as Standards Organisation of Nigeria (SON), Consumer’s Protection Council (CPC), Service Compact for all Nigerian (SERVICOM), and advent of improved technologies. Despite various campaigns organized by government and other agencies, so many Nigerians are still indecisive when it comes to patronizing made in Nigerian products.

NILEST has taken a giant stride into the research and production of military boots and research is ongoing into other items required by the military. This new innovation was initiated to save Nigeria from huge losses due to the foreign exchange it was losing annually on importation. This approach, the agency has taken is not only creating employment opportunities but also contributing its quota in actualizing the Executive Order 5 and the Change Agenda of the Federal Government.

Nevertheless, it is said that to whom much is given, much is expected but the institute with its little resources has contributed immensely to industrialization and development of the nation. A lot is yet to be achieved and the Institute therefore calls for more support, patronage and funding from the government, stakeholders and the public.

Despite the role leather, leather products and allied industries are playing in enhancing economic and industrial growth, not much is done to ensure optimum utilization of these products. However, it is believed that the introduction of a sector-specific policy will accommodate the major setback to the growth of the industry. Therefore, Nigerian Institute of Leather and Science Technology, Zaria and other
relevant Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDAs) are working together with Manufactures Association of Nigeria (MAN), Nigerian Tanners Council (NTC), and other private stakeholders towards producing a National Leather Products Policy. I am happy to announce to you that Nigeria now have a draft National Leather and Leather Products Policy which has been validated in Sokoto and Aba this year. The Policy is awaiting the approval of the Federal Executive Council (FEC). The policy if passed into law and implemented would address all issues relevant to the growth of the Leather Sector in a sustainable, economical and environmental friendly manner.

It is true that on paper, Nigeria's economy can be said to have become fairly diversified. Oil that at one time contributed nearly 42% of Nigeria's GDP now contributes less than 15%. Agriculture that at one time was almost 50% of GDP is now about 20%. Manufacturing that stagnated at about 4% for many years is nearly 10% today. All these are cheering news. But the problem is that oil is still providing 90% of the Foreign exchange needs of the Nation while Manufacturing and Agriculture are net consumers of foreign exchange.

To conclude, the Federal government must intensify its current focus on improving the global competitiveness of the non-oil sector so that we can truly diversify the sources of our foreign exchange earnings and halt our cyclical exposure to global oil price fluctuations. The government must use part of the excess income to incentivize export in a consistent and sustainable manner.
Executive Comments

Muhammadu Buhari  
President, Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces  
Federal Republic of Nigeria

The Economic Recovery and Growth Plan (ERGP) articulate our vision for the country for the period 2017-2020, and lay the foundation for long-term growth. The underlying philosophy is to optimize local content and empower local businesses. The plan clearly stipulates the role of government in facilitating, enabling and supporting the economic activities of businesses. It articulates the strategy for aligning fiscal, monetary and trade policies. The relevant policy instruments to promote import substitution and export promotion are also outlined. Through the plan, we are poised to achieve all of this whilst ensuring the protection of the public interest.

Executive Comments

Hon. Usani Usani Uguru  
Honourable Minister of Niger Delta  
Federal Republic of Nigeria  
Chairman and Lead Speaker

Economic growth is beneficial for society when it creates opportunities and provide supports to the vulnerable. The ERGP will invest in the Nigeria people by increasing social inclusion, creating jobs and improving the human capital base of the economy. Government will also invest in transmission infrastructure. With regard to the oil and gas sector, the intention is to increase the production of crude oil and gas while adding value on the downstream petroleum sector.
Senator Udoma Udo Udoma
Minister of Budget and National Planning
Federal Republic of Nigeria

We are determined to tackle it by taking resolute actions that will fundamentally change the structure of the economy and the way government business is conducted. The Economic Recovery and Growth Plan (ERGP), which builds on the Strategic Implementation Plan (SIP) for the 2016 Budget of Change, have been formulated to address the various dimensions of our current challenges. It sets out the tough choices we have to make as a nation over the next four years (2017-2020) and provides a clear road map of strategic policy actions and enablers required to receive the economy and place it on a path of sustainable growth and development.

Dr. Bassey Anam
Chairman, Conference Steering Committee
Institute of Public Policy and Administration
University of Calabar, Nigeria

The conference will highlight the prospects for successful implementation of the Nigeria Economic Recovery and Growth Plan (ERGP). The ERGP has several development opportunities for Nigeria. Diversifying and strengthening the Nigerian economy is the first and most considered option in achieving the objectives of growth plan. There are potentials in the oil and gas sectors, agriculture and manufacturing, telecommunications and tourism, among others. The economy is diversified from the primary products and away from crude oil and natural gas; to other sectors such as agriculture, manufacturing, solid mineral, services, tourism and trade.
Executive Comments

Professor Nathaniel Ozigbo
Department of Business Administration
University of Abuja, Nigeria
Chairman, Conference Organizing Committee

To make the Nigerian economy more competitive in the 21st century global economy, its industrial policy must be linked to a digital-led strategy for growth. The National Economy Recovery and Strategic Development Conference seek to identify sustainable strategies for the achievement of this growth plan.
PART ONE

Economic Recession:
The Nigeria Experience
Introduction

Nigeria has the potential to become a major player in the global economy by virtue of its human and natural resource endowments. However, this potential has remained relatively untapped over the years. After a shift from agriculture to crude oil and gas Nigeria's growth has continued to be driven by high oil prices lately. Previous economic policies left the country ill-prepared for the recent collapse of crude oil prices and production. The structure of the economy remains highly import dependent, consumption driven and undiversified. While Oil accounts for more than 95 per cent of exports and foreign exchange earnings, the manufacturing sector accounts for less than one percent of total exports (Ministry of Budget and National Planning, 2017).

After more than a decade of economic growth, the sharp and continuous decline in crude oil prices since mid-2014, along with a failure to diversify the sources of revenue and foreign exchange in the economy, led to a recession in the second quarter of 2016. The challenges in the oil sector, including sabotage at oil export terminals in the Niger Delta, negatively impacted on the government revenue and export earnings. The capacity of government spending was equally constrained by lack of fiscal buffers to absorb the shock, as well as leakages of public resources due to corruption and inefficient spending.
Therefore, the current economic recession or economic downturn which has negative effects on the economic betterment of the individuals is not a surprise. Such factors that readily come to the mind in today’s Nigeria include: unemployment, inflation, loss of income, insufficient food provision, high income inequality, inadequate clothing and dilapidated shelter. However, if we look out a little into the wider society, we find additional factors, which pose serious economic challenges to the welfare of the society as a whole. These include non-functional healthcare system, inadequate funding of the education sector, poor sanitation and bad drainage, absence of public convenience, highway potholes, preference for imported goods, subsistence agriculture, youth unemployment, indiscipline, poor governance, corruption among others.

Moreover, the rising prices of currently produced goods and services in the market are evidence of high cost of production and grossly inadequate domestic production. The factors of production are said to include: labour, land, capital and management (entrepreneurship). For total output to be more adequate land, labour and capital must be combined in a productive ratio. Unfortunately, managers have adopted an attitude of wait and see before risking their capital into any new investment and it is this same attitude of “wait-and-see” that aggravates the already existing inability of the economy to produce sufficient goods. Thus, raw materials lie waste and land previously “earmarked” for certain kinds of production cannot be easily used. (Anyanwu, 2017).

Therefore, the task of achieving economic recovery and sustainable growth and development is rather daunting as Nigeria appears to be trapped into vicious circles, which have interacted to keep it in a low growth equilibrium trap. The major challenges facing the Nigerian economy include inherited weak institutional structure coupled with exogenous and endogenous shocks and their attendant unwelcome effects on economic management. Government efforts in getting the economy out of the recession and in putting it on a sustainable growth path are contained in the Economic Recovery and Growth Plan, 2017-2020 (ERGP).

The Government has a big role to play in ensuring that the economy flourishes over time irrespective of the enormous challenges it faces including those that happen beyond the shores of the country, that is, the international political economy.

According to Ekpo (2016), the Nigerian Economy is currently in recession, after studying relevant macroeconomic and social indices such as the Gross Domestic
Product (GDP), unemployment rate, inflation rate, among others. The high rates of unemployment, combined with reduced output in two quarters of 2016 suggest an economy in the sphere of stagflation, a prelude to a recession”.

In addition, the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) of Nigeria released official Gross Domestic Product (GDP) figures for the second quarter of 2016, confirming that the Nigerian economy is in recession. According to the statistics released, the GDP contracted by 2.06 percent in the second quarter of 2016, following a contraction of 0.36 percent in the first quarter. This officially places Nigeria in a recession, which is defined by two or more consecutive quarters of negative economic growth.

The term Recession can be used to describe situations in which some financial institutions or assets suddenly lose large proportions of their values. Recessions are usually associated with banking panics, stock market crashes and the bursting of other forms of financial bubbles, currency crises and sovereign defaults. Key macroeconomic aggregates such as, GDP, growth, employment, investment spending, capacity-utilization, household incomes and business profits usually record decline during a recession. It is called a recession because it has brought about huge reduction in economic output and employment as well as diminished cross-border financial flows (Anyanwu, 2009).

Economic recession is a period of economic slowdown featuring low output, illiquidity and unemployment. It is characterized by its length, abnormal increases in unemployment, falls in the availability of credit, shrinking output and investment, reduced amounts of trade and commerce, as well as highly volatile relative currency value fluctuations, mostly devaluations, financial crises and bank failure.

Therefore, it is generally agreed that the slowdown in 2015 and descent of the Nigerian economy into recession in 2016 were both caused by two inter-related factors. These are the fall in world oil prices and reduction of Nigeria’s oil production. The first of these represents an external shock, while the second is an internal one. Based on this background this paper focuses on the economic recession and the future of the Nigerian economy: issues, challenges and prospects.

The Nigerian Economy in Perspective

Economic crisis generated by oil slide is not new to Nigeria. The large and abrupt oil price decline since June 2014 is just one of the largest declines. The other price
declines of similar magnitude occurred in 1985-86 and 2008-2009. In addition to these, were milder cases in 1978, 1981 and 1997. Since Nigeria's economy survived these earlier experiences, one may be tempted to presume that managing the current recession should not be too difficult. Unfortunately, this presumption may not necessarily be valid. This is because the impact of an economic downturn induced by an oil price decline is typically diverse, reflecting differences in initial conditions, transmission channels, fiscal and external vulnerabilities of economies along with the role of government policies in mitigating the economic downturn.

The 1985-86 oil price decline episode is associated with the global oil glut of that period. In the face of an oversupply in the world oil market, members of the Organization of Oil Exporting Countries (OPEC) decided to partly reverse their previous production cuts. As a result, average oil prices fell by 48% between 1985 and 1986. This induced a severe economic recession in Nigeria. The economy contracted at a rate of 8% for two consecutive years, while the naira depreciated by more than 70%.

As part of the Asian Financial Crisis of 1997, oil price fell progressively from about $20 per barrel in early 1997 to below $11 in February 1999. The impact of this oil price decline on the Nigeria economy was worsened by the deteriorating political situation in 1999. This combination generated an economic downturn in the context of which the naira experienced a depreciation of 75% with the economy grinding to a halt.

The next big one was associated with the Global Financial Crisis of 2008-2009. The build-up to this event started during 2003 when world oil price rose above $30 per barrel to reach $60 per barrel in August 2005 and finally peaked at $149.30 per barrel afterwards. The resulting recession in the global economy caused demand for energy to shrink and oil price to collapse to $32 per barrel in 2008.

There were several factors which enabled the Nigerian economy to avoid the worst possible impact of this global event. First, the non-oil domestic economy had built strong growth fundamentals that helped to mitigate the full impact of the oil sector decline. Second, due to the weakness of the US dollar to which the naira was pegged, the naira did not have to fall more than 20% against the dollar before its downward pressure was relieved. Third, by 2008, the government had accumulated $22 billion in the Excess Crude Account (ECA), which it was able to draw from to smooth the volatility in the oil sector. Hence, the Nigerian economy was able to resume its growth at the pre-2008 level only two years later.
The emergence of the oil sector from the early 1970s and its position of dominance as the primary source of Nigeria's export earnings and government revenue since then have created special policy challenges both for (a) establishing and maintaining short-term macroeconomic stability and (b) promoting and ensuring high, inclusive and sustainable economic growth over the medium and long-term. More specifically, the presence of a dominant and booming oil sector has exposed the Nigerian economy to external shocks that are generated by oil price volatility. The associated pro-cyclical fiscal policy bias has further worsened the management and impact of the incidence of the vulnerability. In this context, the establishment and sustenance of short-term macroeconomic stability have been difficult while high growth rates are unsustainable.

More directly, the presence of the oil sector also has significant implications for Nigeria's economic growth prospects in the medium to long-term. One channel for this is the well-known Dutch disease effect in the context of which large capital inflows generated by the oil boom tend to appreciate the real exchange rate that, in turn, retards the growth of non-oil tradables. The second channel consists of the use of the oil-induced capital flows to fund imports of non-oil tradables, especially raw materials and processed inputs of the manufacturing industry. More specifically, an inward-oriented manufacturing sector which does not export and relies heavily on imported raw materials, semi-processed inputs and machinery is kept alive through the funding of its import bill by the oil revenues. Therefore, the Nigeria's manufacturing industry is exposed to the same kind of vulnerability to external shocks as the whole economy. In this context, the manufacturing sector performs well in terms of the utilization of capacity during an oil-boom period but poorly when oil price falls, and when export earnings are drastically reduced and the economy's capacity to import is sharply reduced either through increased import controls or exchange rate depreciation.

This has also impacted on the various sectors in the Nigerian economy. Nigeria's real GDP growth performance was quite robust over the 2010-2014 periods when the real GDP growth rate varied between 4.21% and 7.80%, with an average of 5.81%. This growth rate fell to 2.79% in 2015; a decline of 52% from the 2010-2014 average growth rate. A more comprehensive picture of the economic slowdown and the economy's descent into recession between 2014 and 2016 is presented in Table 1. This shows that while real GDP growth rate declined sharply between 2014 and 2015, it remained positive until 2016.
As shown in Table 1, in the case of the agricultural sector, the average growth rate during the 2014-2016 was 4.03% and although the growth rate in 2015 was slightly below this average, it more or less returned to trend by 2016. By comparison, the manufacturing sector appears to have borne the main burden of the economic slowdown and recession. This sector which grew at 14.72% in 2014 had its growth rate reduced to -1.46% and -4.32% in 2015 and 2016 respectively. This growth and decline pattern are replicated in the case of Foods, Beverages and Tobacco (FBT) and Textile, Apparel and Footwear (TAF) which together account for well over 50% of the total output of the manufacturing sector. The same sharp descent was the case of Motor Vehicle and Assembly (MNA), which represents the center-piece of Nigeria's current industrial revolution plan.

Table 1: GDP and Sectoral Growth Rate (%), 2014-2016

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Growth Rate (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Real GDP</td>
<td>6.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>4.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>14.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food, Beverage and Tobacco</td>
<td>5.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textile, Apparel and Footwear</td>
<td>31.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motor Vehicle and Assembly</td>
<td>25.61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Growth Rates of Some Economic Activities in 2016

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Q1</th>
<th>Q2</th>
<th>Q3</th>
<th>Q4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>4.53</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>4.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mining and Quarrying</td>
<td>-2.96</td>
<td>-17.19</td>
<td>-21.64</td>
<td>-12.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crude Petroleum and Natural Gas</td>
<td>-1.89</td>
<td>-17.48</td>
<td>-22.01</td>
<td>-12.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coal Mining</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>-7.76</td>
<td>0.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metal Ores</td>
<td>57.03</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>6.89</td>
<td>7.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quarrying and Other Minerals</td>
<td>-88.87</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>7.07</td>
<td>6.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>-7.00</td>
<td>-3.36</td>
<td>-4.38</td>
<td>-2.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>-5.37</td>
<td>-6.28</td>
<td>-6.13</td>
<td>-6.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade</td>
<td>2.02</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
<td>-1.38</td>
<td>-1.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation and Storage</td>
<td>14.73</td>
<td>-5.34</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>-5.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information and Communication</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>1.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial and Insurance</td>
<td>-11.28</td>
<td>-10.82</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>2.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Real Estate</td>
<td>-4.69</td>
<td>-5.27</td>
<td>-7.37</td>
<td>-9.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>-0.11</td>
<td>-0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Health and Social Services</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>-2.64</td>
<td>-2.31</td>
<td>-2.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP at 2010 constant price</td>
<td>-0.36</td>
<td>-2.06</td>
<td>-2.24</td>
<td>-1.30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 2 shows in a glance the negative growth rates of economic activities recorded over the last four quarters of 2016. The mining and quarrying sector had the most negative rates as well as manufacturing, construction, real estate.

Further evidence on the extent of the economic slowdown and recession is provided by the Central Bank of Nigeria’s Purchasing Managers Index (PNI) in the February 2017 Report. This report shows that the manufacturing sector PMI stood at 44.6 index in February 2017, thus indicating declines in the sector for two consecutive months since an up-tick in December 2016. Similarly, the composite PMI for non-manufacturing sector declined. In both cases, production and employment levels continued to decline.
In spite of this declining trend, a broad consensus seems to be emerging that the economy will emerge from recession in 2017 and grow further in 2018 and 2019. More specifically, the World Bank (2017) projects the following real GDP growth rates for the Nigerian economy: 1.0% (2017), 2.5% (2018) and 2.5% (2019). Similarly, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) projects that the Nigerian economy will grow by 0.8% in 2017, 1.9% in 2018, 1.9% in 2019 and 1.8% in 2020. By comparison, the Economic Recovery and Growth Plan (ERGP) of the Nigerian Government contains significantly higher growth rates as follows: 2017 (2.2%), 2018 (4.8%), 2019 (4.5%), and 2020 (7.0%).

### Table 3: Projections of Real GDP Growth Rates for Economic Recovery

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>GDP Growth Rates Projections</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>World Bank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2017</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2018</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2019</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2020</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Conceptual Issues on Economic Recession

#### Definition of Economic Recession

There is no official definition of recession but it is a general consensus among Economists that a recession is a general downturn in economy associated with high unemployment, slowing gross domestic product and high inflation. Recessions could be as a result of a fall in aggregate demand, which results from a fall in consumption or intended investment. In order to spur aggregate demand, government spending is introduced to increase aggregate demand (Goodwin et. al., 2009). Recessions generally occur when there is a widespread drop in spending. This may be triggered by various events, such as a financial crisis, an external trade shock, an adverse supply shock or the bursting of an economic bubble. Governments usually respond to recessions by adopting expansionary macroeconomic policies, such as increasing money supply, increasing government spending and decreasing taxation. A
depression on the other hand, is a deep and long-lasting recession. While no specific criteria exist to declare a depression, unique features of the last U.S. depression, the Great Depression of the 1930s, included a GDP decline in excess of 10% and an unemployment rate that is up to 25%.

Most commentators and analysts use, as a practical definition of recession, two consecutive quarters of decline in a country's real (inflation adjusted) gross domestic product (GDP) the value of all goods and services a country produces. A focus on GDP alone is narrow, and it is often better to consider a wider set of measures of economic activity to determine whether a country is indeed suffering from a recession or not. According to the National Bureau of Economic Research (NBER), recession is defined as "a significant decline in economic activity spread across the economy, lasting more than a few months, normally visible in real gross domestic product (GDP), real income, employment, industrial production and wholesale-retail sales". More specifically, recession is defined as when businesses cease to expand, the GDP diminishes for two consecutive quarters, the rate of unemployment rises and housing prices decline.

The National Bureau of Statistics (NBS), provided research evidence on negative growth rate of Gross Domestic Product and an increasing unemployment, inflation and poverty figures on recession situations. Other Schools of thought also believe that a recession is when the economy declines significantly for at least six months. That means there’s a drop in the following five economic indicators: real GDP, income, employment, manufacturing, and retail sales. Increased government spending works during a recession because some resources are not being fully utilized, as the economy is not working at full-employment capacity. Furthermore, government outlays are being directly injected to the public to increase consumption.

According to NBS first Quarter GDP Report just released, the Nigerian Economy is still in recession. The good news is that Nigeria is gradually getting out of the recession. The fourth quarter GDP figure (year on year) which stood at -1.73% slowed to -0.52% in the first quarter of 2017. With effective government policies, it is hoped that the economy will be out of recession in the second quarter of 2017 and Nigerians will be better for it. (NBS, 2017).
Common Characteristics of Recession

Although each recession has unique features, recessions often exhibit a number of common characteristics:

1. They typically last about a year and often result in a significant output cost. In particular, a recession is usually associated with a decline of 2 percent in GDP. In the case of severe recessions, the typical output cost is close to 5 percent.
2. The fall in consumption is often small, but both industrial production and investment register much larger declines than that in GDP.
3. They typically overlap with drops in international trade as exports and especially, imports fall sharply during periods of slowdown.
4. The unemployment rate almost always jumps and inflation falls slightly because overall demand for goods and services is curtailed. Along with the erosion of house and equity values, recessions tend to be associated with turmoil in the financial markets (Claessens, Kose and Terrones 2008).

There are various reasons why countries enter into a recession and it all depends on the economic framework of that country. Nevertheless, there are generally several factors that may cause recession.

Causes of Recession

Understanding the causes of recessions has been one of the enduring areas of research in economics. There are a variety of reasons recessions take place. Some are associated with sharp changes in the prices of the inputs used in producing goods and services. A recession can also be triggered by a country’s decision to reduce inflation by employing contractionary monetary or fiscal policies. When used excessively, such policies can lead to a decline in demand for goods and services, eventually resulting in a recession.

According to Claessens, Kose and Terrones (2008), some recessions, including that in the USA, are rooted in financial market problems. Sharp increases in asset prices and a speedy expansion of credit often coincide with rapid accumulation of debt. As corporations and households face difficulties in meeting their debt obligations, they reduce investment and consumption, which in turn leads to a decrease in economic activities. Not all such credit booms end up in recessions, but when they do, these recessions are often costly than others. Recessions can be the result of a decline in external demand, especially in countries with strong export sectors. Adverse effects of recessions in large countries such as Germany, Japan, and the United States are rapidly felt by their regional trading partners, especially during globally synchronized recessions.
Because recessions have many potential causes, it is a challenge to predict them. The behavioral patterns of numerous economic variables including credit volume, asset prices, and the unemployment rate around recessions have been documented, but although they might be the cause of recessions, they could also be the result of recessions or may be endogenous to recessions. Even though Economists use a large set of variables to forecast the future behavior of economic activity, none has proven a reliable predictor of whether a recession is going to take place. Changes in some variables such as asset prices, the unemployment rate, certain interest rates, and consumer confidence appear to be useful in predicting recessions, but Economists still fall short of accurately forecasting a significant fraction of recessions, let alone predicting their severity in terms of duration.

So many factors could be responsible for the cause of a recession in an economy. Some of them include:

1. High interest rates might be cause of a recession because they limit liquidity, or the amount of money available to invest.

2. Increased inflation: Inflation refers to a general rise in the prices of goods and services over a period of time. As inflation increases, the percentage of goods and services that can be purchased with the same amount of money decreases.

3. Reduced consumer confidence is another factor that can cause a recession. If consumers believe the economy is bad, they are less likely to spend money. Consumer confidence is psychological but can have a real impact on an economy.

4. Reduced real wages, that is, wages that have been adjusted for inflation. Falling real wages means that a worker’s paycheck is not keeping up with inflation. The worker might be making the same amount of money, but his purchasing power has been reduced.

Narrowing it down to Nigeria, analysts and social commentators have tried to provide reasons why they think economic recession was triggered. To most people, a dip in government revenues arising from a significant drop in oil prices and/or a drop in consumer spending are some of the reasons for recession. A nation like Nigeria where government remains the highest spender in the economy, a drop in Government spending can dovetail into a drop in consumer spending which in turns affects businesses.
Traditionally, Nigerians believe that the current recession was scaled up by the following factors:

1. Implementation of TSA.
2. Pipeline Vandalism and Stoppage of Pipelines Contracts
3. The Anti-Corruption War
4. Consumer’s Debt and Spending Reduction
5. Delayed Budget Approval and Implementation
6. Nigeria’s Over-Dependence on Foreign Products
7. Inability of the Previous Administrations to Save for the Rainy Day
8. Oil Prices Glut and Decline GDP
9. Collapse of the Capital Market
10. Reduction in Oversea Development Assistance and Foreign Direct Investment (FDI)
11. Rising Tide of Corruption and Social Vices
12. Rise in Inflation
14. Consumption – Based Economy
15. Poor Savings and High Credit Culture
16. Huge Financial Outflow Spent in Prosecuting War against Terrorism
17. Inadequate Regulatory Framework

Effects of Economic Recession

Fall in Business Activities: When households’ incomes are cut as a result of economic recession, they reduce their demand for goods and services. As a result of low demand from households, firms reduce their production of such goods and services in order to cut cost and profit will decline. As a consequence of production fall, workers would be laid off, there will be no buying of new equipment, no funding for research and development, no new product rollouts and general business activities would also fall. During recessions, stronger companies look to swallow up weaker and smaller ones through mergers and outright takeovers, and this negatively affects the competitive environment; These mergers or outright acquisitions also result in job losses; thereby, further depressing family incomes and reducing discretionary spending that is needed to combat recession. The combined effect of job losses, scarcity of goods, and increased prices help drive families further into economic difficulties.
Falling Stocks and Dwindling Dividends: Stocks prices mirror the performance of businesses in the economy because they move proportionately with the returns earned. As revenues decline on the statutory reports of businesses, lower dividends are declared. This will depress the price of stocks in the market. So many businesses have lost their viabilities because of the risks they are carrying at the moment. When dividends fall or vanish, this creates other problems such as the sacking of the Board of Directors and senior management of the company. The advertising/marketing unit may be affected, creating unemployment problem for the economy. When a manufacturer's stocks fall and the dividends decline or stop, institutional investors, holding the stocks may sell and reinvest the proceeds in better performing stocks. This will further depress the company's stock price and affect the entire equities market and the cycle continues.

Credit Default and Bankruptcy: Recession also has effect on the ability of customers to pay their debt to the creditors, leading to growing non-performing loans (NPL). In the heat of the economic recession, so many subprime debts went bad, thereby impairing the ability of debtors to service their debts. As a result, so many banks went bankrupt. Also, when debtors are not able to repay their debts, companies’ ability to repay their creditors is hampered as a result of falling revenues. This leads to default in paying interest and the principal. The resulting consequence is debt downgrade and rescheduling. In the process, investors will lose confidence in the company and the company may not be able to raise money from the capital market again. When the source of funding ceases, the business will fold up resulting in employees lay-off, and increasing the unemployment in the economy.

Product Quality Compromise: Recession affects the revenue of firms, and by extension, profitability. In an effort to cut costs and improve its bottom line, the company could compromise product quality, and in the process lose its market share. A baker could offer the same loaf of bread at the same price but reduce major ingredients such as milk, butter, etc. so as to cut cost and improve the bottom line during recession. Recession could force airlines to lower their maintenance standards in order to cut cost and break even or increase the fees. They may cut flights to routes that are not profitable and frequently cancel flights when there are insufficient passengers for a particular flight. This could cause some inconveniences to passengers, leading to economic loss.
Unemployment and Delay in the Payment of Salaries: Recession has a devastating impact on employment worldwide. According to the International Labour Organization (ILO), at least 20 million jobs were lost by the end of 2009 due to the impact of the Global Financial Crisis, mostly in construction, real estate, and financial services sector, bringing the world unemployment above 200 million for the first time. Similarly, in Nigeria, quite a number of people have been dismissed from their places of work and this has increased the rate of unemployment in the country. There is also delay in salary payment for those working in some cases.

Decline in Social Life/Tourism: Recession affects the social life in some respects, especially tourism. Reasons for the fall in business travels include company travel policy changes, dwindled personal economic fortunes, uncertainties and high airline prices. Hotels are responding to the downturn by dropping rates, and negotiating deals for both business travellers and tourists.

Politics: The recession leads to electoral misfortunes; though democratic institutions continue to exist. Some of the electoral officers appointed by INEC to oversee elections are compromising.

Increase in Expenditures: Recession often leads to increased expenditure in developing countries as increased unemployment and poverty automatically lead to increased welfare spending by the governments. This can lead to increased national debt and macroeconomic instability.

Effects on the Society: With more people out of work, and families increasingly unable to make ends meet, the pressure on demand for government-funded social services increases. Since governments also experience a fall in revenue collection during recession, it becomes difficult to meet the increased demands on social services. Effect on the pensioners and those on fixed income is worst e.g. social security checks, the elderly and disabled. With the loss of a job, every plan for the future – college education, home purchase, vehicle replacement, and other family-enhancing plans are all suspended, and may never be reactivated or achieved.

The Vision for the Economic Recovery and Growth Plan (ERGP), 2017 – 2020
The current administration recognizes that the economy is likely to remain on a path of steady and steep decline if nothing is done to change the trajectory, therefore, the
vision of the ERGP is for sustained inclusive growth. There is an urgent need as a nation to drive a structural economic transformation with an emphasis on improving both public and private sectors efficiency. It aims at increasing national productivity and achieving sustainable diversification of production, to significantly grow the economy and achieve maximum welfare for the citizens, beginning with food and energy security.

The Economic Recovery and Growth Plan (ERGP), a Medium Term Plan for 2017 – 2020, builds on the Social Investment Programme (SIP) and has been developed for the purpose of restoring economic growth while leveraging the ingenuity and resilience of the Nigerian people – the nation's most priceless assets. Consistent with the aspirations of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), the ERGP initiatives address three dimensions of economic, social and environmental sustainability issues.

**Outlook for the Plan**

By 2020, Nigeria will have made significant progress towards achieving structural economic change and having a more diversified and inclusive economy. Overall, the Plan is expected to deliver on the following key outcomes:

**Stable Macroeconomic Environment:** The inflation rate is projected to trend downwards from the current level of almost 19 per cent to single digits by 2020. It is also projected that the exchange rate will stabilize as the monetary, fiscal and trade policies are fully aligned. This outcome will be achieved through policies that seek to remove uncertainty in the exchange rate and restore investors' confidence in the market.

**Restoration of Growth:** Real GDP is projected to grow by 4.6 percent on average over the Plan period, from an estimated contraction of 1.51 percent recorded in 2016. Real GDP growth is projected to improve significantly to 2.19 per cent in 2017, reaching 7 per cent at the end of the Plan period in 2020. The strong recovery and expansion of crude oil and natural gas production will result as challenges in the oil-producing areas are overcome and investment in the sector increases. Crude oil output is forecast to rise from about 1.8 mbpd in 2016 to 2.2 mbpd in 2017 and 2.5 mbpd by 2020. Relentless focus on electricity and gas will also drive growth and expansion in all other sectors.
Agricultural Transformation and Food Security: Agriculture will continue to be a stable driver of GDP growth, with an average growth rate of 6.9 per cent over the Plan period. The Agricultural sector will boost growth by expanding crop production and the fisheries, livestock and forestry sub-sectors as well as developing the value chain. Investment in agriculture will drive food security by achieving self-sufficiency in tomato paste (in 2017), rice (in 2018) and wheat (in 2020). Thus, by 2020, Nigeria is projected to become a net exporter of key agricultural products, such as rice, cashew nuts, groundnuts, cassava and vegetable oil.

Power and Petroleum Products Sufficiency: The ERGP aims to achieve 10 Gigawatt (GW) of operational capacity by 2020 and to improve the energy mix, including through greater use of renewable energy. The country is projected to become a net exporter of refined petroleum products by 2020.

Improved Stock of Transportation Infrastructure: By placing transportation infrastructure as one of its key execution priorities, effective implementation of this Plan is projected to significantly improve the transportation network (road, rail and port) in Nigeria by 2020. Given the scale of investment required to deliver this outcome, strong partnership with the private sector is expected to result in completion of strategic rail networks connecting major economic centres across the country, as well as improved federal road networks, inland waterways and airports.

Industrialized Economy: Strong recovery and growth in the manufacturing, SMEs and services sectors are also anticipated, particularly in agro-processing, and food and beverage manufacturing. Ongoing strategies to improve the ease of doing business will boost all manufacturing sector activities. Overall, the ERGP estimates an average annual growth of 8.5 per cent in manufacturing, rising from -5.8 per cent in 2016 to 10.6 per cent by 2020.

Job Creation and Youth Empowerment: The implementation of the Plan is projected to reduce unemployment from 13.9 per cent as of Q3 2016 to 11.23 per cent by 2020. This translates to the creation of over 15 million jobs during the Plan horizon or an average of 3.7 million jobs per annum. The focus of the job creation efforts will be youth employment, and ensuring that the youths are the priority beneficiaries.

Improved Foreign Exchange Inflows: The reduction in the importation of petroleum products resulting from improvement in local refining capacity following
the implementation of the ERGP is projected to reduce demand for foreign exchange. The economic diversification focus of the Plan is also projected to translate into enhanced inflows of foreign exchange from the non-oil sector.

On the whole, Nigeria is expected to witness stability in exchange rate and the entire macroeconomic environment. The country will also witness a major improvement in economic performance which should result in the following, amongst others: a) reduction in importation of food items and refined petroleum products, b) improved power supply, c) higher quality transport infrastructure, d) expansion in the level of industrial production, e) improved competitiveness, f) greater availability of foreign exchange, g) job creation, h) reduction in poverty and i) greater inclusiveness in the spread of the benefits of economic growth.

Unlike previous government policies and plans, the ERGP outlines a proposed delivery strategy which, amongst other things, establishes clear accountability, sets targets, allocates resources to established priority areas, creates enabling policy and regulatory environments, monitors and drives progress and ensures effective communication. Whilst Nigerians continue to wait on the implementation of the Plan, it remains to be seen if the ERGP can deliver on its promise given its relatively ambitious timeline and the many other challenges to overcome. What appears to be clear however, is that the ERGP, if successfully implemented, would have tremendous effect in almost every sector of the Nigerian economy while leveraging on science, technology and innovation. Although the timeline for achieving most of its priority objectives appear ambitious, the Plan undoubtedly presents significant trade and investment opportunities for both local and international investors and businesses at a time when this is sorely needed (Templars, 2017).
Table 4 presents Selected Macroeconomic Projections, 2016-2020 (in percent of GDP except otherwise specified).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>REAL</th>
<th>2016</th>
<th>2017</th>
<th>2018</th>
<th>2019</th>
<th>2020</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Real GDP Growth %</td>
<td>-1.54</td>
<td>2.19</td>
<td>4.80</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>7.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of which.. Agriculture %</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>5.03</td>
<td>7.04</td>
<td>7.21</td>
<td>8.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of which.. Industry %</td>
<td>-10.13</td>
<td>7.74</td>
<td>6.11</td>
<td>6.07</td>
<td>8.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of which.. Services %</td>
<td>-0.51</td>
<td>-1.26</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>5.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non Oil GDP %</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>7.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oil GDP %</td>
<td>-15.41</td>
<td>24.30</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>4.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross National Disposable Income (GNDI)</td>
<td>101.73</td>
<td>101.86</td>
<td>101.83</td>
<td>101.78</td>
<td>101.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross National Income (GNI)</td>
<td>97.48</td>
<td>97.67</td>
<td>97.77</td>
<td>97.88</td>
<td>97.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross National Savings</td>
<td>11.29</td>
<td>13.71</td>
<td>15.53</td>
<td>18.19</td>
<td>21.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Consumption (C)</td>
<td>90.44</td>
<td>88.14</td>
<td>86.30</td>
<td>83.59</td>
<td>80.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private Consumption (Cp)</td>
<td>86.33</td>
<td>83.28</td>
<td>81.08</td>
<td>77.92</td>
<td>73.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government Consumption (Cg)</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>4.86</td>
<td>5.22</td>
<td>5.67</td>
<td>6.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross Domestic Investment (I)</td>
<td>13.95</td>
<td>13.90</td>
<td>14.34</td>
<td>15.57</td>
<td>17.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government Investment (Ig)</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>2.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private Investment (Ip)</td>
<td>10.42</td>
<td>10.20</td>
<td>11.19</td>
<td>12.68</td>
<td>14.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inflation Rate %</td>
<td>18.55</td>
<td>15.74</td>
<td>12.42</td>
<td>13.39</td>
<td>9.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oil Price Benchmark US$</td>
<td>38.00</td>
<td>42.50</td>
<td>45.00</td>
<td>50.00</td>
<td>52.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oil Production (mbpd)</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labor Force growth rate %</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>4.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment %</td>
<td>14.20</td>
<td>16.32</td>
<td>14.51</td>
<td>12.90</td>
<td>11.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment inc underemployment rate%</td>
<td>32.77</td>
<td>33.51</td>
<td>31.88</td>
<td>29.65</td>
<td>26.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EXTERNAL</th>
<th>2016</th>
<th>2017</th>
<th>2018</th>
<th>2019</th>
<th>2020</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Current Account, n.i.e.</td>
<td>-1.84</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td>2.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade Balance</td>
<td>-0.31</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>3.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capital and Financial Accounts</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>1.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of which.. FDI</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PI</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Balance</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>-2.11</td>
<td>-3.43</td>
<td>-3.99</td>
<td>-4.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Net Factor Income Payments (Yf)</td>
<td>-2.52</td>
<td>-2.33</td>
<td>-2.23</td>
<td>-2.12</td>
<td>-2.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exports of goods and services (X)</td>
<td>9.01</td>
<td>10.82</td>
<td>11.52</td>
<td>11.39</td>
<td>11.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of which exports of goods</td>
<td>8.38</td>
<td>10.23</td>
<td>10.95</td>
<td>10.85</td>
<td>11.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imports of goods and services (M)</td>
<td>-12.58</td>
<td>-12.03</td>
<td>-11.40</td>
<td>-10.58</td>
<td>-10.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of which imports of goods</td>
<td>-8.69</td>
<td>-8.43</td>
<td>-8.11</td>
<td>-7.59</td>
<td>-7.71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: MBNP, NBS, FMF and CBN; ERGP, 2017
Table 4b: Selected Macroeconomic Projections, 2016-2020
(in percent of GDP except otherwise specified)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fiscal</th>
<th>2016</th>
<th>2017</th>
<th>2018</th>
<th>2019</th>
<th>2020</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Revenue</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>4.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>... of which oil</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>1.88</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>2.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>... of which non oil (including accrued government revenue &amp; other government independent revenue)</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>2.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Non-debt recurrent expenditure</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>2.49</td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>2.02</td>
<td>2.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interest payments</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>1.59</td>
<td>1.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Expenditure</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.21</td>
<td>6.92</td>
<td>6.27</td>
<td>5.85</td>
<td>5.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Capital Expenditure</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.63</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>1.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Primary Balance</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-0.86</td>
<td>-0.66</td>
<td>-0.33</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Deficit (-) or Surplus (% GDP)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-2.26</td>
<td>-2.23</td>
<td>-1.96</td>
<td>-1.24</td>
<td>-1.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Financing</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Domestic (% of financing)</strong></td>
<td>53.68</td>
<td>53.21</td>
<td>34.38</td>
<td>20.57</td>
<td>26.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Foreign (% of financing)</strong></td>
<td>28.80</td>
<td>45.30</td>
<td>65.62</td>
<td>79.43</td>
<td>71.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Other Financing (% of financing)</strong></td>
<td>17.52</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Use of Cash Balances (% of financing)</strong></td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>2.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Primary balance (% of GDP)</strong></td>
<td>-0.84</td>
<td>-2.80</td>
<td>-6.19</td>
<td>-4.33</td>
<td>-6.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**MONETARY (yoy %)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2016</th>
<th>2017</th>
<th>2018</th>
<th>2019</th>
<th>2020</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Net Domestic Credit (NDC) YOY growth rate</strong></td>
<td>33.32</td>
<td>10.26</td>
<td>14.72</td>
<td>18.20</td>
<td>19.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Government (NDCg) YOY growth rate</strong></td>
<td>12.30</td>
<td>14.23</td>
<td>9.16</td>
<td>8.66</td>
<td>10.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Private (DCp) YOY growth rate</strong></td>
<td>30.74</td>
<td>10.68</td>
<td>14.12</td>
<td>17.21</td>
<td>19.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>M2 Growth YOY growth rate</strong></td>
<td>22.18</td>
<td>22.89</td>
<td>20.06</td>
<td>21.84</td>
<td>19.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Income Velocity</strong></td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>2.83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Sources:** MBNP, NBS, FMF and CBN, ERGP, 2017
Budget 2017
Figure 1: Approved 2017 Budget Proposal

From Figure 1, Nigeria's budget has continued to increase since 2015 from N4.8trillion to N6.1trillion in 2016 and an estimated N7.4 trillion in 2017. In 2017, budget tagged budget of recovery, the proposed breakdown N2.64trillion (non-debt recurrent expenditure), N2.174trillion (capital expenditure), N434billion (statutory transfers) and N1.663trillion for debt servicing. Deficit is estimated at N2.35trillion, N808billion (independent revenue), N5.08trillion as revenue projections. Top priorities among the sectors are education, defence, health, interior, while among others, top capital allocation goes to transportation, defence, education, industry, trade and investment, interior, health, education, Niger Delta, special intervention etc.

Challenges and Prospects of the Nigerian Economy
Challenges of the Nigerian Economy
Nigeria is a **Mono-product Economy** with the bulk of government revenue coming from oil exports which is susceptible to shocks in the international oil market. Moreover, many other solid minerals with which the country is richly endowed with,
remain generally untapped. More fundamentally, the economy has disproportionately relied on the primary sector (subsistence agriculture and the extractive industry) without any meaningful value addition (Sanusi, 2010). In light of this, the little growth recorded in the economy, thus far, has been without commensurate employment, positive attitudinal change, value reorientation, and equitable income distribution, among others.

These could be attributed to poor leadership, poor implementation of economic policies, weak institutions, poor corporate governance, endemic corruption, etc. According to Sanusi, 2010, these challenges have remained largely unresolved owing to the myriad of problems. Presently, Nigeria is also facing the following challenges:

**Infrastructural Challenges:** The main challenges facing the economy are poor economic and social infrastructure: bad roads, erratic power supply, limited access to portable water and basic healthcare, and much more. Building a vibrant economy or restoring growth to a sluggish economy requires resources. The infrastructural deficiencies in the economy lead to low productivity, poor quality products and non-competitiveness in the global market place. The annual budgets are defective in structure and adequacy to address infrastructural problems.

**Corruption Challenges:** Although corruption is a global scourge, Nigeria appears to suffer seriously from it. Everyone appears to believe that the nation has a “culture of corruption”. Over the years, Nigeria has earned huge sums of money from crude oil, which appears to have largely gone down the sinkhole created by corruption. Corruption has denied Nigerians the value of the petro-dollar that has accrued to the country over the years. The failure of infrastructure, political and ethical standards as well as moral standards can easily be traced to corruption. There are not enough checks and balances.

i. **High Cost of Governance.** Nigeria continues to maintain a very high cost of governance and wasteful spending which must be addressed at all levels.

ii. **Macroeconomic Challenges:** The Nigerian macro economy is still characterized by structural rigidities, dualism and the false paradigm model. Generally, the sectors of the economy are in silos to the extent that the primary sector does not relate meaningfully with the secondary sector and the same for the secondary and the tertiary sectors. Agricultural produce end up as final consumer goods as only a small quantity is processed or used as raw materials for local manufacturing industries. Also, the produce of the
extractive industries are exported in their raw forms without local value addition.

iii. **The Dutch Disease:** Since the oil price boom of the early 1970s, the country abandoned the agricultural and industrial sectors of the economy to the old and the weak. Both the public and private sectors of the economy concentrate their efforts on oil and gas industry to the extent that the mainstream economy is denied funding, requisite investment and even managerial capabilities. Thus, the mainstream economy has become uncompetitive globally while the country has turned into a trading outpost for foreign companies. This has hindered the much-needed transformation of the economy in the last four decades.

iv. **Poor Institutions and Corporate Governance:** Another important challenge to sustainable economic growth in Nigeria is ineffective institutions and poor governance. These factors have been hindering various efforts and reforms of the government to stimulate economic growth for sustainable development in Nigeria. The prevalence of weak institutions and poor corporate governance as well as poor ethical standards in most public and private organizations, hinder the attainment of the goals of economic policies in the country. Poor corporate governance has adversely affected the quality of institutions to the extent that public and private institutions are used for selfish interests, thereby, making regulation and law enforcement ineffective, lack of respect for the laws of the land, impunity and accountability.

v. **Low Quality of Education:** Education is an important factor in economic growth and development. But the nation’s educational system has been facing myriad of challenges, which prevent the country from achieving its economic objectives. The problems include: inadequate funding and planning and management, inadequate infrastructure, irrelevance of curricula to industrial needs, and inadequate commitment on the part of students and teachers, among others. All these have combined to hinder the production of a high quality work force to propel the economy (Aigbedion, Anyanwu and Wafure, 2016).

vi. **Poor Investment Climate and Business Environment:** The consequence of all that have been said above is the poor investment climate in the economy that has rendered the economy uncompetitive. In the absence of adequate infrastructure (power, roads, water, etc.), the cost of doing business in the country remain high, forcing business to relocate to
neighbouring countries like Ghana, Niger, Chad etc even companies that had existed in Nigeria for upwards of four decades.

vii. **Non-implementation of Budgets Fully**: The annual budgets are not usually implemented 100% and this constitutes a cog in the wheel of economic progress of Nigeria.

viii. **Political Overburden and Insecurity**: This has a lot of cost implications as top class decisions and policies are compromised. There is also the problem of insecurity in Nigeria.

**Prospects of the Nigerian Economy**

This section deals with the prospects which are bright for the economy. Indeed, it has been projected that by the year 2050, Brazil, Russia, India and China, usually referred to as the BRIC countries, would have a combined economy that is bigger than the group of six (G6) industrialized countries – USA, Japan, Germany, UK, France and Italy.

The 2005 “Global Economics” Paper No. 134 published a list of eleven countries that could have the BRIC effect and achieve global economy-giant-status by 2025. The countries include: Bangladesh, Egypt, Indonesia, Iran, Mexico, Nigeria, Pakistan, Philippines, South Korea, Turkey and Vietnam. In the projection of Goldman Sachs, only about 11 countries may have bigger economies than Nigeria by 2050. It is clear that the Nigerian economy has great potentials, all that is required is a policy framework that can jump-start it. Nigeria can leverage on its sizeable population, with a relatively highly-educated and enterprising workforce and its richly endowed economic potentials: physical, human and natural resources.

Therefore, the potentials in the oil and gas sectors, agriculture and manufacturing, telecommunications and tourism, among others brighten the growth prospects of the country. Nigeria is also a major growth pole in the West African sub-region and the African continent, and so it has enormous geo-political and strategic advantage that if leveraged upon would foster growth and economic recovery.

In summary, this growth prospects and economic recovery can be achieved and sustained if:

1. The economy is diversified from the primary products and away from crude oil and natural gas; to other sectors such as agriculture, manufacturing, solid mineral, services, tourism and trade. The downstream petroleum sub-sector is deregulated and encouraged the setting up of private refineries;
2. Efforts are sustained to maintain peace in Niger Delta to boost crude oil and gas output;
3. Electricity supply is increased to 15,000-25,000 MWh between now and 2020, to boost manufacturing capacity utilization and activities in other critical sectors;
4. Other key economic and social infrastructure are improved to facilitate the performances of other sectors.
5. Agricultural output is increased barring adverse weather conditions, with continued implementation of various government programmes, especially preserving, processing and marketing activities; to add value to agricultural output.
6. The banking sector reforms and efforts to resolve liquidity challenges are sustained to channel credit massively to the real sector of the economy.
7. The growth in the services sector is sustained, by increasing the local contents of the industry and by expanding the tele-density of the country.
8. The balance of trade is persistently positive, as it has been in the last five years.
9. External reserves can be substantially built up to boost the credit worthiness of the economy and attract foreign investment.
10. Government sustains the current reforms in the various sectors of the economy to achieve rapid growth and development.
11. The existing democratic governance is sustained, rule of law, justice, fairness and equity and inclusive growth are given priorities they deserve in Nigeria.
12. Strengthen law enforcement institutions and sustain fight of corruption.
13. Put in place definite effort to reduce cost of governance and restructure government expenditure pattern in favour of capital expenditure.
14. Motivate the SMEs and enhance good governance.
15. Full implementation of the Budget 2017 to achieve sustainable development.
16. Nigeria should borrow a leaf from USA and other countries that have successfully come out of recessions (Britain, Canada, Ireland, Singapore, etc.).

Recommendations for Economic Recovery

Diversification of the Economy: Government intervention on agriculture is heavily needed in boosting production in the sector across the variety of crops and animal production in Nigeria. Although output in crop has continued to increase quarterly year-on-year according to the NBS in 2016, more resources need to be devoted into the agricultural sector, as well as amendment of the Land Use Act of 1978
and protection of farmers against the attacks, agriculture needs to be business inclined away from subsistence production. Government subsidies and support to enhance productivity should be the watch word. Already a lot of efforts have been made, including those by the Central Bank of Nigeria, aimed at improving the funding of the sector at affordable costs. Bringing back the river basin schemes would go a long way to transform the agricultural sector. The CBN Anchor Borrowers Programme (ABP) launched in November 17, 2015 to create a linkage between anchor companies involved in the processing and small holders farmers (SHFs) of the required key agriculture commodities is good, however, more initiatives and efforts must be made to boost agriculture in all chains of production by the Ministry of Agriculture.

In the ERGP, the Plan proposes to establish a N200billion solid minerals seed fund. The establishment of this Fund undoubtedly offer renewed hope for improved access to finance for participants in this industry but the terms, structure, implementation and administration of this Fund may not entirely dispel the concerns of industry participants in the light of previous experiences. For example the CBN's-Nigerian Electricity Market Stabilization Facility (CBN-NEMSF) and the Power and Airline Intervention Fund (PAIF).

**The Wholesale and Retail Trade Sectors and Service Sector:** These would blossom and contribute highly to GDP. The service sector is another source of life for the Nigerian economy. The telecommunications sub-sector continues to drive that sector. Improvements in power supply would increase the output of the sector. The local content of the sector can also be improved upon. In the context of the ERGP, the Plan for “Diversification and Growth” by the Federal Ministry of Industry, Trade and Investment (“The MITI Plan”), is being implemented. The MITI Plan is focused on industry, trade and the investment dimensions of the economy. This must be taken seriously to boost the level of economic activities in the country.

**Revitalize the Manufacturing and Industrial Sector:** We must also improve the business climate by upgrading corporate governance, promoting venture capital investment, redesigning policies for small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) to serve as engine of growth and for employment creation. SMEDAN and BOI should be much more empowered and structured to meet the needs of the SMEs in the country. In terms of empowerment, the Federal Government through the Bank of Industry (BOI) is rolling out Government Enterprise and Empowerment Programme (GEEP) as a no-interest loan scheme to traders, farmers and entrepreneurs across 13 States.
and the FCT. This is a good step in the right direction. The ERGP proposes to generate about 1.5 million jobs by 2020, promote exports, boost growth and upgrade skills of MSMEs through unique innovations whilst focusing on modern ICT products and services. What appears to be lacking however are clearly-defined job creation initiatives, steps and an implementation and monitoring plan to put into effect the ERGP. Currently, the Social Investment Programme (SIP) under the N-Power Volunteers Corps plans to hire 350,000 more unemployed graduates in 2017 to engage as artisans and in other creative ventures.

Grow the Oil and Gas Sector: The oil and gas industry can be grown through its greater integration with the rest of the economy. The establishment of more thermal power plants and diversification of energy sources should be encouraged. Sustained peace in the Niger Delta area would guarantee that Nigeria’s OPEC quota is met at the current price. Thus, the contribution of the oil and gas industry to the economy can be facilitated. In fact, the link between the oil and gas industry and the rest of the economy should be strengthened through a more effective implementation of the local content policy.

Infrastructural Development: For nearly six decades, infrastructure deficit has been a perennial problem in Nigeria and still remains a recurring theme amidst talks of potential investments through PPPs. The government should create the enabling environment, focus on improving infrastructure such as power supply, good roads, etc. The adoption of best practices, welfare of host communities/Community Development Service and timely review of policy become imperative. In addition to the Abuja-Kaduna rail launched in July 2016, Lagos-Ibadan rail under construction and the Kaduna-Kano, Ibadan-Ilorin, Minna-Abuja and Ilorin rails running, more railways should be built for ease of transportation.

Quick and Firm Intervention of the CBN in Stabilizing the Financial Sector: This involves strengthening banking supervision by Asset Management Corporation of Nigeria (AMCON), recapitalizing insolvent banks and returning them to private hands, establishing clear criteria for eligible assets and ensuring full transparency and accountability of AMCON’s operational and financial results. Proper monitoring and controlling of the money market, addressing investor’s withdrawal of money from foreign stock markets to meet liabilities at home and curbing inflation.
Fiscal and Monetary Policies: The nature of fiscal and monetary policies determines recovery of any economy in recession. According to Nigeria’s CBN governor, “in times like this, there is usually the need for strong policy coordination between the key aspects of economic policy making space. This would include fiscal, monetary, exchange and trade policies”. For example, the US economy was said to contract rapidly toward the end of 2008, and continued into 2009 and beyond. The new Administration and new Congress developed a stimulus program to soften the recession and accelerate the recovery, policy makers needed to pursue stimulus policies that work, the tax reductions. What USA and UK did during the global financial crisis for recovery were as follows: real take-home pay was sustained by cuts in interest rates and VAT and to maintain consumer demand, Central banks cut interest rates to unprecedentedly low levels and embarked on programmes of ‘quantitative easing’ – buying assets, mainly government bonds, and creating the money to do so – to increase the money supply. Finance ministries pursued policies of ‘fiscal stimulus’ – raising public spending or lowering taxes to boost demand. Nigeria can borrow a leaf from all these policies. Fundamentally, Nigeria needs to transfer much of the financial burden from its masses to the government by controlling tax rates but increasing the tax base. The idea of over weighting the tax burden on Nigerians would only increase sufferings.

The Exchange Rate: The current exchange rate problem was caused by the deficit in foreign exchange earnings which could be solved by increasing oil production, non-oil exports and reduction of imports of luxury goods. Dealing with the unfavourable exchange rate and multiple rates can solve half of the current economic problems that Nigeria is facing. To deal with the current rising exchange rate particularly in the parallel market, the CBN must find a way to regulate the illegal trading of the dollars and push the rate down by injecting dollars into the economy as a short term strategy. This is on-going already as the government has injected quite some dollars into the economy in recent times to push the value of the dollar down from N500 and above to less than N400. It is important to mention, with respect to the foreign exchange market, that the CBN recently recorded some success in trying to increase market liquidity, mitigate FX availability risks (at least to retail users) and foster a more efficient and competitive FX market. Whilst it is unclear if similar efforts can be sustained throughout the lifespan of the ERGP, the assumption is that there might be renewed optimism and increased likelihood of success if the CBN continues with its recent measures.
Promote Foreign Direct Investment: With the right business environment and investment in infrastructure, the Nigerian population is a good destination for FDI. Nigeria needs to create a favourable and secured business environment for investors, a reasonable exchange rate and positive image building.

Promote Entrepreneurship to Curb Unemployment. Skills development and entrepreneurship must be well funded especially in our educational institutions and encouraged by national and international governments and agencies. CBN interventions in this area is commendable. This will also curb brain drain.

Boost Lending to Small Businesses (SMEs). This should be promoted through targeted reforms, such as effective credit risk bureau, better collateral execution, bankruptcy procedures, capacity building, improved land tenure system and strengthening of the BOI, SMEDAN, NDE, ITF etc to promote the SMEs.

Encourage Private Sector Participation: Thus, the private sector is expected to ensure competitiveness in the solid minerals sector, create the necessary environment for achieving high productivity in the sector and investment. More so, PPP is viable and has the ability to provide a cost reduction and effective programme implementation options for economic expansion.

Curb Corruption: The anti-corruption war must continue particularly in strengthening institutions to perform their mandates within the ambit of the law. All prosecutions must be followed and convicted persons jailed as a deterrent to others. The Economic Financial Crime Commission (EFCC), ICPC and other related agencies must be strengthened for greater performance and supported to sanitize the inherent corruption in all sectors of the economy. Currently, billions of naira have been recovered by the EFCC while prosecutions are on-going.

Ensure Peace and Security: The government should do all it can to provide peace in the country. A country with so much conflict and agitations can never prosper. Ethnic and religious tensions have increased in recent years. We have the terrorist group, kidnapping as well as violence in the Niger Delta, the Southern Kaduna killing, all represent sources of insecurity. It is commendable to say that the Acting President, is working extremely hard to put a stop to pipeline vandalism in the Niger Delta through dialogue and reinvestment in the region.
Quantitative Easing: The Central Bank can manipulate the money supply by buying government bonds to increase the volume of money in circulation. This increases banks’ reserves which will, in theory, encourage banking lending to businesses. The other effect of the Central Bank action is a reduction in bond interest rates, which is expected to help increase investment spending. Some of the drawbacks or dangers, of quantitative easing are possibilities of financial losses by the Central Bank, difficulty in gauging exactly how much money is needed for injection into the economy, likelihood of loss of confidence in the economy, especially by external investors-, and the danger of the plan not working out as intended.

Treasury Single Account (TSA): The TSA is good but it is important for the government to re-structure the forms of payments within the TSA framework. Immediate payments and disbursement of approved funds must be made for the performance of institutions. TSA shouldn’t be bureaucratic as funds ought to be accessed in order to prevent irregularities within the system.

Tax Cuts: The most popular, or most recommended policy for any country to dig itself out of recession is expansionary fiscal policy or fiscal stimulus. This is usually a two-pronged approach – tax cuts and increased government spending. The idea of tax cuts in times of recession is to increase family disposable income, in the hope that these families will go out and spend the extra money which, in turn, will spur increased production in companies; the increased production is expected to result in increased job creation. What if the people use the extra disposable income from tax cuts to pay off their accrued debts, and the financial institutions refuse to lend the extra revenue to businesses for investment? Recession will persist.

Increased Government Spending: This is more advocated than tax cuts. However, since most of government revenue is generated through taxes, levies, and duties on imports and exports, the receipts from these sources fall during recession. It is a well-known fact that government capital investments can lead to massive employment and its attendant multiplier effects, especially on public works such as: roads, rail, ports, water, electricity etc., which have direct impact on economic growth. But where will the money come from. Since tax cuts will lead to reduced government revenue. Then the only option is external borrowing. However, the money must be spent on productive activities like agriculture, SMEs to diversify the Nigerian economy.
Currency Devaluation: This is not good for Nigeria. A currency devaluation is expected to cause a boost in aggregate demand of goods and services; that is, if the nation produces what other nations need. For industrialized nations with diversified economies and multiple products, a currency devaluation in periods of recession will be beneficial to export the products. However, for mono-product economies, like some African nations, currency devaluation will not have much positive impact in times of international supply glut. So, even though the product will be cheaper to export, there may be no sufficient market. Now, the other effect of devaluation is to increase demand for domestic goods. Where such goods are produced domestically, this plan will work. But, where the absence is the case, then the purpose of currency devaluation is defeated. It is very difficult for most Third World economies to get out of recession through currency devaluation, because they are mostly mono-product economies with devastating international competition, and little diversified domestic production. For example, suppose that in a global recession, Nigeria decides to devalue its currency to boost oil export, the expectation that Angola, Venezuela, and many other oil-dependent economies will follow suit is very real. In the end the market is flooded with cheap oil that no one wants. So, everyone suffers from this policy decision, instead of benefitting.

Full Implementation of the Budget 2017: The budget for 2017 should be implemented faithfully by all the three tiers of government. In addition, Nigeria should support government’s efforts by patronizing made in Nigerian goods to reduce import bills.

The Role of the National Assembly (NASS): The support of the NASS to pass the bills as at when due becomes imperative to facilitate economic recovery and development of Nigeria.

The Role of the Judiciary: The Judiciary has important roles to perform in economy recovery of Nigeria through adjudication and non-delay of cases in the court.

The Role of the Mass Media: The print and electronic media needs to support the government efforts to promote policies and programmes that will eliminate economic recession and facilitate inclusive growth and sustainable development.

The Role of the Development Partners: The role of the development partners cannot be over-emphasized. Nigeria needs their support in promoting foreign direct investment (FDI) and in capacity building.
The Role of the Armed Forces: Security of lives and properties in Nigeria is a collective effort. Therefore, the Army, Air force, Navy, Police and other related forces should ensure peace in Nigeria to enable free flow of FDI and expertise into Nigeria.

Reduce the Cost of Governance (NASS, SHAs and the LGA Councils). Nigeria needs to reduce the cost of governance and restructure government expenditures in favour of capital expenditures.

Conclusion
Nigeria needs to rapidly apply appropriate policies to rescue the nation from its current recession. Millions have lost their jobs and millions more are suffering severe hardship and dying or at risk of death. Indeed, we are all responsible, but most especially those who have been in governments in the past; however, blaming is a counterproductive and anti-development. What Nigeria needs now is economic recovery.

The prospects for growth in Nigeria are very bright going by the achievements recorded during the last ten years and the current reforms in the various sectors. However, for Nigeria to consolidate these economic gains and move higher in the frontlines of growth, development and economic recovery, it must deepen reforms that improve human capital, promote high-quality public infrastructure and encourage competition. All efforts must be directed towards ensuring proper fiscal policies, transparent fiscal operations, development-oriented monetary and exchange rate policies, strengthening of the financial sector and strict adherence to the rule-of-law and respect for the sanctity of contract as well as commitment to fighting corruption. We must build a new Nigeria that the future generations of Nigerians would be proud of. Our electoral process must not only be credible, but must be seen to be credible because economic performance requires a robust political environment.

In addition, for Nigeria to achieve economic recovery from the current recession that has led to unemployment, poverty, fall in demand for goods and services and rising demand for dollars, Nigeria needs to implement faithfully all the recommendations mentioned above. Nigeria needs to use oil revenue to diversify her economy to create job opportunities and satisfy the basic needs of Nigerians and to ensure sustainable development. To achieve this, she has to address all the challenges highlighted above. Finally, governments at all levels should look beyond oil and tap other natural resource endowments, if the country’s economy should be diversified as crude oil price has continued to dwindle.


CBN Statistical Bulletin. Various Issues, CBN.


www.templars-law.com

www.yourbudgit.com
Introduction

Unarguably, the centrality of the economy to human existence cannot be overemphasized. This is because, the material existence of man is a function of how he relates with his immediate environment and evolve adaptation forms for his comfort. In modern times and even in the distant past, the state has been standing as a platform for availing man this basic material needs, wants and desires. When the state through her formal institutions fail to perform this role, it is bound to retrogress and experience some level of reduction in overall economic activities exemplified in unemployment, decrease in standard of living, poverty, inequality, double-digit inflation amongst others. Hence, the collective effort of the individuals, groups and institutions in the state can aid the stability of the human society.

It is however apt to argue that it has not been rosy for states all over the globe whenever economic development comes to mind. States have often been challenged with the core mandate of achieving its central purpose which borders on political, cultural, physical, social and economic security of lives and property. Whether in capitalist or social; liberal or radical; open or close; democratic or reactionary states, the states' ability to deliver the goods of governance to her citizenry depends on its ability to manage and control the human and material resources within its confine. The resultant effect of the inability to do this is general economic retrogression.
With the above in mind, contextual analysis of global history would showcase a world that has in the past recorded two major economic depressions that sent shockwaves through almost all the countries of the world. These occurred between 1910 and 1930s. The latter was referred to as the “Great Economic Depression” (Dode, 2012). This though is not synonymous with economic recessions, which negatively impacts on national economies in lesser proportions than economic depressions.

It is equally noteworthy that recessions occur more frequently than depressions. This economic experience (recession) which nations and indeed leaders alike dread so much (which though analysts argue is a cyclical occurrence), was to be experienced in recent times (2007-2009). Economic analysts, depending on available economic indicators began to warn of an impending recession in the economies of the world from middle 2007 (Dode, 2012). These pointed at a number of predictive factors or indicators which were highlighted by these analysts.

It will suffice to state that by the last quarter of 2008, the reality of an economic recession had dawned on the economies of the world. International, multinational and local industries, firms, factories and companies had begun to feel the harsh economic environment and began to draw up equally harsh measures aimed at tackling the problems posed by the world economic down turn.

Some of these measures included staff rationalization, cut in the daily hours put into paid employment, temporary shut downs, and in some cases, outright shutting down of firms. These measures sent shock waves across the globe, especially beginning with the United States of America from where the entire problem emanated. This trend no doubt affected several developing countries which out of material necessities depended on the West for their general economic progression. Although, some who had diversified economic base could contain the shock when interventions were resorted to, developing countries like Nigeria who solely rely on one major source of revenue would later experience some shortfalls exemplified in FOREX down-falls and general reductions in economic activities due to global oil glut.

However, the intervention measures taken by countries to alleviate or cushion the effects of the global economic meltdown on their citizens, to a large extent, have been practiced by advanced western economies and some member countries of the Asian Tigers. It must be observed that in Africa in general and Nigeria in particular, little or no intervention measures were put in place to tackle these global economic problems,
with the understanding that in the contemporary world, no country is insulated from the goings-on in other sections of the globe. The reason for this largely lack-lustre attitude of African countries to this global problem, vary from one country to the other (Dode, 2012).

Meanwhile, the economic recession being witnessed by Nigeria in recent times, stems from the turmoil in global commodity markets, witnessed in the second half of 2014 which brought their full weight to bear on the Nigerian economy in 2015. Oil prices fell 66.8% from $114/barrel recorded in June 2014, to $38.0 by December 2015. Prices fell even further in 2016, to $32.6 as at 3rd February, 2016. Beyond commodity markets, recent developments in the global economy created a trifecta of headwinds that the nation has to contend with (NBS, 2017).

Nigeria Bureau of Statistics (2017) went further to amplify the cause of this trend by affirming that the return of Iran to the global economy implies substantially larger crude oil supplies are to hit the global market in the near term, and thus the current consensus that oil prices are likely to remain “lower of longer”. The issue of lower commodity prices has been further compounded by the United States Federal Reserve (FED) raising key interest rates, after several years of a very accommodative monetary policy as a result of the global recession which began circa 2008. In December 2015, the FED raised the Federal Funds Rate by a quarter-point. Furthermore, the economy of the Euro Area, a key importer of Nigerian exports is still on the mend. According to recent statistics from the European Commission the Euro Area is expected to grow by 2.0% in 2016, up from 1.9% in 2015.

Accordingly, the government had used the 2016 budget as an opportunity to reset and redirect the macroeconomic dynamics of the country. The attempt to consolidate expenditure using the Treasury Single Account to plug leakages (even if this is only at the federal level) is a welcome first step. It was expected that the proposed 1.6 trillion which was invested in capital projects and other initiatives in particular in Power, Works and Housing were likely to bode well for the economy (NBS, 2017). In addition, the establishment of the Efficiency Unit to identify and surgically eliminate inefficiencies without hampering productivity is also another development (EU, 2016).
**Conceptual Clarification**

**Global Economic Recession**

This refers to a period when the world’s economy begins to experience a downward trend. To Biafore (2009), recession refers to a “slowing in economic growth”. The period in view showcases a world economy where jobs are lost in their numbers, much money chase few goods and currencies are largely devalued, among other harsh economic indices. It is in the light of these realities that Igwe (2005) has observed that recession refers to:

> A backward march, or reversal, of the economy over a relatively long term, believed by some economists to be part of a regular cyclical phenomenon of decline which must inevitably follow some periods of sustained growth or “over-heating”. There is no scientific basis for the cyclical theory of Recession, for such a theory must equally embrace a Recession in other spheres of existence, including the individual, family, group, as well as national and international. Recessions are an unavoidable crisis of any imperfect or unjust economic systems, such as the variants of capitalism, including unequal competitions, rivalries and mutual struggles, often develop a negative character, one of whose many consequences can be a Recession.

In economic studies, “recession is referred to as a general slowdown in economic activity over a sustained period of time, or a business cycle contraction” (http:www.merriam-webster.com/ dictionary/recession). Economists thus argue seriously that during recessions, many macroeconomic indicators vary in a similar way. Hence, production as measured by Gross Domestic Product (GDP), employment, investment spending, capacity utilization, household incomes and business profits all fall during recessions.

On the effects of recession on the state of a nation’s economy, Biafore (2009) notes that while compounding the problem of the economy, “recessions lead to lower interest rates on savings because the Federal Reserve Board cuts the federal funds rate to boost the economy. Worse yet, layoffs are common during recession”. This aspect of course explains the massive retrenchment of bank workers in Nigeria recently. On the predictability or timing of the occurrence (of recessions), scholars are not fully agreed on whether it is predictable or not.
To Biafore (2009) “the problem is, recessions are difficult to recognize when they arrive and almost impossible to predict. In fact, it takes a while, sometimes a long while, to find out that a recession has already began”. During the 2007-2009 recession though, economists identified a number of possible predictors before the world economy went fully slow. These predictors included a staggering fall in the mortgage market, a significant stock market (investment) drop, with that of Nigeria almost gone comatose, inverted yield curve and three-month change in the unemployment rate and initial jobless claims, among others.

**Mono-Product Economy**

A clear understanding of the word economy would make for a better understanding of the major subject matter of this paper which is on economic recession. Igwe (2005) has observed strongly that the economy refers to “the system of production and production relations peculiar to a society, characterized in each epoch by identifiable means and modes of production”. The economy thus refers to the chain (web) of economic activities that keep the economic life of man in a particular society, revolving. It is worthy of note that the economies of nations have moved from one economic type (relationship) to another, over generations.

In this vein, the world has recorded periods when economies revolved around the post-wandering bands primitive-communal system, slave-owning societies of slavery and serfdom, to the feudal system. The latter gave way to a system based on trade by barter; mercantilism and then capitalism (Igwe, 2005). A mono-product economy, from the foregoing, implies an economic system that is essentially based on the existence of only one major economic product; depended upon for the economic sustenance of that economy (Dode, 2012). The implication is that the economic life of that economy revolves around the existence, relevance and currency of that product. That economy remains a potentially buoyant one only if such product does fine in the international market. The reverse though would be the case, if it’s showing at that level is poor.

Nigeria has the potential to become a major player in the global economy by virtue of its human and natural resource endowments. However, this potential has remained relatively untapped over the years. After a shift from agriculture to crude oil and gas in the late 1960s, Nigeria’s growth has continued to be driven by consumption and high oil prices. Previous economic policies left the country ill-prepared for the recent collapse of crude oil prices and production. The structure of the economy remains
highly import dependent, consumption driven and undiversified. Oil accounts for more than 95 per cent of exports and foreign exchange earnings while the manufacturing sector accounts for less than one percent of total exports.

The high growth recorded during 2011-2015, which averaged 4.8 per cent per annum mainly driven by higher oil prices, was largely non-inclusive. Majority of Nigerians remain under the burden of poverty, inequality and unemployment. General economic performance was also seriously undermined by deplorable infrastructure, corruption and mismanagement of public finances. Decades of consumption and high oil price-driven growth led to an economy with a positive but jobless growth trajectory.

After more than a decade of economic growth, the sharp and continuous decline in crude oil prices since mid-2014, along with a failure to diversify the sources of revenue and foreign exchange in the economy, led to a recession in the second quarter of 2016. The challenges in the oil sector, including sabotage of oil export terminals in the Niger Delta, negatively impacted government revenue and export earnings, as well as the fiscal capacity to prevent the economy from contracting. The capacity of government spending was equally constrained by lack of fiscal buffers to absorb the shock, as well as leakages of public resources due to corruption and inefficient spending in the recent past.

The current administration recognizes that the economy is likely to remain on a path of steady and steep decline if nothing is done to change the trajectory. It is in this context that since inception in May 2015, Government has made several efforts aimed at tackling these challenges and changing the national economic trajectory in a fundamental way. The earliest action was the prioritization of three policy goals: tackling corruption, improving security and re-building the economy. Consequently, the Strategic Implementation Plan (SIP) for the 2016 Budget of Change and even the 2017 budget of economic recovery was developed as a short-term intervention for this purpose. Visible successes and achievements have been recorded. However, it is recognized that more needs to be done to propel the country towards sustainable accelerated development.

The Economic Recovery and Growth Plan (ERGP), a Medium Term Plan for 2017 – 2020, builds on the SIP and has been developed for the purpose of restoring economic growth while leveraging the ingenuity and resilience of the Nigerian people – the nation's most priceless assets. It is also articulated with the understanding that the
role of government in the 21st century must evolve from that of being an omnibus provider of citizens’ needs into a force for eliminating the bottlenecks that impede innovation and market-based solutions. The Plan also recognizes the need to leverage Science, Technology and Innovation (STI) and build a knowledge-based economy. The ERGP is also consistent with the aspirations of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) given that the initiatives address its three dimensions of economic, social and environmental sustainability issues (Dode, 2012).

**A Brief Review of the Nigerian Economy**

Prior to the civil war, Nigeria was mainly an agrarian economy, running a regional system of government where regions contributed a percentage of resources to the parliamentary central government. These regional governments, despite relying on external donations for projects, were sustainable; they all had recurrent surpluses (based on internal revenues) to cover their recurrent expenditure (BudgIT, 2017). This meant that there was no such occurrence as is being witnessed today, where 27 of 36 States struggled to pay salaries based on a drastic drop in Federation Account Allocation Committee (FAAC) disbursements. The regions were a creation of the unitary system of government formed in 1966. In that year, the entire Federation ran a surplus budget of £18mn, with the Federal government and the Northern Region having the highest amount of extra funds in their coffers. The Western region spent almost all its entire revenue on recurrent expenditure, a bellwether of an expansive social policy that prioritized education and health programs. The fiscal dynamics of this period show an even split along economic and social projects, with a focus on building dams, bridges and schools. Capital expenditure was also amply financed from borrowings and internally-saved funds, budget surpluses and transfers from the Federal government (BudgIT, 2017).

Just less than half a decade later, in 1970, the dynamics of Nigeria's economy changed, as average oil production rose to 1.08 million barrels per day, heralding a new era of Crude-driven government earnings. Despite the rise in oil production, Crude prices at $3.407 in 1970; oil revenue was a mere 26.2% of Total federally-collected revenue, which rose from N448.8mn in 1970 to N1.4bn as at 1972 (BudgIT, 2017).

In 1973, the start of the Arab Oil Crisis made the price of Crude quadruple, from $4.73 in 1973 to $12.21 per barrel in 1975. By the end of 1975, it was evident that Nigeria was willing to let Crude take the lead, with oil accounting for 77.5% of government revenue.
The influence of this hitherto relatively insignificant hydrocarbon resource suddenly
grew within a decade, as global interest in the oil and gas sector skyrocketed. A strong
case exists for the argument that the seed for Nigeria’s obsession with, and
longstanding reliance on Oil started with the price glut of 1973; as Arab nations shut
down production, Nigeria’s Sweet Crude blend fast became the toast of the
industrialized world (BudgIT, 2017).

As Oil flowed out of Nigerian soil and returned as foreign exchange into the country’s
purse, in 1972, the government notably expanded its spending with the “Udoji award,”
named after the Jerome Udoji Commission report which led to various policies,
including a rise in public servants’ salaries. Mainly on the back of Oil, government
revenue grew from N631mn in 1970, to N5.5bn in 1975. During this period, Nigeria’s
debt also expanded significantly; from N756.4m in 1970 to N3.72bn in 1975, caused by
a sudden jump in the value of imported goods and services (Igwe, 2005).

The beginnings of Nigeria’s addiction to Crude revenue likely went up a notch at this
time, as the government’s policy thrusts were seemingly based on the assurance of a
continuation of the Oil boom. Two things illustrate this point: rather than invest
earnings in the diversification of export and public revenues, leaders favoured a bloat
in Recurrent Expenditure, which rose from N963mn in 1973 to N2.73bn by the end of
1975 - a 183% increase over just two years (Bafure, 2009).

Secondly; the government also created more States, expanding bureaucracy at all
levels and unwittingly establishing the foundations for the ghost-worker syndrome
that blights Nigeria’s civil service till date. This increasing dependence on black gold
persisted, and by the time the military government prepared to handover to civilians,
Federal government spending ballooned by 196% over a five-year period; from 1974
levels of N2.7bn to N8bn in 1978 (BudgIT, 2017).

Nevertheless, Nigeria kept up its public spending figures, in tandem with public debt -
$35.75 per barrel, as against $14.95 per barrel in 1978. However, Nigeria’s production
numbers plummeted to 525.5 million barrels per annum, from 1979 levels of 752.2
million barrels, tilting the economy towards a recession (BudgIT, 2017).

In spite of this sag in oil production and a mild Oil price crash in 1982, the Nigerian
government continued enlarging its debt profile. By and large, the government
prioritized agriculture and steel projects which were scattered across the country, borrowing heavily to build them. Foreign debt came to N8.8bn in 1982, from N1.25bn in 1978, and Oil revenues which rose to N12.35bn in 1980, sunk to N7.81bn in 1982. This slide persisted, with Oil production figures plummeting in 1986, taking Nigeria down from the peak production levels enjoyed in 1979 (Igwe, 2005).

These trends culminated in a lack of confidence in the Nigerian economy and massive capital flight -estimated at US$14bn between 1979 and 1983. By the mid-1980s, Nigeria’s currency was presumed to be overvalued, and foreign exchange reserves lay in a relatively weak position. The country began to ration foreign exchange, and placed a series of tariffs on imported materials. General Buhari’s government put up tight restrictions on currency control but this did not stop a slump in the economy.

General Ibrahim Babangida seized power via a military coup, and the presumption was this government had the opportunity to confront Nigeria’s worsening economic realities using a more open, pragmatic approach. However, oil prices nosedived in 1986, reducing by 46.36% from an average of $26.92 per barrel in 1985, to $14.44 per barrel in 1986. Under Babangida, Nigeria adopted measures that included the Structural Adjustment Programme. Yet, increasing levels of corruption, poor economic advisers and unrestrained inflation due to poor monetary policies deprived Nigeria of tangible infrastructure and social development, as well as other gains that should ordinarily come with oil production.

Dual exchange rates created colossal rent-seeking, with many cronies of the ruling elite buying forex at the official rate and reselling at four times the value in the black market. Corruption became institutionalized, and as soon as General Abacha announced himself Commander-in-Chief to the sound of martial music, he brought all the controversial privatization programs of the Babangida government to a halt. Abacha reduced the inflation rate of 57.165% inherited from the Babangida administration to 9.96%, between 1993 and 1998.

However, General Abacha presided over the illegal transfer of foreign reserves and his human rights record gradually turned Nigeria into a pariah state with a collapsing economy, where rising costs of business shrank the manufacturing components of the country’s revenue base. Oil, Nigeria’s primary commodity was priced under Abacha at an average of $17.39 per barrel, yet the country became a perpetual importer of petroleum products, as all her refineries packed up (Sanusi, 2010).
Abacha's death led to the end of military rule, and Olusegun Obasanjo was elected President amid low oil revenue and production, weak public revenue, patchy reserves and huge external debt servicing costs. Though the price of Brent averaged $17.9 per barrel, Obasanjo however confronted the looming crisis of external debt and successfully negotiated a relief package with the Paris Club of creditors, leading Nigeria to make a payment of $12bn (Sanusi, 2010).

Noteworthy is that Obasanjo's government enjoyed an uptake in oil pricing, as well as a series of monetary and fiscal reforms that resulted in Nigeria's external reserves growing to hit $45bn in 2006. However, civil unrest in the Niger Delta, and post-2007 election violence created an Oil production crisis for Nigeria, with annual crude production dropping from a peak of 918.96 million barrels in 2005 to 768.7 million barrels in 2008. The consequences on the Treasury were further exacerbated when Brent Crude prices dropped from $147 to $43 per barrel in 2009.

The presence of fiscal buffers such as the Excess Crude Account helped the government weather the storm, but a sharp rise in oil prices in 2010 speedily brought the economy to greater viability. Successive President Goodluck Jonathan's government also witnessed relative oil price growth, as the hydrocarbon sold at $100 for over 42 months. The hallmark of all governments since Nigeria's return to democracy was that though the economy grew above 5%, endemic corruption (mostly through public contracts and oil subsidies) meant prosperity eluded the vast majority of the population.

In 2016, under current President Buhari, Nigeria's economy tipped into recession, largely due to global Oil price slumps and a trailing off of production. Despite recent reports that Nigeria is out of recession, the country's economy continues to suffer from its vulnerability to oil pricing, production swings and endemic corruption, as well as poor visioning that continually subvert sits potential to uplift the living standards of its citizens.

**Issues and Challenges Facing the Nigerian Economy**

As explained before now, Nigeria is a mono-product economy with the bulk of government revenue coming from oil exports which is susceptible to shocks in the international oil market. Moreover, many other solid minerals with which the country is richly endowed with remain generally untapped. More fundamentally, the economy has disproportionately relied on the primary sector (subsistence agriculture and the
extractive industry) without any meaningful value addition. In light of this, the little growth recorded in the economy, thus far, has been without commensurate employment, positive attitudinal change, value reorientation, and equitable income distribution, among others (Sanusi, 2010).

The above could be attributed to poor leadership, poor implementation of economic policies, weak institutions, poor corporate governance, endemic corruption, etc. The challenge, therefore, is how to deploy/manage the receipts from the oil and gas exports to achieve the highest value for money in the economy; develop on a sustainable basis, the many untapped solid minerals; improve agricultural productivity by cultivating more of the available arable land with improved technology; process and preserve primary produce with the aim of increasing value addition; manufacture the basic durable and non-durable goods needed by Nigerians and the West African sub-region, market and ultimately looking at export such goods and sustain manufacturing by providing the core industries; and remain competitive by developing and improving on the investment climate of the country. These challenges according to Sanusi, (2010) have remained largely unresolved owing to the myriad of problems:

**Macroeconomic Challenges:** The Nigerian macro economy is still characterized by structural rigidities, dualism and the false paradigm model. Generally, the sectors of the economy are in silos to the extent that the primary sector does not relate meaningfully with the secondary sector and the same for the secondary and the tertiary sectors. Agricultural produce end up as final consumer goods as only a small quantity is processed or used as raw materials for local manufacturing industries. Also, the products of the extractive industries are exported in their raw forms without local value addition. Given the higher incomes in the oil and gas sub-sector of the extractive industry, attention is concentrated there to the almost total neglect of the mainstream economy. Consequently, the economy is broken into the very rich (relying on the oil and gas industry) and the very poor (relying on the mainstream economy) with almost a complete vacuum in-between these two. The false paradigm model also plays out in the economy in the sense that while the few very wealthy group clamour for relevance in the context of ‘expert’ advise, the very poor suffer from ignorance, disease and malnutrition. Thus, there is no structural change and, hence, the attitudinal changes expected of economic transformation are absent.

**Infrastructural Challenges:** One of the main challenges facing the economy is poor economic and social infrastructure: bad roads, erratic power supply, limited
access to portable water and basic healthcare, and much more. Building a vibrant economy or restoring growth to a sluggish economy takes resources. To ensure long-term growth and prosperity, Nigeria must use its resources wisely, invest in advanced technology and rebuild the infrastructure without which the economy will not gain from the ‘power of productivity’. A nation enjoys higher standards of living if the workers can produce large quantities of goods and services for local consumption and extra for export. The deficiencies in the economy lead to low productivity, poor quality products and no competitiveness in the global market place.

**Poor Institutions and Corporate Governance:** Another important challenge to sustainable economic growth in Nigeria is lack of effective institutions and good governance. These factors have been hindering various efforts and reforms of the government to stimulate economic growth for sustainable development in Nigeria. The prevalence of weak institutions and poor corporate governance as well as poor ethical standards in most public and private organizations, hinder the attainment of the goals of economic policies in the country. Poor corporate governance has adversely affected the quality of institutions to the extent that public and private institutions are used for selfish interests, thereby, making regulation and law enforcement ineffective.

**Corruption Challenges:** Although corruption is a global scourge, Nigeria appears to suffer particularly from it. Everyone appears to believe that the nation has a ‘culture of corruption’. Over the years, Nigeria has earned huge sums of money from crude oil, which appears to have largely gone down the sinkhole created by corruption. In an article, “Oil giant that runs on grease of politics,” Nigeria was described as a rich nation floating on oil wealth “but almost none of it flows to the people” (San Francisco Chronicle, March 11, 2007). Corruption has denied Nigerians the value of the petrodollar that has accrued to the country over the years. The failure of infrastructure, political and ethical standards as well as moral and educational standards can easily be traced to corruption.

**Low Quality of Education:** Education is an important factor in economic growth and development. But the nation’s educational system has been facing myriad of challenges, which prevent the country from achieving its economic objectives. The problems include inadequate funding and planning and management, inadequate infrastructure, irrelevance of curricula to industrial needs, and inadequate commitment on the part of students and teachers, among others. All these have combined to hinder the production of a high quality work force to propel the economy

**The Dutch Disease:** Since the oil price boom of the early 1970s, the country abandoned the agricultural and industrial sectors of the economy to the old and weak. Both the public and private sectors of the economy concentrate their efforts in the oil and gas industry to the extent that the mainstream economy is denied funding, requisite investment and even managerial capabilities. Thus, the mainstream economy has become uncompetitive globally while the country has turned into a trading outpost for foreign companies. This has hindered the much-needed transformation of the economy in the last four decades.

**Poor Investment Climate:** The consequence of all that have been said above is the poor investment climate in the economy that has rendered the economy uncompetitive. In the absence of adequate infrastructure (power, roads, water, etc.) the cost of doing business in the country remain high, forcing to neighboring countries even companies that had existed in Nigeria for upwards of four decades.

**Prospects and Opportunities of the Economic Recession**
Nigeria has the potential to become a major player in the global economy by virtue of its human and natural resource endowments. However, this potential has remained relatively untapped over the years. After a shift from agriculture to crude oil and gas in the late 1960s, Nigeria’s growth has continued to be driven by consumption and high oil prices (Ministry of Budget & National Planning, 2017). Previous economic policies left the country ill-prepared for the recent collapse of crude oil prices and production. As indicated in previous session of this paper, the structure of the economy remains highly import dependent, consumption driven and undiversified. Oil accounts for more than 95 per cent of exports and foreign exchange earnings while the manufacturing sector accounts for less than one percent of total exports. The high growth recorded during 2011-2015, which averaged 4.8 per cent per annum mainly driven by higher oil prices, was largely non-inclusive. Majority of Nigerians remain under the burden of poverty, inequality and unemployment. General economic performance was also seriously undermined by deplorable infrastructure, corruption and mismanagement of public finances. Decades of consumption and high oil price-driven growth led to an economy with a positive but jobless growth trajectory.
After more than a decade of economic growth, the sharp and continuous decline in crude oil prices since mid-2014, along with a failure to diversify the sources of revenue and foreign exchange in the economy, led to a recession in the second quarter of 2016. The challenges in the oil sector, including sabotage of oil export terminals in the Niger Delta, negatively impacted government revenue and export earnings, as well as the fiscal capacity to prevent the economy from contracting. The capacity of government spending was equally constrained by lack of fiscal buffers to absorb the shock, as well as leakages of public resources due to corruption and inefficient spending in the recent past (Ministry of Budget & National Planning, 2017).

The current administration recognizes that the economy is likely to remain on a path of steady and steep decline if nothing is done to change the trajectory. It is in this context that since inception in May 2015, Government has made several efforts aimed at tackling these challenges and changing the national economic trajectory in a fundamental way. The earliest action was the prioritization of three policy goals: tackling corruption, improving security and re-building the economy.

Consequently, the Strategic Implementation Plan (SIP) for the 2016 Budget of Change was developed as a short-term intervention for this purpose. Visible successes and achievements have been recorded. However, it is recognized that more needs to be done to propel the country towards sustainable accelerated development. Be that as it may, certain prospects and overall improvement of the economic lot of the Nigerian state is evidenced in the proposed the Economic Recovery and Growth Plan (ERGP), a Medium Term Plan for 2017 – 2020, which builds on the SIP and has been developed for the purpose of restoring economic growth while leveraging the ingenuity and resilience of the Nigerian people – the nation’s most priceless assets. It is also articulated with the understanding that the role of government in the 21st century must evolve from that of being an omnibus provider of citizens’ needs into a force for eliminating the bottlenecks that impede innovation and market-based solutions. The Plan however considers the need to leverage Science, Technology and Innovation (STI) and build a knowledge-based economy. The ERGP is also consistent with the aspirations of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) given that the initiatives address its three dimensions of economic, social and environmental sustainability issues.
Reviewing the Economic Recovery and Growth Plan as Antidote to Nigeria Economic Recession

Unarguably, the ERGP which is midterm development plan of the Nigerian state differs from previous plans in several ways. First, focused implementation is at the core of the delivery strategy of the Plan over the next four years. Accordingly, several principles have driven the thinking and the development of this Plan and they marshalled out as follows:

**Focus on tackling Constraints to Growth:** Economic growth in Nigeria faces various supply constraints including fuel, power, foreign exchange, and business unfriendly regulations. In addition, there is a shortage of requisite skills and appropriate technology necessary to drive growth. This Plan focuses on overcoming and resolving these challenges.

**Leverage the Power of the Private Sector:** Economic recovery and transformative growth cannot be achieved by the government alone. It is essential to harness the dynamism of business and the entrepreneurial nature of Nigerians, from the MSMEs to the large domestic and multinational corporations to achieve the objectives of this Plan. The Plan prioritizes the provision of a more business friendly economic environment.

**Promote National Cohesion and Social Inclusion:** Nigerians are the ultimate beneficiaries of more inclusive growth and therefore, the initiatives set out in this Plan are aimed at ensuring social inclusion and the strengthening of national cohesion.

**Allow Markets to Function:** The ERGP recognizes the power of markets to drive optimal behaviour among market participants. The Plan prioritizes the use of the market as a means of resource allocation, where appropriate. However, the Plan also recognizes the need to strengthen regulatory oversight to minimize market abuse.

**Uphold Core Values:** The ERGP is rooted in the core values that define the Nigerian society as enshrined in the 1999 Constitution, notably discipline, integrity, dignity of labour, social justice, religious tolerance, self-reliance and patriotism. It requires all citizens and stakeholders to adhere to these principles. Other strategic solutions to driving overall economic recovery in the face of the economic recession include:
**Restoring Growth:** Macroeconomic stability will be achieved by undertaking fiscal stimulus, ensuring monetary stability and improving the external balance of trade. Similarly, to achieve economic diversification, policy focus will be on the key sectors driving and enabling economic growth, with particular focus on agriculture, energy and MSME led growth in industry, manufacturing and key services by leveraging science and technology. The revival of these sectors, increased investment in other sectors, less reliance on foreign exchange for intermediate goods and raw materials and greater export orientation will improve macroeconomic conditions, restore growth in the short term and help to create jobs and bring about structural change.

**Investing in our People:** Economic growth is beneficial for society when it creates opportunities and provides support to the vulnerable. The ERGP should invest in the Nigerian people by increasing social inclusion, creating jobs and improving the human capital base of the economy.

**Social Inclusion:** The Federal Government should continue to provide support for the poorest and most vulnerable members of society by investing in social programmes and providing social amenities. Targeted programmes will reduce regional inequalities, especially in the North East and Niger Delta.

**Job Creation and Youth Empowerment:** Interventions to create jobs should be core part of the ERGP, which aims to reduce unemployment and under-employment, especially among youth. The ERGP accordingly prioritizes job creation through the adoption of a jobs and skills programme for Nigeria including deepening existing N-Power programmes, and launching other public works programmes. The partnership for job creation will also focus on the policies required to support growth and diversification of the economy by placing emphasis on Made-in-Nigeria, public procurement which takes account of local content and labour intensive production processes. All initiatives under job creation would prioritize youth as beneficiaries. Accordingly, all capacity building and skills acquisition interventions will be targeted at youth-dominated sectors such as ICT, creative industries, and services. Furthermore, concerted efforts would be made to encourage youth to venture into other labour intensive sectors such as agriculture and construction.

**Improved Human Capital:** The Federal Government will invest in health and education to fill the skills gap in the economy, and meet the international targets set under the UN’s Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). The ERGP will improve the
accessibility, affordability and quality of healthcare and will roll out the National Health Insurance Scheme across the entire country. It will also guarantee access to basic education for all, improve the quality of secondary and tertiary education, and encourage students to enrol in science and technology courses.

**Building a Globally Competitive Economy:** Restoring Nigeria's economic growth and laying the foundations for long-term development requires a dynamic, agile private sector that can innovate and respond to global opportunities. The ERGP should aim to tackle the obstacles hindering the competitiveness of Nigerian businesses, notably poor or non-existent infrastructural facilities and the difficult business environment. It will increase competitiveness by investing in infrastructure and improving the business environment.

**Investing in Infrastructure:** The ERGP should emphasize investment in infrastructure, especially in power, roads, rail, ports and broadband networks. It builds on ongoing projects and identifies new ones to be implemented by 2020 to improve the national infrastructure backbone. Given the huge capital layout required to address the massive infrastructure deficit in the country, the private sector is expected to play a key role in providing critical infrastructure, either directly or in collaboration with the Government under public private partnership (PPP) arrangements.

**Improving the Business Environment:** Nigeria's difficult and often opaque business environment adds to the cost of doing business, and is a disincentive to domestic and foreign investors alike. Regulatory requirements must be more transparent, processing times must be faster, the overall economy must be more business-friendly.

**Promoting Digital-led Growth:** To make the Nigerian economy more competitive in the 21st century global economy, its industrial policy must be linked to a digital-led strategy for growth. The ERGP will build on The Smart Nigeria Digital Economy Project to increase the contribution from ICT and ICT-enabled activity to GDP. The overall goals of a digital-led strategy for growth centre on the establishment of an ICT ecosystem in Nigeria. This is enabled through significantly expanding broadband coverage, increasing e-government, and establishing ICT clusters, starting in the SEZs. Government will also drive a programme to build the skills in this sector, focusing on training IT Engineers in software development, programming, network development and cyber security.
Urgently Increase oil Production: Restore production to 2.2 mbpd in the short term and 2.5 mbpd by 2020 to increase export earnings and government revenues by an additional N800 billion annually.

Boost local Refining for Self-Sufficiency: This can only be achieved by reducing petroleum product imports by 60 per cent by 2018, so as to become a net exporter by 2020, save foreign exchange and prevent reversion to the fuel subsidy regime.

Transportation Infrastructure: Nigeria’s transport infrastructure stock is inadequate for the size of the economy and constitutes a major cost and constraint for both large and small businesses. Investments in strengthening Nigeria’s infrastructure will make a significant contribution towards building a competitive economy. Given the scale of the investment required, partnering with the private sector will be critical, and significant effort will go towards attracting private sector investment, and ensuring agreed execution priorities and timelines are effectively delivered.

Industrialization Focusing on Small and Medium Scale Enterprises: The strengthening of small-scale businesses & the promotion of industrialization should be priorities for economic recovery. Nigeria’s manufacturing sector has been particularly vulnerable to the stagnant economic conditions. It contracted by 4.38 per cent in Q3 2016 largely due to the difficulty of accessing foreign exchange to import intermediate goods and raw materials, and falling consumer demand. This contraction is as a result of infrastructural bottlenecks and an uncompetitive business environment. The sector is expected to contribute to growth in the short term through policies to improve the usage of existing capacity, through increased availability of foreign exchange and greater domestic value addition. One major strategy is to accelerate implementation of the National Industrial Revolution Plan (NIRP) through Special Economic Zones (SEZs). The focus will be on priority sectors to generate jobs, promote exports, boost growth and upgrade skills to create 1.5 million jobs by 2020.

A revitalized manufacturing sector will create jobs, stimulate foreign exchange earnings and grow micro, small and medium enterprises (MSMEs). The involvement of small businesses in the service sector is a major lever for economic recovery. The service industry accounts for 53 per cent of GDP and contains key sectors that can contribute to short-term economic growth and longer-term structural change. While the telecommunications and information and communications technology services (ICT) sector grew in absolute terms by 9.26 per cent in Q3 of 2016, it offers huge scope
for further growth, especially from opportunities in the digital economy. Creative industries, especially music and film, also have great growth potential, as do both financial services and tourism.

These above priorities are to be underpinned by a focus on governance and delivery, which have been identified as crucial to the successful implementation of the Plan. Transparent, effective and fair governance is being deepened through the continued fight against corruption, strengthening the security system, public service reform, and reinforcing sub-national coordination.

Source: Ministry of Budget and National Planning, 2017

Conclusion
As Sanusi Lamido Sanusi (2010) the former CBN governor had opined, the prospects for growth in Nigeria are very bright going by the achievements recorded during the last ten years and the current reforms in the various sectors. However, for Nigeria to consolidate these economic gains and move higher in the frontlines of growth and development, it must deepen reforms that improve human capital, promote high-
quality public infrastructure, and encourage competition. The pillars to sustain this consolidation must include a firm fiscal policy, transparent fiscal operations, development-oriented monetary and exchange rate policies, strengthening of the financial sector and strict adherence to the rule-of-law and respect for the sanctity of contract as well as commitment to fighting corruption and corrupt practices.

In all of these, Nigeria has opportunity for progress. We must break away from the past to deliver a new Nigeria that the future generations of Nigerians would be proud of. Our electoral process must not only be credible, but must be seen to be credible, since robust economic performance necessarily requires a robust political environment to happen. It is also recommended that to cushion the effect of future economic doom, the country in line with the ERGP should comprehensively diversify the sources of her revenue and probably co-opt and improve on agricultural development, manufacture and growth of local industries, development of the mines and steel industries and create a synergy between the state and the private sector in availing the good governance expected for the citizenry.

References


Introduction

This paper argues that the legislature in every democratic setting plays a stabilizing role on the economic progress of the state. It not only aids the consolidation of democracy but also ensures economic development within the state through the process of law-making, appropriation exercise, oversight functions amongst others. Thus, the fundamental functions of the legislature need to be overhauled whenever occasions of economic instability surfaces. This unarguably is the case with the recent economic recession that bedeviled the Nigerian state exemplified in high rates of inflation, unemployment, currency devaluation and general decrease in standard of living. One is therefore instigated to question the fundamental responsibility of the Nigerian National Assembly in the face of daunting economic retrogression. Given the above, the paper is interested in studying how well the National Assembly has employed its Power of the Purse in regulating both fiscal and monetary policies especially as they affect the current downturn in the Nigerian economy irrespective of the legislative-executive faceoff which is thwarting the economic progress of the Nigerian state. In doing this, the paper relies on both primary and secondary sources of data. The judgmental sampling technique was employed to gather data from 250 sampled population drawn from both the staff and elected National Assembly members. The structural functional approach was used for
theoretical assessment of the subject matter. Major findings of the paper show that intra-party brawls, executive/legislative face-off, low capacity of legislators, politicization of legislative aides and lack of fiscal federalism are parts of the harbingers of the economic meltdown. The paper recommends that to eschew future trends of economic recession, the legislature should employ institutional measures to adequately check the complacency of governmental institutions and agencies while stemming other setbacks like intra-party crises amongst others.

**Background to the Study**

The legislature is an important institution of government, with the function arguably at the very heart of democracy; encompassing law making, representation, interface between the citizenry and the government and offering most comprehensive platform for citizens’ participation in governance irrespective of gender, ethnic, religious and ideological leanings (Ojo and Omotola, 2014). As Jibril (2004) puts it:

...Parliament is not a Congress of Ambassadors from different and hostile interests, which interests each must maintain, as an agent and advocate, against other agents and advocates, but Parliament is a deliberative Assembly of one nation, with one interest, that of the whole, where the local purposes not local prejudices ought to guide, but the general good, resulting from the general reason of the whole.

Implicitly, the citizens are the direct stakeholders in the enterprise and institution of the Legislature. Writing on the critical role of the legislature and its place in the affairs of men, Anyaegbunam (2003) opined that ‘Corporate deliberation, decision making and execution have remained prominent features of man’s Community relationship for ages’. There is however, avalanche of scholarship efforts on the legislature, yet this cannot be said of the Nigerian Legislature. The presumption has much to do with the inchoate development and growth of the legislative arm of government in Nigerian, which hitherto was characterized with history of disruptions, and re-establishments, occasioned by political upheaval, military interregnum and uncertainties, being the major casualties of military intrigues.

Whether or not their activities are besieged with occasional setbacks, it is pertinent to submit that the legislature has some fundamental role to play in the development of any nation’s economy. This is hinged on the fact that their oversight functions, lawmaking responsibility and budget appropriations empowers them to make some
significant contributions to economic development of the state. Extending this assumption further, the legislature is the epitome and the very essence of good government as claimed by Ake (1996) who further observed that the potency of the legislators lies in its ability to ensure that decision making powers rest with the populace and the will of the people is translated to government policies.

In the same vein Aiyede and Njoku (2014) opined that the Legislature is a key institution of democratic governance, a key institution of representation and accountability in the running of the affairs of the State. That is in fact, the very essence of its establishment, in order words, the legislature impliedly is the very reason, why the state is created, perhaps deriving from the very origin of the modern State.

Writing in this order, Mukherjee and Ramaswanny (2015:193) and re-enacting that great mind of Hobbes in the Leviathan notes:

> Since the first law of nature enjoined individuals to seek peace, the only way to attain it was through a covenant leading to the establishment of a state, individuals, surrendered all their powers through a contract to a third party who was not a party to the contract but nevertheless received all the powers that were surrounded. The Commonwealth was constituted when the multitude of individuals were united in one person when every person said to the other, "I Authorize and give my Right of Governing myself, to this Man, or this Assembly of men, on this condition, that thou give up thy Right to him and Authorize all his Actions in like manner (2015:120).

The legislature by all intent and purposes is established to be the very basis of good governance, knowing too well that Monarchies and Aristocracies of antiquities had wrought a lot of pains, hardship and discomfort to the subjects. No wonder military dictatorships or one man rule, anywhere it still exists remain an aberration in governance. The Legislature by its very existence is meant to checkmate the excesses of the Executives by ensuring that the leaders (the executives) conform to set of rules, guarantee basic equality with every other member. This is because the sovereign must treat all the individuals equally in matters of justice and levying taxes as Hobbes had supposed. In the words of Hobbes, Justice means equality in treatment and equality in rights (Ake, 1996).
Hence, one can culpably ensnare the legislature in times of economic recession and general reduction in economic activities proven by wide-scale poverty, unemployment, decrease in standard of living, unchecked inflation, grossly devalued currency amongst others. In fact, the thesis of this paper rests on critically appraising the task, pain and gains of the legislature in the recent economic recession that bedeviled the Nigerian economic landscape beginning from the 2nd quarter of the 2014. Apparently, save for the intra and interparty wrangling; avoidable executive-legislative faceoff; late passage of appropriation bills and poor follow-ups after oversight functions; the Nigerian economy would have been managed in such a way that global oil price slump and any other potential factor would not have made it to delve into full-blown economic recession and near-depression.

Against this backdrop, this paper intends to critically access the role of the legislature in quelling the economic recession currently bedeviling the Nigerian state and ensuring overall economic development. In doing this, this paper is parted into four sections: the general introduction, conceptual and theoretical explorations, data presentations and analysis and summary and recommendations.

**Research Questions**

Arising from the above introduction, the paper raises the following research questions:

i. What is the relationship between legislative oversight and economic recession in Nigeria?

ii. How has the National Assembly effectively ensured national development by their right over the purse?

**Research Hypotheses**

This paper intends to test the following hypothesis

- **Ho.** There is no significant relationship between the opinion about the legislature and economic recession in Nigeria and educational qualification

- **Hi.** There is significant relationship between the opinion about the legislature and economic recession in Nigeria and educational qualification

**Conceptual and Theoretical Exploration**

**Economic Recession**

Economic recession like most social science terms has got no universally accepted definition. To Biafore (2009), it refers to a “slowing in economic growth”. The period
in view showcases an economy where jobs are lost in their numbers, much money chase few goods and currencies are largely devalued, among other harsh economic indices. It is in the light of these realities that Igwe (2005) has observed that recession refers to:

* A backward march, or reversal, of the economy over a relatively long term, believed by some economists to be part of a regular cyclical phenomenon of decline which must inevitably follow some periods of sustained growth or “over-heating”. There is no scientific basis for the cyclical theory of Recession, for such a theory must equally embrace a Recession in other spheres of existence, including the individual, family, group, as well as national and international. Recessions are an unavoidable crisis of any imperfect or unjust economic systems, such as the variants of capitalism, including unequal competitions, rivalries and mutual struggles, often develop a negative character, one of whose many consequences can be a Recession.

In economic studies, “recession is referred to as a general slowdown in economic activity over a sustained period of time, or a business cycle contraction” (http:www.merriam-webster.com/ dictionary/recession). Economists thus argue seriously that during recessions, many macroeconomic indicators vary in a similar way.

Hence, production as measured by Gross Domestic Product (GDP), employment, investment spending, capacity utilization, household incomes and business profits all fall during recessions. On the effects of recession on the state of a nation’s economy, Biafore (2009) notes that while compounding the problem of the economy, “recessions lead to lower interest rates on savings because the Federal Reserve Board cuts the federal funds rate to boost the economy. Worse yet, layoffs are common during recession”. This aspect of course explains the massive retrenchment of bank workers in Nigeria recently. On the predictability or timing of the occurrence (of recessions), scholars are not fully agreed on whether it is predictable or not.

To Biafore (2009) The problem is, recessions are difficult to recognize when they arrive and almost impossible to predict. In fact, it takes a while, sometimes a long while, to find out that a recession has already began”. During the 2007-2009 recession though, economists identified a number of possible predictors before the
world economy went fully slow. These predictors included a staggering fall in the mortgage market, a significant stock market (investment) drop, with that of Nigeria almost gone comatose, inverted yield curve and three-month change in the unemployment rate and initial jobless claims, among others. From the above, economic recession could emanate from poor management of the economy of the state, lack of economic diversification, inefficient legislation on taxation, lack of saving, collusion between the legislature and the executive and the inability of the legislature to pass bills which can steer the wheels of economic development like the Petroleum Industrial Bill in Nigeria.

Meanwhile, the economic recession being witnessed by Nigeria in recent times, stems from the turmoil in global commodity markets, witnessed in the second half of 2014 which brought their full weight to bear on the Nigerian economy in 2015. Oil prices fell 66.8% from $114/barrel recorded in June 2014, to $38.0 by December 2015. Prices fell even further in 2016, to $32.6 as at 3rd February, 2016. Beyond commodity markets, recent developments in the global economy created a trifecta of headwinds that the nation has to contend with (NBS, 2017).

Legislature
Writing on the concept of legislature, Ghai (2016) noted that the term is generic, which for him means a body which legislates. According to him, the term “leg” means law and “lature” the place, etymologically legislature means a place for law-making. Another term, which is used synonymously as legislature is “parliament” the word is derived from the French word “parley” which means to “talk” or to discuss and deliberate. “Parliament” therefore means the place where deliberations are held. According to Ghai, (2016:2):

*The legislature is that organ of government which passes the laws of the government. It is the agency which has the responsibility to formulate the will of the state and vest it with legal authority and force. In simple words, the legislature is that organ of the government which formulates laws. Legislature enjoys a very special and important position in every democratic state. It is the Assembly of the elected representatives of the people and represents national public opinion and power of the people.*
This definition of the legislature by Ghai no doubt is revealing and encompassing as it
tends to capture all the gamut of legislatures, embracing representation and law
making as basic characteristics. Yet the definition appears to have vested so much
power to the legislature to the point of ignoring the place of the legislature in a
constitutional government or regimes. In this regime the constitution is the grand
norms. The legislature as defined by Ghai may be defining its archetype of the
parliament of United Kingdom; which does not have written constitution.

Meanwhile, in a constitutional government, the legislature is not supreme, rather it is
the constitution. As a result of the supremacy of the constitution Section 1 (1) of the
Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria 1999 as amended provides that, “this
constitution is supreme and its provisions shall have binding force on all authorities,
including the legislature (sic) and persons throughout the Federal Republic of Nigeria

Commenting on this constitutional provision, Professor Jadesola O. Akande
(2000:16-17) opined that:

*The constitution is the grand norm, that is, the fundamental law. Thus any law which is inconsistent with the provisions of the constitution is to the extent of that in consistency null and void. All other legislation take their hierarchy from the provision of the constitution. By the provision of the constitution, the laws made by the National Assembly are next, followed by those made by the Houses of Assembly. Thus, all laws made by Parliament are secondary to the constitution even though parliament has the power to amend the constitution.*

It is in recognition of the pre-eminence of the constitution that Anyaegbuanam
(2003:25) opined that, “the constitution is the supreme law of the land. It enjoys
overriding superiority over all laws and institutions within its jurisdiction. The
supremacy of the constitution demands that it subordinate all the laws, policies and
initiatives to its prescribed limits and procedure. Writing on the concept legislature
Simbine, (2010:2) noted that:

*The Legislature is an assemblage of the representatives of the people elected under a legal framework to make laws for the good health of the society. It is also defined as “the institutional body responsible for making laws for a nation and one through which the collective will of the people or part of it is articulated, expressed and implemented.*
Arising from the above is that the legislature which is constituted by the representative of the people and acts as their agent is the very essence of liberal democratic tradition. Theoretically, political pundits and commentators acknowledge the legislature as one of the major indicators of democratic indices amongst other indicators like political parties, periodic elections and freedom to express fundamental human rights.

The legislature is considered as the symbol of sovereignty of a state and therefore represents the first independent organ of the state power. It was to this that Egwu, (2005:19) defined the legislature “as a body of persons in a country or a state vested with power to make, alter and repeal laws in the realm of representation and the state of sovereignty. With the instrument of the constitution as a tool for achieving the will of the state, the National Assembly is legally charged with the responsibility of driving development within the state. This therefore shows a manifest function of the lacuna of the Nigerian national assembly in the face of the daunting economic recession. This of course presents the premise of the discourse of this paper.

**Theoretical Framework**

Various theories abound that could be adopted as framework upon which the literature could be built, these theories range from; Structural Functionalism, Systems theory and theory of checks and balances. All these theories have certain intellectual relevance to the subject-matter but for the sake of application to the case study, the Structural-Functional approach is considered most appropriate. User Agreement Privacy Policy, although structural functionalism predated systems theory it still presupposes a "systems" view of the political world. Similarities link functionalism to systems analysis.

**Basic Theoretical Assumptions of the Theory**

According to Merton (1968), the social system is the prior causal reality and the system parts are functionally interrelated, all social phenomena have functions for the larger social system. Concerning these functions, the theory has the following assumptions:

1. They may be functional for the whole system or only part of it
2. There may be functional alternatives
3. There may be multiple consequences from particular phenomena, The and finally
4. Dysfunctions account for tension and change in the system
5. Approaches assume that systems can be identified and specified, that the boundaries are measurable
6. They cannot explain the existence of societies in the first place
7. It cannot easily explain rapid social change and social conflict
8. Explorations can be tautological

Susser (1992) writes that both focus on input—output analysis, both see political systems as striving for homeostasis or equilibrium, and both consider feedback in their analysis. Yet functionalism is significantly different. Applying Functional Analysis to the Study of Politics according to Michael G. Smith (1966), four approaches are useful in the comparative study of political systems: process, content, function, and form. Studies based on process and content face huge obstacles.

In developed countries, the processes of government are "elaborately differentiated, discrete and easy to identify," but in simpler societies, the same processes are rarely differentiated and discrete. They occur within the context of institutional activities that are difficult to analyze for political processes. The more "differentiated and complex" the government processes, the "greater the range and complexity" of content. Since content and process are "interdependent and derivative," they require independent criteria for studying government. The functional approach does not have the same limitations as process and content. It defines government as all those activities that influence "the way in which authoritative decisions are formulated and executed for a society" (Easton, 1957).

From this definition, various schemata were developed to study the functions of government. Easton listed five modes of action as elements of all political systems: legislation, administration, adjudication, the development of demands, and the development of support and solidarity. These were grouped as input and output requirements of political systems. An Example of the Structural Functional Approach and systems Theory Structural functionalism analysis consists of nothing more than stating empirical questions in one of the following forms or some combination of them: (a) What observable uniformities (or patterns) exist in the phenomenon under study? (b) What conditions result because of the phenomenon? (c) What processes occur as a result of the conditions? The first question asks: What structures are involved? The second: What functions have resulted because of the structures? Asked in the opposite direction, different results could occur: What functions exist? What structures result from the functions?
**The Relevance of the Theory to the Paper**

Essentially, the legislature as a symbol of true democracy makes laws which the executive is under obligation to implement. The judiciary is legally called upon in the determination of civil rights and obligations to interpret the laws. This system of government understands from the onset that powers may be abused and therefore introduced a system that guarantees checks and balances amongst the three arms of government. Therefore, through the power of interpretation, the courts can declare laws made by the legislature unconstitutional, null and void and of no effect whatsoever.

On the other hand, the legislature has the power of oversight over the execution and administration of laws by the executive. The executive holds the powers of investigation, coercion and implementation of laws and can as well use these powers to call the legislature and judiciary to order. In other words, it implies that the three organs of government according to Onyekpere, (2012) should be kept apart from each other in the interest of individual liberty and it is a perfect system created for the overall benefit of the citizens.

The functions of the government should be differentiated and performed by different organs consisting of different bodies of persons so that each department be limited to its respective sphere of activity and not be able to encroach upon the independence and jurisdiction of another (Johari, 1989:280). The principal function of the executive is to execute laws, orders, rules, regulations, decrees, prevention of the breaches of law, rendering a host of social welfare services and meting punishment to the delinquents so as to maintain peace and good government. On the other hand, in spite of its primary function of legislating laws, amending or repealing existing laws, the legislature serves a number of overlapping objectives and purposes to improve the efficiency, economy, and effectiveness of governmental operations; evaluate programmes and performance; detect and prevent poor administration, waste, abuse, arbitrary and capricious behaviour, or illegal and unconstitutional conduct; protect civil liberties and constitutional rights; inform the general public and ensure that executive policies reflect the public interest; gather information to develop new legislative proposals or to amend existing statutes; ensure administrative compliance with legislative intent; and prevent executive encroachment on legislative authority and prerogatives encapsulates in oversight functions (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Congressional_oversight).
Congressional oversight takes place when the National Assembly (the Senate and the House of Representatives) continually review the effectiveness of the executive arm in carrying out the congressional mandates through supervision, watchfulness, or review of executive actions and activities. This helps the National Assembly to establish issues and address problem areas in order to make the necessary improvements or changes to create an effective process. This legislative process brings to the knowledge of the public what the executive branch is doing, and it affords the electorates the opportunity to see what public office holders are actually doing, whether they are really serving their collective interest or not. This ultimately is the theoretical basis of the Structural-Functional theory.

**Methodology**

The research is a descriptive survey conducted in National Assembly and within the University of Abuja, Abuja. In gathering data for this research, the paper relies on both the primary and secondary sources of data. In view of this, information were retrieved from journal articles, conference papers, textbooks and the internet while the questionnaire was used as instrument for generating information from a drawn sample size of 250 respondents gotten from among National Assembly Staff (both legislators and staff) and the University of Abuja community. With the aid of 3 research assistants, 250 questionnaires were distributed and 240 were returned representing 96% of the total response generated. The outcome of the research is descriptively presented below using statistical tools like tables, frequency and percentage distribution.
Data Presentation and Analysis

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequencies</th>
<th>Percentages (%)</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>60.42</td>
<td>60.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>39.58</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>240</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Age (in years)</td>
<td>18-35</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>24.58</td>
<td>24.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>35 Above</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>75.42</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>240</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Religion</td>
<td>Christianity</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>45.42</td>
<td>45.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Islam</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>43.75</td>
<td>89.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Others</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>10.83</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>240</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Educational Qualification</td>
<td>No Formal Education</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ND/NCE</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>23.33</td>
<td>23.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>HND/BSC</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>77.67</td>
<td>99.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>MSC/PHD</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>9.17</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>240</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Occupation</td>
<td>Legislator</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>34.17</td>
<td>34.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>NASS Staff</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>38.23</td>
<td>72.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Academia</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>27.50</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>240</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Research, 2017

Table 1 Discussions

From table 1 above, 60.42% of the respondents are males while 39.58% of the respondents are females. More so, 24.58% of the respondents are between the age-bracket of 18-35 while 75.42% are 35 years and above. Again, religion of the respondents shows that 45.42% are Christians and 43.75% are Muslims while 10.83 indicated other religions.

In addition, 0% of the respondents agreed that they have no formal education, while 13.33% of the respondents indicated that they have ND/NCE, 77.50% submitted too that they have acquired HND/BSC and 9.17% of the respondents said they have got MSC/PHD. Finally, 34.17% of the respondents are legislators, while 38.33% are National Assembly staff and 27.50% of the respondents are extracted from the academia.
Table 2: Questions Relating to the Role of Legislature in Economic Recession in Nigeria

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequencies</th>
<th>Percentages%</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Opinion about the meaning of lawmakering and legislative oversight.</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>232</td>
<td>96.67</td>
<td>96.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>99.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Undecided</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>240</td>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Opinion about the meaning of economic recession.</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>95.83</td>
<td>95.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>96.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Undecided</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>240</td>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Opinion about the relationship between legislative oversight and economic development in Nigeria.</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>76.25</td>
<td>76.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>20.83</td>
<td>97.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Undecided</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>240</td>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Opinion about whether the inability of the legislature to pass PIB, whistle blowing and repealing of land use act led to the economic recession.</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>79.13</td>
<td>79.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>17.08</td>
<td>96.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Undecided</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>240</td>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Opinion on whether lack of fiscal federalism and resource control contributed to economic recession.</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>91.67</td>
<td>91.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>81.33</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Undecided</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>240</td>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Opinion on whether executive-legislative faceoff and internal party wrangling affect legislative right over the purse.</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>16.25</td>
<td>91.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Undecided</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>8.75</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>240</td>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Opinion on whether the failure of the National Assembly to keep faith with the core mandate of legislation, control of the purse and budget padding led to the current economic recession.</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>209</td>
<td>87.08</td>
<td>87.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>12.92</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Undecided</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>240</td>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Opinion on whether the performance of the National Assembly is influenced by national interests, patriotism, representation and service delivery.</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>13.33</td>
<td>13.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>79.17</td>
<td>92.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Undecided</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>240</td>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Opinion on whether inadequate legislation on taxation and poor saving of excess crude liquidity led to economic recession.</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>86.25</td>
<td>86.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>98.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Undecided</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>240</td>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Opinion on whether the National Assembly contributes significantly to the current economic recession.</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>59.17</td>
<td>59.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>36.25</td>
<td>95.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Undecided</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>240</td>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Research, 2017
Table 2 Discussions
From the table 2 above, 96.67% of the respondents agreed that understand the meaning of lawmaking and legislative oversight while, 2.92% responded negatively and 0.41 remained undecided. However, 95.83% of the respondents submitted that they know concept of economic recession while 0.83% agreed they did not know and 2.08% remained undecided. In addition, 76.25% of the respondents agreed that there is relationship between legislative oversight and economic development while 20.83% disagreed and 2.92 remained undecided. Also, 79.13% of the respondents agreed that the inability of the legislature to pass the PIB, whistle blowing act and repeal the land use act are contributory factors to the economic recession while 17.08% disagreed and 13.33 remained undecided.

Moreover, 91.67% of the respondents affirmed that lack of legislation on fiscal federalism and resource control also contributed to the economic recession while 81.33% of the respondents disagreed and 0% remained undecided. Furthermore, 75% of the respondents opined that executive-legislative faceoff and internal party wrangling within the APC affect the legislative fundamental right over the purse, while 16.25% of the respondents answered to the negative and 8.75% remained undecided. 87.08% of the respondents submitted that the failure of the National Assembly to keep faith with the core mandate of legislation, control of the purse and budget padding led to the current economic recession, 12.92% disagreed in this regard while 0% remained undecided.

More still, 13.33% of the respondents said that the performance of the National Assembly is influenced by national interests; patriotism, representation and service delivery and 79.17% disagreed in this regard while 7.5% remained undecided. Most of the respondents affirmed that inadequate legislation on taxation and poor saving of excess crude liquidity led to economic recession with 86.25% affirming this while 12.5% disagreed on this and 1.25% remained undecided. Finally, the opinion on whether the National Assembly contributes significantly to the current economic recession was supported by 59.17% and 36.25% while 4.58% remained undecided on it.

Test of Hypothesis
The hypothesis stated before now spread into null and alternate hypothesis and they are stated and tested below:
Table 3: On the relationship between the legislature and economic recession in Nigeria

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Educational Qualification of Respondents</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ND/NCE</td>
<td>HND/BSC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undecided</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Research, 2017

Ho. There is no significant relationship between the opinion about the legislature and economic recession in Nigeria and educational qualification

Hi. There is significant relationship between the opinion about the legislature and economic recession in Nigeria and educational qualification

The chi-square is calculated below:

\[ \chi^2 = \sum \left( \frac{F_o - F_e}{F_e} \right)^2 \]

Where:
RT = Row Total
CT = Column Total
GT = Grand (or overall) Total
The Chi-square (\( \chi^2 \)) calculated value is obtained using the formula:

\[ F_e = \frac{RT \times CT}{GT} \]
Chi-Square Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>E</th>
<th>(O-E)^2</th>
<th>(O-E)^2/E</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>41.17</td>
<td>10.05</td>
<td>0.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>73</td>
<td>94.64</td>
<td>468.29</td>
<td>4.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>43.7</td>
<td>7.29</td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>13.27</td>
<td>10.69</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>21.64</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>14.09</td>
<td>24.12</td>
<td>1.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>10.56</td>
<td>41.47</td>
<td>3.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>17.23</td>
<td>17.89</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>11.21</td>
<td>4.88</td>
<td>0.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>13.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Research, 2017

X^2 Calculated = 13.4
X^2 Table Value = 5.99

From the above, the chi-square calculated is more than the chi-square table value. We therefore reject Ho which is the null hypothesis and accept Hi which is the alternate hypothesis. The interpretation is that there is significant relationship between the opinion about the legislature and economic recession in Nigeria and educational qualification of respondents.

Major Findings

From the above data presentation and analysis it is apt to posit that the Nigerian National Assembly has not been keeping faith with its core mandate of effective legislation on budget appropriation, economic development, oversight function, economic diversification, taxation and excess crude savings amongst others. It therefore makes the following conclusions:

i. There is relationship between legislative oversight and economic recession in Nigeria.
ii. The National Assembly has not effectively ensured national development by their right over the purse.

iii. Poor savings overtime has affected economic development and encouraged economic recession in the last 10 years.

iv. The National Assembly is partisan in terms of its role of law making, representations and oversight duties among others.

v. Bribery, budget padding and partisanship contribute to the recent economic recession in Nigeria.

Recommendations
With the above conclusion in mind, the research makes the following recommendations:

i. The three arms of government viz: the legislature, judiciary and executive should effectively ensure and act in accordance with the provisions of the rule of law, principles of checks and balances and the ethics of separation of power as these will aid them in eschewing whatever form of faceoff between or among them;

ii. Since the National Assembly is directly responsible when there is no meaningful economic progress, they should strive, through their power over the purse to effectively drive national economic development by equitably allocating resources to areas of urgent needs;

iii. The National Assembly should make legislations that would direct savings of returns made from excess crude sales; this will of course avoid the unnecessary sharing of excess crude by Governors and government agencies.

iv. For the sake of patriotism, the National Assembly should conduct its lawmaking, representation and oversight duties without recourse to party affiliation, ethnic and religious sentiments as these are always harbingers of economic and political ruin.

v. Bribery, budget padding and evidence of party sentiment should be criminalized when they form threat to national development. This will go a long way in instilling sanity, transparency and unity of purpose amongst members of the National Assembly.
References


ECONOMIC RECESSION IN NIGERIA AND FAMILY INSTABILITY IN PORT HARcourt CITY LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA, RIVERS STATE, NIGERIA

1Onyebueke, Victoria Esima & 2Eze, Ifeoma Louisa
2Department of Sociology, Faculty of Social Sciences, University of Port Harcourt, Choba Port Harcourt, Rivers State

Introduction

The Nigerian economy got into crisis in the first quarter of the year 2016 which was caused by severe fall in oil revenue, high drop in the country's gross domestic product (GDP), excessive importation, high interest rate, inflation and low investment inflows. This resulted in loss of jobs as companies and banks massively layoff staff, unemployment, salary cut, loss of business and low income earning affected several families. In this work, the impact of economy recession in Nigeria and its effect on family stability was investigated. A total of 200 questionnaires were distributed among 200 families in Port Harcourt City Local Government Area in Rivers State which were filled and retrieved for analysis using simple percentage. With respondents' rate of 95% (190 families), 85% of respondents insisted that the recession has forced their families into untold hardship, while 61% of the male respondents reported that they lost their jobs and their children dropped out of school. About 92% generally had a huge drop, in income. The findings showed that the major impacts of economic recession on family stability were child abandonment, malnutrition, increase in domestic violence and the number of street children, child abuse, poverty, adolescent prostitution/pregnancy and high death rate. Based on this work, 86% of 190 families under study were unstable. Thus, it was recommended that, to save
families, the government should provide regular power for domestic businesses, invest in small scale business from the grass root to empower families, give access to loans, create jobs for young graduates, reduce interest rates and taxation to encourage investors, invest in entrepreneurs, human capital development and agriculture for a sustainable development and economic recovery.

Background to the Study
The National Bureau of Economic Research (NBER 2016) defined economic recession as a significant decline in economic activity, which spread across the economy that lasts for more than a few months normally visible in real gross domestic product, income, employment, industry production and wholesale-retail-sales. Report by the Central Bank of Nigeria in Friday Punch 19 may 2016 indicated that, in the third quarter of the year 2016, the growth observed in some selected sectors of the economic such as manufacturing industry was at -2.63 percent, the chemical/pharmaceuticals industry stood at -1.53 percent, the construction industry was at -0.11 percent, but the wholesale/retail trade industry was at -1.38 percent, the transport/storage stood at 0.72 percent, entertainment and recreation 1.99 percent. According to Noko (2016) Economic recession is a negative real gross domestic product growth that last for two consecutive quarters first and second. Going by the two definitions of Noko (2016) and NBER (2016), it can be deduced that Nigeria is in a full recession at the time of this study.

The Nigerian economy got into crisis in the first quarter of the year 2016 which was caused by severe fall in oil revenue, high drop in the country's gross domestic product (GDP), excessive importation, high interest rate, inflation, low investment inflows and poor management of government funds over the past two decades. This resulted in loss of jobs as companies and banks massively layoff staff, unemployment, salary cut, loss of business and low income earning affected several families. However, Noko (2016) insisted that the three major causes of the economic recession in Nigeria were, poor economic policy, fall in oil prices and the militancy in the Niger Delta. Despite the contributions by the federal government, to reduce the effect of the negative downturn of the economy, by implementing some fiscal reforms policies in 2016 which included CBN bailout to sub-national governments, where 23 States that had their bank loans amounting to N575.52 billion restructured to 20 bonds, and 28 States benefited from the CBN's salary bailout of N373.56 billion between August 2015 and January 2016 to help the states pay monthly salaries, some states like Bayelsa State and Ekiti State were unable to even pay salaries regularly. The private companies were not left out as many
companies are owing their workers over six (6) months salaries. Thus, many oil and gas companies and non-oil and gas companies in Port Harcourt, and other States in the country massively dropped a sizable number of their staff. Among these were Chevron, Agip oil, Shell Development Company. Furthermore, due to the low purchasing power generally in the country and rivers state in particular, even the common market traders are unable to make turnovers, as there are less buyers and high cost of goods. All these have cumulated impact of families hence, the urgent need to study the effect of the current economic recession on family stability.

**Objectives of the Study**
The aim of this study is to examine how the economic recession in Nigeria affects family stability. Specifically, the study seeks to:

1. Examine the impact of economic recession on family stability.
2. Identify measure to be adopted by both the Federal Government of Nigeria and parents to overcome the issues of family instability resulting from economic recession.

**Research Questions**
Based on the objectives of the study, the following research questions were prepared for the purpose of the study

1. Is there any relationship between what economic recession and family instability?
2. What are the factors that should be put in place to improve the income of families and control/prevent family instability in an economic recession?

**Research Hypotheses**
For the purpose of this study, two hypotheses were formulated using the null ($H_0$) and alternative hypothesis ($H_1$) as follows:

**Hypothesis 1:**

$H_0$: Economic recession has not brought about family instability  
$H_1$: Economic recession has brought about family instability

**Hypothesis 2:**

$H_0$: Diversification of the Nigerian economy by creating soft loans for agriculture and small scale businesses.  
$H_1$: Diversification of the Nigerian economy by creating soft loans for agriculture and small scale businesses.
Literature Review

Port Harcourt Local Government Area (PHALGA) is among one of the 23 local government areas of Rivers State in southern Nigeria with headquarters in Port Harcourt which is also the state headquarters. Port Harcourt local government area is included in the Greater Port Harcourt region. It is situated 52 kilometres (32 mi) southeast of Ahoada and about 40 kilometres (25 mi) northwest of Bori (Wolpe, 1974). It is bounded to the south by Okrika, to the east by Eleme, to the north by Obio-Akpor and to the west by Degema. It has a total size of 109 square kilometres (42 sq m) and Population of 638,360 people including youths and children with greater part of the population as youths and children. The local government area is part of the Rivers East Senatorial District consisting of 20 Electoral Wards. There are more than 1000 companies both oil and gas in Port Harcourt City local government area. The major oil companies include: Agip Oil, Royal Dutch Shell, Chevron and Polmaz limited among others. Thus the economy of the area is very viable.

Family stability refers to a condition that supports healthy child development, which includes a mental disorder and alcohol addicted free environment, stable relationship with all members of the family, and a supportive, flexible, and nurturing home environment (Brooks-Gunn, 2010). This implies that some indicators of family instability include: child abandonment, malnutrition, increase in domestic violence, children used to hack items on streets to get food on the table for the family, child abuse, poverty, adolescent prostitution/pregnancy and high death rate Therefore, when these indicators are present, the family is unstable.

However, paternal absence not only leaves the custodial mother with less time to spend with children (due to the household and parental responsibilities), but non-resident fathers also tend to spend less time with their children than do resident fathers. Kelly and Emery, 2003) noticed that single-parent families often results in an ineffective training or children because most times the custodial parent must assume both the position of a father (provider) and the mother (supervisor). This brings to bear that to avoid the situation of family instability, the parents (father and Mother) must be economically, socially mentally and emotionally stable. Therefore, a situation where the parents are plagued with reduced income, decreased finances available to family and businesses, a weak purchasing power, reduced consumer spending and decrease in sales of goods and services due to economic recession poses great challenge on the family. Several Studies have carried out on how the recession affects different aspects of the economy, ranging from the banking industry, the textile industry, the
production industry, manufacturing, and education and how it has affected Nigeria at large.

Further studied carried out on the effect of economic recession on the textile manufacturing industry, observed that much money were lost due to recession and recommended that the government needed to create a favourable environment that can encourage in-country manufacturing in the textile industry (Chukwu, Liman, Enudu and Ehiaghe; 2015). They further explained that due to the high production costs that resulted from a general collapse of the infrastructure, particularly the power and labour turnovers, so many factories packed off, thus the system observed a shrinkage in investments various companies started relocating from neighbouring countries (Akin, 2010). This increased cost of production, led to high cost of goods and services, high inflation and less production that made the entire Nigerian manufacturing industries to food production companies less competitive in both the local and the global market (Lyman, 2004).

The effect of recession on the banking sector was also studies by Adelmann (2011) in his work, titled 'The Panic of 1893: Boosting Bankers’ Money and Power' and noted that an economic recession can cause panic in the banking sector. However, literature has not specifically, considered the connection of economic recession with family instability of the individual families in Nigeria. However, research has shown that people (both men and women) experience economic distress with negative effects on mental health, such as increased level of anxiety, depression, and low self-esteem when there is a drastic drop in their income or lost their jobs. In this light, Elder (1998) observed a decline in perceptions growing children have of their parent’s social status and parental authority the moment their parents or guardian loss their job or was not employment. This changes in children’s perception and depreciation in the way they acknowledges the authority of their parents could lead to changes in behaviour. Such behavioural problems are usually consequences of family instability and the different ways parents respond to economic cries or recession. The level of cohesion in the family increasingly gets challenging because the likelihood of family conflicts may escalate among the members of the family during this period. (Leana and Ivancevich, 1987). Therefore, this study examines economic recession and family instability with the view of providing solutions to save the families from untold hardship and enhance sustainable development in Nigeria.
Theoretical Frame Work
The main theory that envisaged how financial income affect family instability is the family stress theory (Osborne and McLanahan, 2007) by Reuben Hills in 1964 which states that the changes in economic, time, and parental resources are typically accompanied by changes in family structure which subsequently leads to stress on families and adverse child outcomes. This theory further explains that the stressor (factors that stress the family) include: financial strain, employment status of parents (loss of job or income from job) occupational status, duties to extended families, presence and number of children. Brooks-Gunn, (2010) suggested that changes in social networks and socio-emotional adjustments impacts results in family instability. Therefore considering the economic recession in Nigeria, the family stress theory as it looks at how income impact on the family instability forms the basic theoretical frame work of the study.

Conceptual Studies
Carlson and Corcoran (2001) found that family instability is associated with lower child cognitive scores, increased behavioural problems, and poorer health (Magnuson and Berger, 2009). Brooks-Gunn, (2010) studies have specifically focused on the issue of family stability i.e. whether the parent(s) with whom a child lives changed over time. Marriage at birth has been linked to a lower risk of later instability relative to at-birth cohabitation and single parenthood (Wu and Martinson, 1993). Subsequently, the marriage premium may be in part due to family stability rather than family structure. Most of this literature have looked at child bearing and parenting issues, single parenting and parental mental conditions on family instability but have not studies the impact of low income in this case economic recession on family instability.

Methodology
The method adopted in this study was the survey research design method. Where the research strategy was based on the use of question-based or statistical tools to collect information about how people think and act.

A total of 200 questionnaires were distributed among 200 families in Port Harcourt City Local Government Area in Rivers State randomly selected. The completed questionnaires were retrieved for analysis using simple percentage. The Chi-Square test was used to test the hypothesis.
Figure 1. The family Stress Theory (www.google.image/familystresstheory).

Data Analysis, Results and Discussion of Findings
Presentation of Data
The data was presented using tables, figures and graphs.

Table 1: Questionnaire Response Rate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PARAMETER</th>
<th>No. of Questionnaire Administered</th>
<th>No. of valid Questionnaire Retrieved from Respondents</th>
<th>No. of invalid Questionnaire (not retrieved/retrieved but not usable)</th>
<th>Percentage Respondent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of Families</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 shows that out of the 200 families that received the questionnaires, 190 were filled and retrieved which represents a 95% respondent rate. In terms of socio-demographics of respondents, 65% were men while and 28% women and 12% were young boys and girls found on the streets and highways hanking. These distribution was necessary with view of getting all the constitutes the family fully represented in the study.

Table 2
However, 61% of the male respondents indicated that they lost their jobs. While a few has found small scale business others have gone into farming but lack of finances was their major challenge.
Table 2. Socio-Demographic Information of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Employed/self employed</th>
<th>Unemployed</th>
<th>Lost Job due to recession</th>
<th>Frequency%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Married Men</td>
<td>28 and above</td>
<td>10(8%)</td>
<td>38(30.6)</td>
<td>76(61%)</td>
<td>124(65.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married Women</td>
<td>26 and above</td>
<td>17(32.7)</td>
<td>31(59.6)</td>
<td>4(7.7)</td>
<td>54(28.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>10 – 20</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>7(100)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>7(3.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>10 – 20</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5(100)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5(2.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5(100)</td>
<td></td>
<td>190(100)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Answers to Research Questions and Discussion of Findings

Research Question 1
Is there any relationship between what economic recession and family instability?

Question 1: The economic recession has reduced your income and affected your support for your family making them go through hardship.

Questions 2: Families now engage in petty trading, thus involving their children in street hacking and sending them as house maids because of lost their jobs. It was also observed that the greater percentage of the 16% where civil servants (states and federal), hence the result showed that the impact was not much on the civil servants and government did not lay off staff no refused to salaries. This result means that a total number of 61% of respondents believes that their families now engage in petty trading, some parents have also involved their children in street hacking while others in places like Diobu has sent their children to stay with friends and non-relative as house maids so that help might come.

Applying the family stress theory, it is evident that the families now faces great economic stress which might lead to some emotional breakdown in the family resulting to domestic violence in some homes. Over, 25 women reported that their husbands have abandoned their children. Furthermore, the perception of children on their parent changes as parents can barely meet up with family demands. In fact, from the reports gathered in the course of this study, it was sad to note that several cult activities, gangsters, kidnapping and robbery were now regular occurrences in the area and unfortunately the young ones involved in these activities were found to be young boys and girls within 16 and 25year old. which shows that, this might have been the consequences of economic recession on family instability.
Test of Hypothesis 1
The research hypothesis were tested using Chi square ($\chi^2$) based on the anticipated relationships. Using the statistical Package for social Sciences (SPSS).

Table 3: Chi Square values for test of Hypotheses one using SPSS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>$\chi^2$ (cal)</th>
<th>$\chi^2$ (tab)</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>P-values</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Economic recession and family instability</td>
<td>33.074</td>
<td>7.815</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>$\chi^2$ (cal) is greater than $\chi^2$ (tab). Hence the $H_0$ is rejected and the $H_1$ is accepted</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The value of $\chi^2$(cal) as shown in the table 3 is 33.074 using a degree of freedom of 3 and confidence level of 0.05, the $\chi^2$(tab) is 7.815. Since $\chi^2$(cal) is greater than $\chi^2$(tab) the $H_0$ is rejected and the alternate hypothesis $H_1$, which states that economic recession has brought about family instability: child abandonment, malnutrition, increase in domestic violence and the number of street children, child abuse, poverty, adolescent prostitution/pregnancy and high death rate. Therefore, based on this research, there is a relationship between economic recession and family instability.

Research Question 2
What are the measures that should be put in place to improve the income of families and control/prevent family instability in an economic recession?

Answers to Research Question 2
Based on this work, the following responses where suggested by respondents to improve the income of families to enable parents get self-employed and have a source of income for the sustainability of families during and after the economic recession in Nigeria.

1. That the government at all levels (Federal, State and Local Government) should invest in agriculture and small scale manufacturing thereby enhancing local production
2. Since most of the respondents (citizens) are into small scale business and farming, a regular power supplies, and provision of good roads
3. Government should enhance access to credit loans for farmers and small scale businesses
4. Human Capital development for youths, scholarship for students and sustainable development programmes such as skills acquisition.
5. Creation of Employment young graduate and those that lost their jobs
6. Families should also learn to live within their present income, reduce spending and be self-employed.
Test of Hypothesis 2
The research hypothesis were tested using Chi square ($\chi^2$) based on the anticipated relationships. Using the statistical Package for social Sciences (SPSS) Questions 12 Parents cannot meet up with their family's medical bills leading to increase in death rate of children

In responding to the questions, 68% of respondents strongly agreed, 24% agreed, 5.2% disagreed, while 2.8% strongly disagreed. Based on this responses, it could be deduced that a total of 92% of respondents (families) testified to the fact that economic recession affected their families negative since in recent times. From the responses to question 12, about 86% could not meet up with their family's medical bills, some lost their children several childhood sickness as they could bare feed, thus increasing the level of poverty and death rate in the country. Recently there was outbreak of Laser fever and meningitis disease which has taking the life of both adults and children.

Table 4: Chi Square values for test of Hypotheses one using SPSS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>$X^2$ (cal)</th>
<th>$X^2$ (tab)</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>P-values</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Diversification of the Nigerian economic and creating soft loans for agriculture and small scale businesses</td>
<td>17.474</td>
<td>7.815</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>$X^2$ (cal) is greater the $X^2$ (tab). Hence the $H_0$ is rejected and the $H_1$ is accepted</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The value of $X^2$ (cal) as seen in table 4 is 17.474 with a degree of freedom of 3 and confidence level of 0.05, the $X^2$ (tab) is 7.815. Since $X^2$ (cal) is greater than $X^2$ (tab) the $H_0$ is rejected and the alternate hypothesis $H_1$ which states that diversification of the Nigerian economic by creating soft loans for agriculture, small scale businesses and developing young entrepreneurs would help economic recovery and reduce family instability.

Conclusion
A study on effect of economic recession has been carried out. The findings showed that there is a relationship between economic recession and family instability. It was also found that the major impacts of economic recession on family were child abandonment, malnutrition, increase in domestic violence and the number of street children, child abuse, poverty, adolescent prostitution/pregnancy and high death rate. Based on this work, 86% of 190 families under study were unstable. It therefore imperative that an urgent intervention be made to save families. The government must intensify efforts to overcome the present economic recession, provide jobs and
improve the standard on living in Port Harcourt City Local Government and Nigeria at large.

References


**Introduction**

This paper reviews the current economic recession in Nigeria and examines the root causes in the light of concurrent expensive democracy. Empirical evidence indicate the seeds for Nigeria’s current recession were planted in 2004 and “faithfully” watered subsequently by continuous gross mismanagement of national resources as well as the application of economic/development sabotaging policies and that the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) bears significant responsibility for Nigeria’s current recession. The paper therefore recommends the Law Reform Commission in their relevant law reviews to make provisions for Prudential Regulatory Authority type agency for Nigeria, make provisions to apply limits on percentage of profits made by multinationals that are repatriated out of Nigeria after the multinationals had fully repatriated their initial investments i.e. provide for the percentage of “made–in-Nigeria profits” that must be retained for re-investment in Nigeria. We also recommend urgent review of the excess autonomy granted the CBN by the last amendment of the CBN Act which allows the CBN to practically run like a private institution when the CBN is not privately owned but it is a Federal Government institution. It appears the current provisions for autonomy leaves the CBN itself with no effective supervisor or check and balances to ruinous national effects.
Background to the Study

Economic Recession, Growth and Development

Economic recession is generally defined as "a significant decline in economic activity spread across the economy, lasting more than a few months, normally visible in real gross domestic product (RGDP), real income, employment, industrial production and wholesale-retail sales". More specifically, economic recession is defined as when businesses cease to expand, the GDP diminishes for two consecutive quarters, the rate of unemployment rises and housing prices decline. Combined factors may cause an economy to fall into a recession but the major reason for a recession is said to be inflation. Inflation refers to a general rise in the prices of goods and services over a period of time. As the rate of inflation increases, the quantity of goods and services that can be purchased with the same amount of money reduces. A variety of reasons including increased costs of production, higher energy costs and national debt are known to trigger inflation. In an inflationary environment, people tend to “cut their coat according to their cloth” in Nigerian parlance. Hence, overall spending especially leisure spending reduces and people begin to save more. But as individuals and businesses curtail expenditures in an effort to trim costs, this causes GDP to decline. The rate of unemployment may then rise because organizations lay off workers to cut costs.

On the other hand, the term economic development is often misunderstood and many times it is confused with the concept of economic growth. To further confuse the issue, there is no one roadmap for economic development that will discharge the needs of all constituencies as the success of any roadmap to economic development is often case specific. This is because the concept of development is now generally accepted as both a quantitative and qualitative measure with inherent challenges in defining and/or quantifying it, giving rise to a multitude of definitions, theories, interpretations and meanings attached to the idea of development and no consensus in sight (Ako 2016).

Hence, according to popular definitions, “Development is a multi dimensional process involving changes in social structures, popular attitudes, and national institutions, as well as the acceleration of economic growth, the reduction of inequality, and the eradication of poverty” (Todaro and Smith 2012). Even the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) has its own definition whereby it considers human development to be “about expanding the choices people have to lead lives that they value”. UNDP also defines sustainable development as “development that is likely to achieve lasting satisfaction of human needs and improvement of the quality of life” (UNDP 2007, 2012, 2015).
Statement of the Problem
Nigeria’s economic growth averaged about 6.0 percent peaking at about 6.8 percent in 2014 and was expected to average 5.7 percent over the 2015 through 2017 period (National Bureau of Statistics -NBS, 2011, 2015). However, during the same period, the country's poverty rate averaged 62 percent with 30 percent of the population in severe poverty (UNDP_HDR 2015) and Nigeria is categorized as one of the poorest countries in the world. Furthermore, despite quite recent statistics rating the country’s economy as the largest in Africa and the 26th largest in the world (NBS, 2014), Nigeria in 2015 had a Human Development Index (HDI) of 0.51 ranking 152 out of 188 countries (UNDP_HDR 2015). Clearly Nigeria’s economic growth did not yield prosperity. To worsen matters, rather than its projected growth of about 5.7 percent over the 2015 through 2017 period, the NBS declared Nigeria officially in a recession at the beginning of 2016 and Nigeria’s touted position as Africa’s largest economy became short-lived. Nigeria thus became a prime example of the many countries in our recent history that have achieved economic growth, while the well-being of a majority of their people did not improve.

The main objective of this paper is to review the current economic recession in Nigeria and examine the root causes in the light of concurrent expensive democracy. Following this introduction, Section Two presents some pertinent literature review. Section three discusses the root causes of the recession while Section Four concludes with some policy recommendations.

Citizen Review of the Nigerian Recession
A current World Bank Country Survey FY 2016 Report for Nigeria highlights how Nigerians now regard general issues facing Nigeria. In this report, 56% of respondents indicated that Nigeria was headed in the right direction compared to 42% of respondents (mostly private sector, media and academia) three years ago in the FY 2013 Country Survey. Also, 16% of the respondents indicated that Nigeria was headed in the wrong direction in the FY 2016 Country Survey compared to 36% of respondents (mostly civil servants, trade unions and NGOs/CBOs) in the FY 2013 Country Survey while 28% of respondents were not sure where Nigeria was headed in the FY 2016 Country Survey compared to 23% of respondents (including the National Assembly and World Bank staff) in the FY 2013 Country Survey. In general therefore, significantly more Nigerians (33%) considered the country was headed in the right direction in 2016 but there was also a 22% increase in the number of people not sure where Nigeria was headed with the onset of the biting recession.
Also, Nigerians ranked their development priorities in the FY 2016 Report to be job creation/employment (44%) followed by education (32%) and energy (29%) whereas the priorities in the FY 2013 Report had education (46%), anti-corruption (26%) and both rural development and job creation/employment tying at 24% while the priorities in the FY 2007 Report had (economic growth (42%) followed by poverty reduction (27%) and eradicating corruption (27%). Job creation/employment which was number three on the FY 2013 priority list has moved to the top position while education moved down to the second position and energy which was number six in the previous priority list is now third priority. On the current FY 2016 priority list, Anti-corruption is now number nine while economic growth is a distant number ten priority. These reports show that Nigerians have consistently ranked job creation/employment a high priority in the past six years. It is also instructive that in the midst of the harsh recession in 2016, Nigerians re-ordered their priorities rightly; having learnt the bitter truth by experience that economic growth is not synonymous with development; especially when such celebrated growth turns out to be spurious. Furthermore, whilst respondents in the FY 2007 Country Survey indicated that poverty reduction in Nigeria would be best tackled by agricultural development (47%), increasing employment (39%), and reducing corruption (36%), in the FY 2013 Country Survey, respondents indicated job creation/employment (36%), education (35%) and economic growth (31%) would most reduce poverty. The FY 2016 Country Report indicates the factors which would most reduce poverty in Nigeria are job creation/employment (45%), agricultural development and economic growth jointly at 36% as well as education (33%). This World Bank (2016) report indicates that job creation/employment is currently most important to Nigerians and also that job creation/employment would be the best remedy for endemic poverty. The report could also imply Nigerians currently perceive agricultural development and economic growth to be synonymous given their joint ranking of 36%. Also, going by the FY 2016 report, Nigerians consider agricultural development and economic growth to be the second best remedy for endemic poverty after job creation/employment.

In addition, a whopping 83% of respondents consider the gap between the rich and poor in Nigeria a very big problem in 2016. This is in line with the findings of a study which showed for instance that the Nigerian national legislature expenditure (National Assembly consumption) was 67.62% of total resources required to eliminate absolute poverty in 2003-04 and 124.81% in 2009-2010. A single member of the Nigerian legislature on average expended ₦118.17 millions in 2003-04 and ₦533.58
millions in 2009-2010 whereas per capita household consumption expenditure for the same period was a paltry \( \text{₦}4,029.70 \) and \( \text{₦}7,212.30 \) respectively (Ako 2017). Ako’s 2017 study also showed that a single member of the Nigerian legislature on average expended \( \text{₦}10 \) millions monthly in 2003-04 and \( \text{₦}44 \) millions monthly in 2009-2010 whereas monthly food poverty line was a paltry \( \text{₦}1,694.61 \) and \( \text{₦}3,245.63 \); monthly absolute poverty line a paltry \( \text{₦}2,403.06 \) and \( \text{₦}4,675.67 \) for the same period respectively. Furthermore, the number of the extreme poor increased by 26 % while the number of food poor increased by 24 % at a time each member of the national legislature was expending \( \text{₦}44 \) millions monthly. On the whole, each poor Nigerian required only 0.01% of resources consumed by each member of the Nigerian legislature in 2003-04 and only 0.004 % in 2009-2010. Thus, the gap between the rich and poor in Nigeria has been greatly exacerbated with the onset of current democracy.

**Incubating the recession in Nigeria**

**Costs of production**

The costs of production refer to the various costs associated with manufacturing or acquiring goods and services; including explicit costs for raw materials, labor and general overhead as well as implicit opportunity costs of the factors of production and services. Of the explicit costs, the costs of raw materials have been significantly affected negatively by the vagaries of supply and demand and the convoluted government policies on exchange rates in the past fifteen years; since advent of the current democratic dispensation. Similarly affected negatively are the general overhead costs, all of which have led to a perpetuating cycle of:

1. Contraction in output of goods and services (i.e. falling supply),
2. Increased costs of produced goods and services,
3. Contraction in demand for goods and services (i.e. falling demand) which inevitably lead to further,
4. Contraction in output of goods and services (i.e. falling supply).

The spiraling costs of production have been attributed to the worsening exchange rates in the past fifteen years. The average exchange rates reported by the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) indicate a steady depreciation of the Naira in the past fifteen years (Figure 1) although some appreciation of the naira was briefly recorded for 2008. Figure 2 shows some threshold in the exchange rate of the naira was recorded between 2009 and 2014.
There is a common saying that “actions speak louder than words”. All available evidence squarely indicts the CBN for being largely responsible for the bastardization of the naira (and hence the Nigerian economy) through inappropriate and failed policies in the past fifteen years. For instance, within the past fifteen years, the CBN decided that “BIG” is beautiful while “SMALL” is undesirable and came up with policies that willy-nilly forced existing banks to merge in the name of “BANK CONSOLIDATION”. This was clearly a globalist agenda but globalization is also recognized to have unpleasant costs.

**Fig 1: Average Exchange Rates -1995-2015**

![Average Exchange Rates -1995-2015](image1)

**Fig 2: Average Exchange Rates**

![Average Exchange Rates](image2)
This Bank Consolidation policy created conglomerates in the banking sector in the name of universal banking whereby Nigerian banks effectively became traders (importers and exporters), insurers, registrars, brokers; bureau de changes (BDC) operators etc. Smaller banks that would ordinarily cater to smaller businesses were thus wiped out in Nigeria by CBN fiat. Even though in the so called developed world, one can still find full-fledged “small” banks that are not national but localized today, Nigeria’s CBN would have none of that for Nigeria from 2004. It is very doubtful the CBN was interested in growing Nigeria from its bedrock of small businesses since the banking conglomerates it created could only cater to their “peers” the multinational companies operating with branches in Nigeria. By the time the dust settled on the bank consolidation agenda, lending to production was substantially divorced from banking functions in Nigeria. To worsen the matter, at about the same time of the bank consolidation saga, the same CBN introduced the policy of selling foreign exchange directly to bureau de changes (BDC) in Nigeria. This was contrary to the very idea of bureau de changes and clearly an anti-production but pro-travelers policy. It was not the Nigerian economy that gained by this CBN policy but private individuals.

Also about the same time since 2004, the CBN introduced a curious item in the reported Federal Government expenditure accounts simply named “Transfers”. This particular “Transfers” has no explanatory notes unlike the immediately preceding accounts for recurrent and capital expenditures which themselves also contain expenditure items called “other transfers” in their explanatory notes. It is instructive that this unexplained/special “Transfers” rose from being 2.9% of actual total government expenditure (executive and legislature) in 2004 when it was introduced to peak at 9.6% in 2011 but was reported to be 6.6% in 2015 (see Table 3). It is equally instructive that the Systemic Leakages in the Nigerian economy amply represented by the Net Errors and Omissions (NEO) captured yearly in Nigeria’s Balance of Payments (BOP) received a significant boost in 2004 and continued to grow astronomically to the extent Nigeria recorded about $27 Billion income (since Nigeria was not borrowing then) as “lost” or unaccounted for in 2009 and again in 2013 (see NEO in Table 2).

Apparently related to the huge income lost yearly by Nigeria, the introduction and take off point of CBN’s mysterious “Transfers” mentioned above for 2014 was also the take off point of the astronomical increases in incomes unaccounted for in Nigeria’s BOP (see Table 2 & Figure3). As a matter of fact, as Nigeria continued to lose tens of billions of dollars yearly to unscrupulous persons, the loss was matched by growth in
the mysterious “Transfers” to the extent the mysterious “Transfers” out-grew real gross domestic product (RGDP) by 2011 and continued to maintain this superior growth up till the official declaration of economic recession in Nigeria (see Table 2 & Figure3). It is also noteworthy that in that same 2004, miscellaneous loans as a percentage of total loans of commercial banks shot up to 63% and continued to rise peaking at 75% of total loans in 2007 (see Table 1). These miscellaneous loans were established to belong to a network of crowding out channels and round tripping affecting economic growth in Nigeria which help explain the current economic recession (Ako 2017).

Table 1: Miscellaneous Loans & Total Loans

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEARS</th>
<th>TLoans</th>
<th>MiscL</th>
<th>MiscL%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>1519.2</td>
<td>957</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>1976.7</td>
<td>1377.2</td>
<td>69.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>2524.3</td>
<td>1724.9</td>
<td>68.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>4813.5</td>
<td>3619.1</td>
<td>75.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>7799.4</td>
<td>2622.1</td>
<td>33.62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: CBN Annual Statistical Bulletin

Table 2: Systemic Leakages & Growth

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEARS</th>
<th>NEO</th>
<th>RGDP</th>
<th>GRW%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
<td>22,449.40</td>
<td>0.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>23,688.30</td>
<td>5.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>-0.06</td>
<td>25,267.50</td>
<td>6.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>25,957.70</td>
<td>14.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>31,709.40</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>-0.13</td>
<td>33,020.50</td>
<td>10.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>-0.18</td>
<td>37,474.90</td>
<td>7.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>-0.17</td>
<td>39,995.30</td>
<td>6.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>-0.14</td>
<td>42,922.40</td>
<td>7.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>-0.20</td>
<td>46,012.50</td>
<td>7.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>-0.26</td>
<td>49,856.10</td>
<td>8.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>-0.15</td>
<td>54,612.30</td>
<td>9.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>-0.53</td>
<td>57,511.00</td>
<td>5.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>-0.51</td>
<td>59,929.90</td>
<td>4.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>-0.26</td>
<td>63,218.70</td>
<td>5.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>-0.13</td>
<td>67,152.80</td>
<td>6.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>-16.5</td>
<td>69,023.90</td>
<td>2.79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: CBN Annual Statistical Bulletin

Table 3: Unexplained “Transfers”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>TGovernment</th>
<th>Transfers</th>
<th>TRF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>953.7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>709.6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>1037.8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>1034.4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>1248.4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>1457.6</td>
<td>42.20</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>1854.4</td>
<td>78.90</td>
<td>4.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>1973.5</td>
<td>95.41</td>
<td>4.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>2513.7</td>
<td>102.30</td>
<td>4.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>3309.5</td>
<td>162.57</td>
<td>4.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>3,559.40</td>
<td>172.22</td>
<td>4.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>4344.3</td>
<td>201.32</td>
<td>4.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>4992.1</td>
<td>479.00</td>
<td>9.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>4756.1</td>
<td>405.40</td>
<td>8.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>5,336.00</td>
<td>387.87</td>
<td>7.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>4728.8</td>
<td>377.37</td>
<td>7.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>5395.56</td>
<td>339.55</td>
<td>6.59</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: CBN Annual Statistical Bulletin Volume 26
Thus, from every indication, 2004 was the year of the planting of the recession seeds and the continued watering and even fertilizing of such seeds by successive administrations is largely responsible for Nigeria’s current recession. The CBN has no choice but to now admit failure of some monetary and fiscal policies such as the $66b of Nigeria’s foreign reserves it frittered away at an average of about $6 billion per annum funding BDCs between 2005 -2016 (Clara Nwachukwu, The Guardian Newspaper 19 September 2016). The CBN governors (past and present) ought to accept substantial responsibility for plunging Nigeria into avoidable recession with detrimental policies and to refrain from their current “holier than thou” posturing and diversion of blaming the recession on “global crisis in the sense that we’ve seen commodity prices dropping, we’ve seen geopolitical tensions all around the world,” (Clara Nwachukwu, The Guardian Newspaper 19 September 2016).

Related to these lapses is the CBN’s laxity in banking supervision. For instance, there are several Local Government Areas in Nigeria such as Kwande Local Government Area (LGA) of Benue State that have been without any bank for over twenty years. The citizens of Kwande LGA are forced to travel two LGAs away for banking business when forced to do so by CBN’s frenzied drive for a cashless society in Nigeria; because even the neighboring LGA (Oshongo) has no bank located there. The additional economic costs of production and the needless wasting of lives on dilapidated roads the people of Kwande LGA and others in similar situation all over Nigeria have to bear are better imagined. What is more, there is even not a single automated teller machine (ATM) point in these affected LGAs. This is despite the fact many banks are located in the State Capitals and regularly receive the monthly revenue allocations of the affected
LGAs from the Federation Accounts and yet the banks have no presence in the LGAs whose accounts they maintain and from whence the LGA staff salaries are paid through other staff bank accounts. Yet, the CBN “banking supervision” in obvious collusion with such “fraudulent” banks has let them be for decades. This gross and unacceptable negligence of the CBN and its failures in banking supervision have also given rise to collusions between the “fraudulent” banks and unsavory characters who set up “shylock schemes” to fleece the people in the affected LGAs whereby money can be obtained by the “bankless” and hapless citizens via point-of-sale (POS) machines at exorbitant “opportunity costs” if it is not convenient to travel two LGAs away to the nearest bank. Again the economic costs of production involved and their multiplier effects nationally are better imagined.

It is highly inconceivable that there are only 774 LGAs in Nigeria, yet the CBN’s “banking supervision” has failed to ensure each LGA is served banking facilities for more than twenty years despite the CBN’s copious demonstrations of overzealousness in wanting to join the global financial rat race; even at the cost of Nigeria’s economic development. This is but one unsavory practical example of the many economic losses in Nigeria over a long time due to policy failures and dereliction of duty that has accumulated to result in the current economic recession. The ineptitude of the CBN’s directorate of banking supervision is so “gross” that Dr. Olisa Agbakoba - former president of the Nigeria Bar Association (NBA) has recommended the UK model of the Bank of England for Nigeria to create a special bank supervision agency whose only job will be prudential bank regulation like the Prudential Regulatory Authority in UK. Dr. Agbakoba also called for a law compelling banks to do banking work, not trading. (The Sun Newspaper 11 September 2016). This paper is in complete support of Dr. Agbakoba’s call.

Energy Costs

Energy costs are considered here in terms of electricity and petroleum costs. In this respect, electricity and petroleum are items that are critical to economic development in Nigeria. However, companies in Nigeria face severe challenges in accessing reliable energy, most especially electricity.

In this respect, a study published by the World Bank on the investment climate in Nigeria after a survey of 3,000 Nigerian businesses in 26 States indicate the biggest challenge to be unreliable power supply. Businesses reported that they experienced average power outages of 8 hours per day. Hence, 88% of retail and manufacturing
businesses reported owning private generators and the manufacturing businesses also reported approximately 69% of their total electricity usage was produced by private generators. The businesses further reported expenses incurred running their private generators cost the equivalent of more than 4% of sales. This World Bank study estimates only 48% of Nigerians have access to electricity and concludes Access to electricity in Nigeria remains low and the country is unable to produce enough electricity to meet demand (World Bank 2011). Another study similarly indicate fully 90% of exporters identified electricity as a major or very severe constraint, and 80% identified it as the single most important constraint they face.

Such studies further amplify the regular lamentations of the Manufacturers Association of Nigeria (MAN) that power alone gulp 40 per cent of production cost of its members. To compound the situation, there have been frequent huge increases in electricity tariffs in the past ten years especially within the past five years, whereby electricity tariffs have been increased sometimes 2-3 times within a year without any improvement in electricity supply. The pump price of petrol and diesel have equally followed similar trend.

Decrying such trend, The Guardian Newspaper in an editorial (14 January 2016) stated “It is immoral for government to embark on frequent increase in electricity tariff without ensuring a corresponding increase in power supply. Asking people to pay more for services hardly rendered is fraudulent.” Considering such frequent hikes in prices further, the paper recommends government “should take cognizance of the social and economic realities in Nigeria” and not blindly “adopt the model used for such in developed industrialized economies”. The Newspaper firmly believes government “ought to subsidize electricity for now to grow the economy, create jobs and sustain development before passing the cost on to consumers”. This paper is also in complete agreement.

**National Debt**

Using the barometer of external debt stock, the national debt which was minimized by 2006 started creeping back up in 2007 and stood at $10.7 Billion at the end of 2015 (see Figure 4). However, the status of this factor is not considered a significant contributor to the current recession in Nigeria.
Inflation refers to the change in prices of goods and services over a period of time. It is measured as a rate; being the percentage difference between the consumer price index (CPI) of one month in a preceding year over the CPI of the same month in the current year. The CPI itself measures the average change in cost of acquiring a basket of goods and services over time.

Copious literature exist that establish direct relationship between inflation rate and price hikes (energy etc) as well as currency depreciation (Arinze (2011), Nwosu (2009), Bobai F. D. (2012) etc) all of which impact negatively on production costs and thereby produce the adverse effects discussed above. Figures 5-6 display inflationary
trends in Nigeria in the past twenty years which show mixed performance with frequent swings in and out of single digits.

However, since the onset of the recession in first quarter (Q1) of 2016, both the annual inflation and the month-on-month inflation have been on the increase and remain in double digits. Figure 6 shows straight monthly increases for the last twelve months since the onset of the recession indicating presence of stagflation. Hence, available evidence indicate higher energy costs, a constantly depreciated naira and increased costs of goods and services are responsible for triggering the galloping inflation in Nigeria.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Conclusions

Whereas economic development is more applicable to measure improvement and quality of life in developing nations, economic growth is a more pertinent metric for progress in developed countries. The measure of economic growth is widely used in all countries because growth is often considered a necessary condition for development. However, economic growth is a necessary but not sufficient condition of economic development and focusing on the growth statistics alone leads to a false sense of security. Economic growth can indeed take place without development and Nigeria is a modern day example as indicated by current recession.

Moreover, it has become fashionable for all and sundry to profess the fall in global oil prices since 2014 is the principal cause of Nigeria’s current recession but such assertion is not factual. Empirical evidence indicate the seeds for Nigeria's current recession
were planted in 2004 and “faithfully” watered subsequently by continuous gross mismanagement of national resources and the CBN bears significant responsibility for Nigeria’s current recession.

Recommendations
We strongly identify with the earlier recommendations of Dr. Olisa Agbakoba and urge the Nigerian Law Reform Commission to consider a review of the extant banking laws as well as prevailing exchange regulations as part of its routine responsibilities. Specifically, we urge the Law Reform Commission in their relevant law reviews to make provisions for Prudential Regulatory Authority type agency for Nigeria, make provisions to apply limits on percentage of profits made by multinationals that are repatriated out of Nigeria after the multinationals had fully repatriated their initial investments i.e. provide for the percentage of “made–in-Nigeria profits” that MUST be retained for re-investment in Nigeria. We recommend a minimum retained profit of 50% that must not be repatriated by multinationals.

We also recommend urgent review of the excess autonomy granted the CBN by the last amendment of the CBN Act. For the umpteenth time, the CBN is not privately owned like the Federal Reserve in USA but it is a Federal Government (public) institution and the CBN governor must not be allowed by law to practically run the CBN like a private institution; when the Funds of CBN are actually public funds and belong to the people. A situation whereby a CBN governor is in a position to pursue policies capable of wrecking the economy without checks all in the name of autonomy is not in the best interest of Nigeria. It appears the current provisions for autonomy leaves the CBN itself with no effective supervisor or check and balances; which inadvertently grant the CBN governors’ undue leeway to play kingpins with the national hegemony by making the good of the economy insubordinate to their personal pet projects and/or self interests to ruinous national effects.
References


The Cable, (2016). https://www.thecable.ng/buhari-we-stopped-selling-forex-to-bdcs-because-cbn-directors-were-shortchaging-the-govt


AN EMPIRICAL ASSESSMENT OF ECONOMIC RECESSION IN NIGERIA AND CONTRIBUTIONS OF TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY IN ECONOMIC RECOVERY AND GROWTH

Murtala Mohammed Alamai & Usman Yusuf Dutse

Introduction

Economies worldwide pass through triggers of fluctuations that sometimes lead to negative consequences of going into recession due to reliance on a single source of earnings like in the case of Nigeria. The tourism and hospitality industry is an increasingly vital part of the Nigerian economy. Globally, tourism brings money to cities and countries through the creation of different jobs, provision of employment and generating of revenue for the local residents which drastically benefit and improve the destination. As a developing nation under a recessed economy, Nigeria is realizing the profits available from the tourism and hospitality industry. The country experienced its worst economic performance in 25 years, recording -1.5% GDP growths. This was largely due to low oil prices, low oil output due to militant attacks on oil infrastructure, and tight monetary liquidity. The effects of this recession have been felt in many sectors, including the hotel and travel sectors. The study thus employed a desk study approach where it analysed existing...
data of tourism inflow and receipts by the country. The findings noticed a near steady growth of the industry with increased investment and a large local population that desires travel for different reasons thus stimulating economic activities and exchanges and creating and sustaining employment and income as well as revenue for government. It is thus recommended that all states of the country should look inwards and develop their tourism potentials in which they have comparative advantage. There should be commitment and consistency in government policy implementations.

**Background to the Study**
The Nigerian economy combines a heritage of natural (human and physical) resources and the consequences (benefits and burdens) of decisions executed at various levels in both the distant and recent past. While the economy has witnessed a decline in many macro indices, reflecting largely the inability of the country to overcome its most pertinent challenges, there remain significant opportunity for investment and growth. For the country to realize its immense possibilities, however, certain fundamental shifts in the structure and orientation of the economy have critical (Business day 2017)

Equally, with Global developments resulting in the precipitous fall in oil prices is impinging greatly on Nigeria’s key macroeconomic variables as envisaged by African development bank (ADB 2015), the economy has been on a slow track for the first half 2015 with around 3.14% real gross domestic product (GDP) growth and 4% projection for the year while inflation is trending upwards, inching towards double digit. In addition, African development bank report (ADB 2017) shows that the Nigerian economy continues to face serious macroeconomic challenges and is in a recession for the first time in decades where GDP growth for 2016 was estimated at -1.5%, with a moderate recovery expected in 2017 which was attributed to a series of shocks, including the continued decline in oil prices, foreign exchange shortages, disruptions in fuel supply and sharp reduction in oil production, power shortages, and insecurity in some parts of the country, as well as low capital budget execution rate (51%).

Though the world travel and tourism council (WTTC 2017) sees Travel & Tourism as an important alternative economic activity for most countries around the world being that it has proved to be a strong and resilient economic activity contributing to economic recovery of nations through generation of billions of dollars in income while also stimulating job creation for destinations across the globe (UNWTO 2015). Apart from its direct economic impact, the industry has significant indirect and induced impacts.
Travel has played a very important role in fulfilling the basic needs of human beings. Now-a-days Travel and Tourism has acquired the status of an industry. It is a dynamic and smokeless industry, not a static one. As a service sector, it can be used to enhance international understanding, communal harmony, global peace and cultural exchange. Travelling for pleasure is tourism. (Nigam and Srivastava 2011) This smokeless industry's vast capacity to support the economy, generate employment opportunities and many other unique features makes it stand out from other industries. Countries all over the world have acknowledged the importance of tourism and its scope in the development of a nation. Tourism offers unlimited opportunities in career development. (Nigam and Srivastava 2011)

In view of that, Kolawole (2017) thus advanced that Nigeria as a country needs to re-evaluate its sheer reliance on crude oil. Matter-of-factly, the government must have learnt a great lesson from the recession dependency on one major source of income is bad for a growing economy like ours with a population that grows on an average of 2.3% yearly. We are yet to develop another sector to have little parity in terms of revenue being generate. Because according to Nigam and Srivastava (2011) economically this aspect plays a huge role in domestic market economy where lots of people work in tourist firms that is often their only source of income. What is more, there are some countries - like Malta and Kenya for example where tourism is basis of all its revenue therefore if prices are inflated it is a huge drawback for natives.

**Statement of the Problem**

The economy in Nigeria has been steadily declining from 2015 due to fall in prices of the country's major source of revenue as such there is a clamor for diversification of sources and income in order to meet up with developmental challenges and improve populace standards of living. Tourism easily comes to mind as a viable sector being an all-encompassing industry with lots of multipliers effects cutting across other industries like agriculture, aviation, construction etc. and its environmental impacts of preservation sustainability image building and pride. These potentials are yet to be properly and significantly exploited for the benefits of the citizens and the economy. The government needs to march words with actions in order to achieve the well-orchestrated diversification policy for a stable economy.

**Objective of the Study**

The objective of the study is to assess and show the economic potentials of tourism and hospitality industry in Nigeria. To highlights the urgent need of upturning the industry
to compliment the oil sector towards achieving the diversification policy to overcome economic recession the country is facing. These is achievable because the country is endowed with diverse tourist attractions, a huge domestic tourist market, an upcoming middle class that can possibly reinvigorate domestic tourism with unique cultural settings capable of enticing foreign tourists.

**Literature Review**

**Economy and Recession Concepts**

A recession is an economic crisis in the business cycle contraction, which results in a general slowdown in economic activities in two or more quarters (6 months and above). Macroeconomic indicators get worse showing that if there is no appropriate policy response, the economy may slip further into a depression (Agri et al 2016). The Gross Domestic Product (GDP), investment and consumption spending, savings rate, imports and exports, capacity utilization, household income, trade, capital flows, business profits and inflation decline, while indebtedness, illiquidity, bankruptcies and the unemployment rates rise. Economic recession is also a negative economic growth for two consecutive quarters. The National Bureau of Economic Research (NBER 2016), defines recession as "a significant decline in economic activity spread across the macro economy, lasting more than a few months, normally visible in real gross domestic product (RGDP), real income, employment, industrial production and wholesale-retail sales". Usually, recession may be triggered by financial crisis and or credit crunch, as well as demand and supply side shocks, (Kamar, 2012).

In addition, (Agri et al 2016) observed that in recession, there is usually a decline in some macroeconomic indicators such as GDP, employment, investment spending, capacity utilization, household income, business income, and inflation, with the attendant increase in the rate of unemployment, (CBN, 2012). Chingwuo and Blewit, (2012) postulated that economic recession, financial crisis and climate change problems combined to make life even more hard for a lot of working class people and their families. While Mailafia, (2016) added that economic recession does not allow income growth and increases the number of persons on low pay, as well as increasing unemployment and underemployment. In a study by Bauer, (2009), he observed that economic recession and the global financial crisis have inter-linkages with poverty incidence in developing countries. Equally Oyesiku (2009) in Agri et al (2016) argued that economic recession does not just spontaneously happen, it is being triggered by certain factors amongst which are inflation, loss of consumer confidence, excess supply over demand, excess demand over supply, and global economic crisis.
Equaly, Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN 2012) advanced that recession can be caused by two broad factors: internal (endogenous) and external (exogenous). The former is usually as a result of conflict of ideas, misapplication of economic theory and regulatory negligence or policy inconsistency while the later has to do with factors that are exogenous to the economy over which policy makers have little or no control. Factors like natural disaster, climate change, revolution and wars. An agricultural economy could face crop failure resulting in general economic slowdown. Also, a mono- economy could suffer recession from international price shock for its product. The neoclassical economists are of the view that state interference in the market, labour union, monopolies and technological shocks are external causes of recession.

**Effects of Recession**

CBN (2012) states that recession causes the followings on the state and nation

**Business:** when household incomes are cut as a result of economic slowdown, they reduce their demand for goods and services. As a result of low demand from households, firms reduce their production of such goods and services in order to cut cost and profit will decline. As a consequence of production fall, workers would be laid off, there will be no buying of new equipment, no funding for research and development, no new product rollouts and general business activities would also fall. Which leads to

i. Falling stocks and dwindling dividends
ii. Credit default and bankruptcy
iii. Product quality compromise.

**Financial Markets:** The other sector that usually takes the heat during recession is the financial markets. Recession will lead to general fall in interest rate, crash of stock prices and rise in prices of some commodities (precious metal). Regulators usually lower interest rate in order to stimulate borrowing for investment that would lead to economic activities and growth.

**Unemployment:** Recession has a devastating impact on employment worldwide. According to the International Labour Organization (ILO), at least 20 million jobs were lost by the end of 2009 due to the impact of the GFC, mostly in construction, real estate, financial services, and the auto sector, bringing the world unemployment above 200 million for the first time.
Social: Recession affects social life in some respects, from tourism to certain consumption of household. According to Zagat’s (2009), U.S. Hotels, Resorts & Spas survey, business travel has decreased in the past year as a result of the recession. Thirty per cent (30%) of travelers surveyed stated they travelled less for business today while only 21 per cent stated that they travelled more. Reasons for the decline in business travel include company travel policy changes, dwindled personal economic fortune, uncertainties and high airline prices. Hotels were responding to the downturn by dropping rates, ramping up promotions and negotiating deals for both business travelers and tourists.

According to the World Tourism Organization (2008), international travel suffered a strong slowdown beginning in June 2008, and this declining trend intensified during 2009. This resulted in a reduction from 922 million international tourist arrivals in 2008 to 880 million visitors in 2009, representing a worldwide decline of 4 per cent, and an estimated 6 per cent decline in international tourism receipts.

Politics: The recession led to electoral misfortune, though democratic institutions continue to exist. In the U.S. for instance, the Republican lost the 2008 elections partly as a result of the GFC that started in 2007. The GFC was an offshoot of some of the policies of the Republican government under President George W. Bush. Business Week in March 2009 stated that global political instability was rising fast due to the global financial crisis, creating new challenges that needed managing. The Associated Press reported in March 2009 that “the United States Director of National Intelligence Dennis Blair has said the economic weakness could lead to political instability in many developing nations.” Even some developed countries experienced political instability.

There were several civil unrests in Greece as a result of some conditions set by the trio of the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the European Commission (EC) and European Central Bank (ECB) to bailout the country from sovereign default. Greece found itself in the condition as a result of debt overhang that resulted inits sovereign default in 2012. The GFC and recession worsen the debt crisis of Greece, resulting in many failed elections.

In January 2009, the government of Iceland was forced to call early elections two years ahead, after the people of Iceland staged mass protests and clashed with the police due to the government’s handling of the economy. Hundreds of thousands protested in France against President Sarkozy’s economic policies, and his eventually lost in his re-
election bid in 2012 to the socialist candidate, François Hollande, who won with 51 per cent of total votes cast.

**Global Recession trends and impacts on Tourism**

Travel & Tourism business employ an estimated 100 million people worldwide. Studies show that job creation in tourism is one-and-a-half times faster than any other industrial sector. International and domestic tourism combine to generate up to 10% of the World’s Gross Domestic Product (International Labour Organisation ILO 2010). As one of the largest and fastest growing industry, the contribution of tourism to economic activity globally is estimated 5%. It’s a key driver with the effects on employment, export revenues, GDP etc. While its ratio in employment tends (direct-indirect) is 6-7% worldwide; tourism as an export category, ranks four after fuels, chemicals and automotive products. Tourism exports account 6% of overall exports of goods and services (Mehmet, Sarıa, Selahattin and Halisc 2011). Furthermore, Mehmet et al (2011) argued that 2008 Global Economic Crisis, which arisen as a financial crisis on the estate market of USA and turned into an economic crisis affecting all over the world in a short period, is thought as one of the most destructive economic crisis in the post-World War II. Period (IMF 2009) 2008 Crisis made significant effects nearly on all sectors beside tourism, too. International tourism receipts reached $852 billion corresponding to a decrease in real terms of 5.7% on 2008, while tourist arrivals fall down 4.2% globally in 2009 (United Nations world tourism organisation UNWTO 2010a). It’s satisfying that, the number of international tourist arrivals belonging to the first 8 months of 2010, exceeded the record achieved in the same period of 2008, pre-crisis term (UNWTO 2010b).

Also, the rapid progress of tourism as an industry at this century has shown itself once more beyond crisis, in the recession period. The sector hit very hard globally by 2008 crisis but it recovered itself too fast at 2010. According to (UNWTO 2010b), after the decline in 2009, international tourist arrivals have gone up by %7 to 935 million in 2010.

**Overview of trends in Nigeria’s Economic Recession**

The Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN 2012) states that in the 21st century, there was the global financial crisis (GFC), which started in 2007, caused principally by the housing bubble in the US that peaked in 2006. The complex interplay of policies that encouraged home ownership, providing easier access to loans for (lending) borrowers, overvaluation of bundled sub-prime mortgages based on the expectation that housing
prices would continue to escalate triggered the crisis. Also, questionable trading practices on behalf of both buyers and sellers, compensation structures that prioritized short-term deal flow over long-term value creation and a lack of adequate capital holdings from banks and insurance companies to back the financial commitments, were other reasons for the crisis.

Equally National Bureau of statistics (2013) stated that the Nigerian economy faced numerous challenges which impacted overall economic activity in 2012. Declines in the real growth rates of economic activity were experienced in both the oil and non-oil sectors. Oil production was less than expected due to security challenges, and floods which occurred in the latter part of the year, while the non-oil sector (notably Agriculture, Wholesale & Retail Trade) was mostly affected by the floods and weaker consumer demand. Also, On the other hand, non-oil sector was affected by the incidence of flooding, as well as muted consumer demand for the most part of the year, as seen in the Wholesale and Retail Trade, Telecommunication and Post sectors while infrastructure challenges still hampered Manufacturing. However, the Manufacturing sector did record a slight uptick in the second quarter as a result of positive developments in the power sector. Real Estate, as well as Building and Construction sectors also performed better than anticipated. Table 1 and Figure 1 provide sectoral growth rates for 2011 and 2012

Table 1: Sectoral growth summary for 2011 and 2012

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sectoral Growth</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>2012</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Q1</td>
<td>Q2</td>
<td>Q3</td>
<td>Q4</td>
<td>Q1</td>
<td>Q2</td>
<td>Q3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>5.31</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>5.76</td>
<td>5.68</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>3.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solid Mineral</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>11.85</td>
<td>12.43</td>
<td>12.85</td>
<td>11.55</td>
<td>11.72</td>
<td>12.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crude Petroleum&amp; Natural Gas</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>-0.28</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>-2.32</td>
<td>-0.73</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>6.13</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>7.84</td>
<td>7.69</td>
<td>5.17</td>
<td>7.59</td>
<td>7.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telecommunication &amp; Post</td>
<td>32.14</td>
<td>34.1</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>36.39</td>
<td>34.06</td>
<td>34.28</td>
<td>31.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance &amp; Insurance</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>4.94</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>5.01</td>
<td>4.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wholesale and Retail Trade</td>
<td>10.06</td>
<td>11.43</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>11.92</td>
<td>8.42</td>
<td>8.65</td>
<td>9.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building and Construction</td>
<td>13.19</td>
<td>11.98</td>
<td>10.88</td>
<td>12.09</td>
<td>13.28</td>
<td>12.73</td>
<td>11.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotel and Restaurants</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>12.39</td>
<td>11.96</td>
<td>12.01</td>
<td>11.45</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>12.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Real Estate</td>
<td>9.51</td>
<td>10.54</td>
<td>10.86</td>
<td>11.16</td>
<td>9.34</td>
<td>10.81</td>
<td>10.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business and Other Services</td>
<td>8.62</td>
<td>11.03</td>
<td>8.52</td>
<td>9.81</td>
<td>7.67</td>
<td>11.26</td>
<td>9.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other sectors</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>5.04</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>4.97</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>5.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Real Growth at Basic Prices</td>
<td>6.96</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>7.37</td>
<td>7.76</td>
<td>6.34</td>
<td>6.39</td>
<td>6.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non - Oil Growth</td>
<td>8.32</td>
<td>8.72</td>
<td>8.76</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>8.14</td>
<td>7.63</td>
<td>7.55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** National Bureau of Statistics (2013)
From the data in table 1 for 2012 indicates that Real GDP grew by 6.34 percent in the first quarter and 6.39 percent in the second quarter of 2012. Which shows that the rate of economic activity was slightly higher than the initial estimates of 6.17 percent and 6.28 percent respectively, as published in early 2012? Nevertheless, the revised growth rates were lower than those recorded in the corresponding quarters of 2011, that is 6.96 percent and 7.50 percent respectively. Therefore, the economy declined by 0.62 percentage points and 1.11 percentage points respectively in the first two quarters of the year compared to corresponding quarters in 2011.

Equally from the data in table 1, in the third Quarter of 2012, the economy grew at 6.48 percent, a decline of 0.89 percentage points from the 7.37 percent recorded in the third quarter of 2011. Which could be because of the oil sector recording a gradual uptick, the first time in four quarters, as crude oil production was recorded at 2.52 million barrels per day during the quarter, an increase from the 2.38 million barrels recorded in the third quarter of 2011. The non-oil sector recorded marginal relative declines in growth, as the sector recorded a 7.55 percent growth in the quarter as compared to 8.76 percent in the corresponding quarter of 2011.

Other reasons advanced by economic analysts Fritova Economics (2017) on the recession trends in Nigeria is a combination of excessive reliance on commodity exports to support government revenue (at both federal and sub-national levels) and the currency exchange rate, a concentrated export base, widespread youth unemployment, low levels of productivity especially in the non-oil sectors (agriculture, solid minerals, manufacturing, and services); high economic dependency ratio (with 43% of the population younger than 14) a weak and concentrated energy base, and an inefficient transport system. Where it was observed also that in the past 30 months preceding 2017, the rapid and largely sustained slump in commodity (especially crude oil) prices, and significant disruptions to both crude oil production and agricultural activity in sections of the country, have combined to unmask the soft underbellies of Africa's largest economy (Fritova Economics 2017). Where the country gradually sliding from a strong growth leader into a biting recession with three successive quarters of year-on-year GDP decline – one quarter more than two successive quarters that officially defines a recession. Effects of the recent slide on key economic indices is both visible and disturbing, with most macro indicators doing worse than the 5-year average.
Tourism and Hospitality in Nigeria's Economy

In an analysis of Nigeria’s strength and potentials, Kolawole (2017) believes the country has an advantage of population where it can sell tourism to just Nigerians (domestic tourism) because of the value proposition therefore, selling to foreign tourists (international) can be optional since we have the numbers, and the percentage of our population that has the purchasing power for tourism is above 30%, out of over 180 million. This is so because statistics from the world bank on tourism expenditure in Nigeria show an estimate of US$9.28 billion in 2012 making the country have a better record than the more established tourism economies in Africa like Egypt, Kenya and South Africa (World Bank 2015) though the country is a mono oil dependent economy earner. In view of these expenditures on tourism and hospitality sector of the country, Belinda (2016) in investigating room and hotel capacity, stated that the country has an estimated 7,145 hotels spread over 334 cities with different grading and classifications based on service offerings with about 7,000 international travellers arriving daily into the country making it the leading sub-Saharan Africa region in terms of receipts, arrivals and growth in the tourism sector (Adeola and Ezenwefor 2016).

Equally, the Industrial development corporation in their 2012 report of selected African countries see Nigeria’s hospitality industry expanding due to an influx of a large set of business and conference travellers to sub Saharan Africa, as well as an increasing domestic travel segment coupled with a string of new hotels of international standard, catering almost exclusively to business travellers located predominantly in Lagos, Abuja and Kano cities. O’Connor (2015) then summed it that Nigeria’s great potential for high end luxury properties, and the demand for such products is easily reciprocated and went on to say Baudin (2015) the head of Fairmont and Swiss hotel group said

“A lot of travellers from this country and region already associate with our brands within the FRHI portfolio [Fairmont, Raffles and Swiss hotel] throughout our [more than] 115 hotels worldwide. The key to entering this market is to overcome the risk of delays in construction and having the right partner.” The SVP sees Nigeria as “very active” in terms of hotel development”.

Similarly, Maduna and Ensor (2015) in their report of the accommodation and catering sector of Nigerian economy advanced that the hotel market has also helped in
the economy to expand with 6.3% in real terms in 2014, its best showing since 2010 and the number of available rooms increasing cumulatively to 24% from 2010 to 2014, and the highest annual increase of 4.8% in 2014. (Figure 1)

Figure 1. Number of Hotel rooms available in Nigeria

From figure 1, above, it will be observed that the number of rooms has been increasingly rising in the country from 2010 with 7.1 thousand rooms to about 12.5 thousand rooms in 2016 and a forecast in the next 2 years to about 22.5 thousand rooms which can be a good indication of the industry making an impact that can make the economy grow.

Methodology
The work investigates the potentials and contributions of hospitality and tourism industry towards revamping the economy of Nigeria in the era of recession. The study adopts secondary data bases research where existing data on the subject matter were used for the analysis because the data were readily available and inexpensive to get (Finn, Elliot-White and Walton, 2000). For the data analyses, descriptive method was adopted, were charts and graphs were used to present the data. Also, qualitative technique was used to further analyze and discuss the data.
Analysis of contributions of tourism and Hospitality industry to GDP in Nigeria

GDP generated by industries that deal directly with tourists, including hotels, travel agents, airlines and other passenger transport services, as well as the activities of restaurant and leisure industries that deal directly with tourists. Therefore, since travel & tourism is an important economic activity in most countries around the world being that it has direct economic impact and a significant indirect and induced impacts (WTTC 2017) The statistics of leisure travel spending in Nigeria (inbound and domestic) as shown by WTTC (2017) shows that it generated 54.1% of GDP in 2016 (NGN1,668.7bn) compared with 45.9% for business travel spending (NGN1,417.1bn) (Figure 2). Though Business travel spending is expected to grow by 1.9% in 2017 to NGN1,443.4bn, and rise by 3.9% pa to NGN2,111.8bn in 2027. While Leisure travel spending is expected to grow by 0.4% in 2017 to NGN1,675.8bn, and rise by 3.3% pa to NGN2,313.9bn in 2027.

Figure 2: Travel and Tourism contribution to Nigeria's GDP 2016

Source: WTTC Highlights (2017)

Figure 2 above statistics shows that spending within a country by that country's residents for both business and leisure trips is quite much and significant which includes spending on business travel within a country by residents and international visitors and spending on leisure travel within a country by residents and international visitors.
Equally when you look at domestic travel spending, it generated 93.2% of direct Travel & Tourism to the GDP in 2016 compared with 6.8% for visitor exports (i.e. foreign visitor spending or international tourism receipts) (Figure 3). Domestic travel spending is expected to grow by 1.4% in 2017 to NGN2,913.9bn, and rise by 3.7% pa to NGN4,183.3bn in 2027. Visitor exports are expected to fall by 2.8% in 2017 to NGN205.4bn, and rise by 1.7% pa to NGN242.4bn in 2027.

**Figure 3: Range of visitor spending on GDP OF Nigeria 2016**

![Diagram showing range of visitor spending on GDP of Nigeria 2016](image)

**Source:** WTTC Highlights (2017)

The figure 3 above thus highlights spending within the country by international tourists for both business and leisure trips, including spending on transport at 6.8% compared to domestic spending at 98.2% which shows an Induced contribution to the broader contribution to GDP and employment of spending by those who are directly or indirectly employed by Travel & Tourism.

Also, when looking at the income generated from Accommodation, Catering, Restaurants, Beverage Service activities, across four years by the national bureau of statistics (2016) figure (4) it will be noticed that a steady growth exists across the years.
Figure 4: Income generated from hospitality services over four years in Nigeria


Figure 3 above shows income generated from accommodation, catering, restaurants and beverage service activities, across four years with a steady increase of about 1.7% annually.

Discussions and Findings
From data analysed, it indicates that The Hospitality/Tourism Industry in Nigeria contributed about 4.8% to Nigeria’s Gross Domestic Product in 2016 and also employed about 1.6% of the population with foreign spending accounting for 3% while domestic spending took the bulk of 97%. Assessing growth in the Hospitality Industry, the Jumia report showed that about 9,000 new hotels emerged between 2014-2016 with competitive price rates across the country.

It was also observed from the report, that while there was increase in domestic travels, activities for corporate travellers declined in the country for year 2016 income generated over years from 2012-2015 was steadily rising between 1.5% to 2%(fig 4). Thus, implying the value and benefits the nation gets from the industry. Equally when comparisons are made between domestic tourists and international tourists spending in the country, domestic tourists spending contributes about 93% of income compared to a 7% by international tourists (Fig 3) agreeing with industrial corporation report(2012) which submits that an increasing domestic travel segment coupled with a
string of new hotels of international standard, catering almost exclusively to business
travellers located predominantly in Lagos, Abuja and Kano cities makes tourism and
hospitality viable in Nigeria.

Conclusions
The study concludes that Tourism is an important alternative economic activity for
most countries around the world being that it has proved to be a strong and resilient
economic activity contributing to economic recovery and diversification of nations
through generation of billions of foreign exchange and internal revenue. Apart from its
direct economic impact, the industry has significant indirect and induced impacts.
Infrastructure, the current Forex regime in the country, poverty and inconsistency in
government policy implementation are the major challenges the Hospitality/Tourism
Industry have been facing in the recent time especially the last 3 years of 2013-2016,
which in various ways impacted on the sector negatively.

Recommendations
On the strength of the findings and the conclusions made, the following
recommendations were raised:
1. There is the need to sensitize and motivate the upcoming middle class that can
   possibly reinvigorate domestic tourism in the country through relevant
   incentives and an overhaul of the orientation of Nigerian in all its facets of
   public and private sector.
2. Insecurity is one of the major factors that undermine the attractiveness of
tourism activities in a country. Therefore, there is urgent need for Government
to boost security of live and property in the country
3. There is the need as a matter of policy, a careful and discernible effort by
government to attract more private sector funding as well as foreign direct
investments into the sector through the increase in domestic financial resource
mobilization to create additional fiscal space for social protection
interventions in the country
4. There should be a conscious political will to implement and sustain tourism
policies and actions which can translate into economic gains for the citizens
and for the economy, while the long-term fundamentals of the economy can
still be considered strong, the present economic challenges provide
opportunity for decision-makers to intensify and accelerate work to unlock the
country’s unused economic capacity in tourism as observed from the findings
of the research.
References


NIGERIA'S DIPLOMATIC RELATIONS IN THE RECESSION AND ECONOMIC ENHANCEMENT

Dr. Chukwu, R. Doris
Department of Political and Administrative Studies
Faculty of Social Sciences, University of Port Harcourt

Introduction
This study was on Nigeria's diplomatic relations in the recession and economic enhancement. The aim of the work was to examine Nigeria's diplomatic efforts during the recession to determine how the attempts facilitated and boosted the economy out of recession. This was done through an analysis of the various diplomatic shuttles of the President and activities at Nigeria's Diplomatic Missions within 2016 and 2017. International relations as both public and private activities that extend beyond the territorial boundaries of states expressed through foreign policy and facilitated by diplomacy strengthened by personal representation did not function effectively for Nigeria during this period of recession. The interrelated and interconnected world we live today shows personal representation is an important avenue for enhancement of states interests. The personal representations of the President, Mohammadu Buhari in his diplomatic shuttles during the period were not consolidated because of non-appointment and postings of Ambassadors, High Commissioners and Head of Nigeria's Diplomatic Missions. This created a bridge in strengthening the efforts made. Since Nigeria needs a conducive international environment to address her domestic problems, we recommend effective and efficient functioning of Nigeria's diplomatic missions and establishment of more global collaborations and supports for Nigeria's course.
Background to the Study
According to Ogaba 2009, international relations refers to all activities, public and private that extend or have the potential of extending beyond the territorial boundaries of a state. It is a field that embrace all inter-course and interactions among states and all movements of people, goods and ideas across national frontiers. International relations are basically issues outside the territorial boundaries of states. It is the study of interactions among the various Actors in the international arena. International relations is concerned with how these Actors adjust their various interests. The interactions by states as principal Actors in international relations are geared towards promotion and enhancement of their national interest. It is in this light that some can say international relations are concerned with the process by which sovereign states adjust their national interests with one another.

The promotions of these interests are made through the instrument of foreign policy simply seen as the external expression of domestic policy. Foreign policy is the product of interactions between the domestic and external environment of a state including the general principle that directs state's reactions in the international arena. It is the legally formalized principles on ways and means states respond to the external environment based on certain goals and objectives. Foreign policy is thus the interactive system between states. This interactive system is facilitated by diplomacy which is the practical implementation of foreign policy usually by professionals.

Diplomacy generally is the conduct of all human affairs including international negotiations with tact. In international law, it is the conduct of international affairs by negotiations. Diplomacy can be defined as the application of intelligence and tact in the conduct of official relations between the governments of independent states. It is the act of negotiation between states by their representatives and usually in very tactical manner to enhance and protect state interest. Diplomacy comprises the procedures and process of negotiation agreements usually between sovereign states. It is the manner in which international relations are conducted. However, the personal qualities of a diplomat/state representatives are very important.

Diplomatic interactions between states during its early years were primarily for the purpose of economic including trade relationships and conflict resolution through third parties. The history of diplomacy revolved around warfare up till the days of the League of Nations and slightly with the United Nations. The UN tried to elevate diplomacy from warfare to Peace which is more complex. Diplomacy of warfare is
strictly based on military tactics unlike diplomacy of Peace that requires comprehensive ingenuity, knowledge and foresightedness. While diplomacy of warfare is based on “might”, diplomacy of peace requires the ability to negotiate, which must be with skills, knowledge and a purpose geared towards lasting friendship. The goal of friendship which connects economic diplomacy as mutual economic benefits is a significant focus of foreign policy making. It is economic ties within states that brings real friendship and minimize incidences of war. Nigeria’s effort at utilizing this strategy during the period of recession is what is paper is out to explore.

**Diplomatic Relations**

According to Chatterjece, (2007) Diplomatic relations stands for inter state relations established and developed through diplomats. Just like diplomacy, diplomatic relations between states started because of the need to create mutual co-operation. Diplomats are carriers of the foreign policies of their states. As earlier stated, a diplomat must be able to negotiate and present argument before a foreign government authority in attendant manners and etiquette. Diplomatic relations in essence is seen as state –to-state relations initiated and conducted by diplomats on behalf of their sovereigns. The practice of interactions between rulers primarily for the purpose of developing friendly relations, security and trade has been an old practice.

Diplomatic relations during the Roman times were regulated by the College of Fetal that negotiated external relations, and other activity performed today by foreign offices of states. It was the Byzantine empire that initiated professional diplomacy in attempts at conflict resolution between states. The establishment of embassies and foreign ministries in foreign countries is also to their credit. In fact the Byzantine is believed to have laid the foundation of the “art of diplomacy” where the qualities and characteristics a diplomat should possess was paramount. The Venetians, building on the Byzantines developed the system of preserving records of inter-state relations. By the 16th century, diplomatic activity had fully become evident within Europe based on the realization that it is only friendly relations between states that can guarantee peace.

One of the most important documents that regulated diplomatic relations was Annex XVIII to the Acts of the 1815 congress of Vienna which established uniform system of receiving diplomats from sending states. The first codification of diplomatic law was from the institute of international law when it adopted the Regulation of Cambridge that was revised in 1929. So instruments regulating diplomacy were developed that
culminated in the two Vienna conventions on Diplomatic Relations namely; the 1961
convention on Diplomatic Relations and the 1963 Convention on Consular Relations.
These conventions harmonized and codified the practice of diplomacy and consular
relations. (Ohatterjee,2007 pp.30-25)

Diplomacy as a means to develop friendly relations between states is usually
supervised by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs or State Department as some states
would call it. For Nigeria it is the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Foreign relations
between states may take various forms depending, on the goal or interest involved.
Generally the foreign interests of state must be established through bilateral,
multilateral and international efforts /strategies Article 41 paragraph 2 of the Vienna
Convention gives this legal backing of operations of foreign relations of states to the
ministry of foreign Affairs. It is the ministry of foreign Affairs that prepares and
implements the country’s foreign policy. For the promotion and enhancement of states
interest, Embassies and Missions are established and supervised by the ministry of
foreign Affairs. The Embassies and Missions or generally Diplomatic Missions in other
states serve as the extension of the state in other states. The DiplomaticMission is
headed by a representative from the sending state who must promote the interest of his
state in that state.

**Recession**
The tern recession suggests that a phenomenon is receding. In economic parlene, it
means that a particular economy is not working and as such not able to provide a
conducive atmosphere or environment for socio-economic and even political survival
of reasonable number of industries and citizens. It means that income generation, job
creation and employment opportunities are on the decline. According to Asuru (2017)
economic recession is a negative real GDP (Gross Domestic Product) growth rate for
two consecutive quarters. According to him for non-economists economic recession
means a period of more than six months that witness serious decline in economic
activities such as high rate of inflation, unemployment, exchange rate, taxation, low
investment and high rate of poverty and hunger.

The National Bureau of Economic Research (NBER) defined recession as:

*A significant decline in economic activity spread across the
economy lasting more than a few months normally visible in a
real Gross Domestic Period (GDP), real income, employment
industrial production and wholesale –related sales.*
The GDP of course is the monetary value of all the finished goods and service produced within a country in specific time. In recession, business cease to expand, the GDP diminishes for two consecutive quarters, rate of unemployment rises, housing prices decline and inflation increases. Economic recessions are caused by a loss of business and consumer confidence business and or consumer confidence because as confidence recedes, so does demand. The loss of confidence makes business and or consumers stop buying and move into defensive mode and panic sets in. This situation creates a destructive down ward spiral that leads to mass layoffs and rising unemployment. Nigeria’s economy entered into recession from the first quarter of 2016 following five consecutive quarter of GDP contraction. The low price of oil, volatile state of oil production, bad debts gathered overtime etc, lowered purchasing power and increased foreign exchange scarcity. From May 2016, there was visible reversed decline in output of goods and services. Nigerian Banks were banned from foreign currency deals in August2016. There was marginal sectoral growth in agriculture, manufacturing, construction, finance and insurance and real estate. Crude oil sales that recount to 70 percent of government income fell from 112 dollars a barrel in 2014 to 50 dollars in 2017 creating a fall in the currency. Inflation rate rose to as high as 17.1% (https://www.naija.ng)

Nigeria’s Diplomatic Relations in the Recession
Diplomacy as earlier started is a veritable tool of international relations because states efforts to adjust their national interests are aided by diplomacy. The interactive system between states is facilitated by diplomacy. As a mechanism diplomacy requires personal representation. Diplomacy as the act of negotiation between states by their representatives is established and developed through diplomats. Diplomacy as it existed the 20th century required from the creation of permanent diplomatic missions. The practical rules of diplomacy include Titles, Ranking and Special immunities of diplomatic agent, forms of communication, ceremonies and official language. An important aspect of diplomatic practice is written communication in forms of:

a. Dispatch or written reports
b. Notes, note diplomatique, first person note, note verbal, circular, pro, memonia
c. Aide –memore (Funk & Wagnalls).

Nigeria has made her mark in the world of diplomacy. Her efforts in diplomatic strides during the recession from 2016 -2017 can be assessed from the effectiveness of personal representation of Nigerian officials including activities in the Nigerian
diplomatic missions. In diplomacy, the President of a state is an embodiment of the state and must be accorded all the rights and privileges in another state. Because personal representation is necessary for the establishment of diplomatic relations, we will examine Nigeria’s President’s efforts. In this direction, these efforts can be assessed from the foreign representations made personally by the Presidents.

In two (2) years, the President was said to have made about 30 foreign trips between February 2016 and April 2017, accepted as part of Nigeria’s diplomacy and international relations. According to the Premium Times President Mohammadu Buhari’s shuttles across the world is to push Nigeria’s foreign policy. However, a normal two days trips of the president rates between three hundred and fifty thousand and five hundred thousand dollars. According to the Ministry of Information, President Buhari’s trips were aimed at enhancing security and International relations, economic promotion, and support for the fight against corruption. The President’s trips to Western Europe, the United States and Asia was to revive Nigeria’s economic status while his trips to the neighboring countries in the lake Chad were in combating terrorism and other Security Challenges in the region. According to the report, President Buhari trip to China in April 2017 yielded about six billion dollars’ additional investments to Nigeria and impacted on key sectors of the economy including power, solid minerals, agriculture, housing and rail transport.

Nigeria’s diplomatic Missions or Nigeria’s overseas/foreign missions include High Commissions, Embassies, Consulates and Representatives in international/organizations. These missions as earlier explained are the ready contact points for the execution and enhancement of Nigeria’s interests abroad. From 2015 when President Buhari took over office, activities in these missions were at its lowest ebb because there was no head. It was only on 13th June 2017 that appointment of 97 Ambassadors, High Commissioners and Hearts of mission were made.

Nigeria, out of Recession
The nature of the present international economic system has left the supply of goods and services and determination of their prices and “others” to the market forces of demand and supply that has created a deregulated market beyond the powers of governments and states. These powers have gone into the hands of transnational companies and other private investors who now compete for global markets and sources of raw materials, with strategies fashioned to cope with or adapt to local circumstances of national economies.
According to Otobo, (2017) there is a shared economic relationship because the world has become a global village. States directly or indirectly participate in certain global economic and financial institutional which partly regulate and also compromise economic transaction between state as, between local and transnational companies. This has continued to be facilitated by air, land and sea transportation as well as advances in information technology. Nigeria reaped from this global arrangement.

From the second quarter of 2017, Nigerian economy received a boost out of recession visible in the following areas:

1. Recovering in crude oil production and price
2. Introduction of investors and exporter foreign exchange windows;
3. Increased supply of foreign exchange to end users;
4. Remarkable market Growth index
5. Improvement in the power sector
6. Increased revenue.
7. Most outstanding of all, was the payment of the Paris Club (Global lending institution) debt refund that financially stabilized Nigeria that most states that almost collapsed financially were able to meet up some basic financial obligations like payment of salaries and pension. The refund came through the ingenuity of some Nigerian officials and expert consultancy services of a team led by a Nigerian born Prince Ned Nwoko

**Conclusion**

International relations as relationships outside the territorial boundaries of states is expressed through foreign policy and facilitated by diplomacy. As a tool in foreign relations, personal representation is very necessary. The representation are manifested through state officials and establishment of diplomatic missions that serve as extension of the state.

Nigeria's economy entered into recession in 2016 visible in five consecutive quarters of contraction in her GDP that came as a result of decline in output of goods and services. Because of the interconnected and interrelated nature of the world today, states activities in global economic transactions is highlighting. This obviously shows that inter-state relations including relations with local and foreign transnational companies is on the increase. To effectively harmonize these relationships, personal representations is very vital. Though Nigeria's economy got a leap out of recession from the second quarter of 2017 through other forces, the efforts of the Nigerian official
and expert consultancy services of the team led by Prince Ned Nwoko that facilitated the Paris club refund was the major push. The personal representations of the President as a diplomatic stride was not consolidated because Nigeria's diplomatic missions were not fully disposed to function optimally.

As handy contact points for enhancement of Nigeria's interests abroad, the diplomatic missions had no head which obviously confirms the popular saying that without the head, other parts of the body cannot function. Ambassadors, High Commissioners and heads of Missions were only appointed by the second quarter of 2017 when Nigeria’s economy was already coming out of recession. It shows Nigeria’s diplomatic relations during the recession did not play enough effective and sufficient role in enhancing our economic stability.

**Recommendations**

With the interconnected and interdependent world today, Nigeria obviously needs a conducive international environment to address her domestic problem. It is on this basis we make the following recommendations.

a. Optimal functioning of Nigeria's diplomatic missions  
b. Establishment of more global collaboration and supports for Nigeria’s course.  
c. Opening up of key sectors of the economy to attract foreign investments  
d. Active participation in Multilateral diplomacy for promotion of economic transformation through diversification and industrializations.
References


The Punch Newspaper (2009). *Melt down Nigeria others to get 59 billion world bank support. 03*

Ugala, B. (2010). Corruption as bane of national development: Osofisan’s who is afraid of Solarin and Soyinka’s “the road as paradigm” in Development perspectives in Arts and Social Sciences Education. 1


[https://www.naija.ng/155575-5 Accessed 24/1/18](https://www.naija.ng/155575-5 Accessed 24/1/18)
PART TWO

Strategies for Economic Recovery and Growth Plan
The economic downturn which Nigeria experienced few months ago may have different meanings to different people. For our collective purpose, let us take the liberty to define economic downturn as those unpleasant factors which have negative effects on the economic betterment of the individuals. Such factors that readily come to the mind in Nigeria include: unemployment, inflation, poverty, loss of income, insufficient food provision, inadequate clothing and dilapidated shelter among others. However, if we look out a little into the wider society, we find additional factors, which pose serious economic challenges to the welfare of the society as a whole. These include poor healthcare system, inadequate funding of the education sector, poor sanitation and bad drainage, absence of public convenience, highway potholes, erosion gullies, insurgency, kidnapping, violence, militancy among others.

In addition, we have rising prices of goods and services in the market because total production has become grossly inadequate. Factors of production are said to include: labour, land, capital and management (entrepreneurship). For total output to be more adequate land, labour and capital must be combined in a productive ratio.
Unfortunately, the industrialist, manufacturers and the entrepreneurs have adopted an attitude of wait and see before taking risks with their capital into any new investment. It is this same attitude of “wait-and-see” that aggravates the already existing inability of the economy to produce sufficient goods. Thus, raw materials lie waste and land previously “earmarked” for certain kinds of production cannot be easily used.

This also impacted the various sectors in Nigerian economy. Nigeria’s real GDP growth performance was quite robust over the 2010-2014 periods when the real GDP growth rate varied between 4.21% and 7.80%, with an average of 5.81%. This growth rate fell to 2.79% in 2015; a decline of 52% from the 2010-2014 average growth rate. A more comprehensive picture of the economic slowdown and the economy’s descent into recession between 2014 and 2016 is presented in Table 1. This shows that while real GDP growth rate declined sharply between 2014 and 2015, it remained positive until around 2016.

Table 1: GDP and Sectoral Growth Rate (%), 2014-2016

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>2014</th>
<th>2015</th>
<th>2016</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Real GDP</td>
<td>6.22</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>-1.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>4.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>14.72</td>
<td>-1.46</td>
<td>-4.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food, Beverage and Tobacco</td>
<td>5.63</td>
<td>-5.38</td>
<td>-6.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textile, Apparel and Footwear</td>
<td>31.19</td>
<td>-1.07</td>
<td>-1.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motor Vehicle and Assembly</td>
<td>25.61</td>
<td>-5.55</td>
<td>-29.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Traditionally, Nigerians believe that the Economic Downturn that Nigeria Experienced was scaled up by the following factors:

1. Consumption driven economy
2. Pipeline Vandalism and Stoppage of Pipelines Contracts
3. Poor leadership
4. Consumer’s Debt and Spending Reduction
5. Delayed Budget Approval and Implementation
6. Nigeria’s Over-Dependence on Foreign Products
7. Inability of the Previous Administrations to Save for the Rainy Day
8. Oil Prices Glut and Decline GDP
9. Collapse of the Capital Market
10. Reduction in Oversea Development Assistance and Foreign Direct Investment (FDI)
11. Rising Tide of Corruption (leakages of government revenue)
12. Rise in Inflation
13. Social and economic vices (insurgency, violence, militancy etc)
14. Mono-product economy
   i. Macroeconomic challenges
   ii. Infrastructural challenges
   iii. Poor institutions and corporate governance
   iv. Low quality of education
   v. Poor investment climate and business environment
15. Consumption – Based Economy
16. Poor Savings and High Credit Culture
17. Huge Financial Outflow Spent in Prosecuting War against Terrorism
18. Inadequate Regulatory Framework
19. Saudi Arabia Oil Price Reduction etc.

Also the Effect of Economic Recession cannot be over Emphasized among them are:
   a. Fall in Businesses Activities
   b. Falling Stocks and Dwindling Dividends
   c. Credit Default and Bankruptcy
   d. Product Quality is being Compromised
   e. Unemployment
   f. Medical and Education Tourism
   g. Politics (political will)
   h. Reduced amounts of trade and commerce
   i. Effects on Society (e.g. sufferings, untimely deaths etc)

1. Therefore, the government has a big role to play in ensuring that the economy flourishes over time irrespective of the enormous challenges it faces.
2. We thank God that Nigeria has finally come out of recession and economic stagflation.
3. There is great optimism that Nigerian economy will grow positively in 2017 given the rising crude oil price and increasing production and with the ERGP, 2017 – 2020.
The current administration recognizes that the economy is likely to remain on a path of steady and steep decline if nothing is done to change the trajectory, therefore, the vision of the ERGP is one of sustained inclusive growth.

2. There is an urgent need as a nation to drive a structural economic transformation with an emphasis on improving both public and private sector efficiency, aimed at increasing national productivity and achieving sustainable diversification of production, to significantly grow the economy and achieve maximum welfare for the citizens, beginning with food and energy security.

3. The Economic Recovery and Growth Plan (ERGP), a Medium Term Plan for 2017 – 2020, builds on the Social Investment Programme (SIP) and has been developed for the purpose of restoring economic growth while leveraging the ingenuity and resilience of the Nigerian people – the nation’s most priceless assets.

4. Consistent with the aspirations of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), the ERGP initiatives address its three dimensions of economic, social and environmental sustainability issues. These three dimensions are what Nigeria needs today.

Overall, the ERGP is expected to deliver on the following key outcomes:

- Stable Macroeconomic Environment
- Restoration of Growth
- Agricultural transformation and food security
- Power and petroleum products sufficiency
- Improved Stock of Transportation Infrastructure
- Industrialized Economy
- Job Creation and youth empowerment
- Improved Foreign Exchange Inflows

The ERGP has three broad strategic objectives that will help achieve the vision of inclusive growth outlined above:

- Restoring growth,
- Investing in our people, and
- Building a globally competitive economy.
With the ERGP and the enormous resources that Nigeria has, we cannot also deny the fact that there are great prospects for Nigerian economy. In summary, this growth prospects and economic recovery can be achieved and sustained if:

i. The balance of trade is persistently positive;
ii. External reserves can be substantially built up to boost the credit worthiness of the economy and attract foreign investment;
iii. Efforts are sustained to maintain peace in Niger Delta to boost crude oil and gas output;
iv. Electricity supply is increased to 15,000-25,000 Mwh between now and 2020, to boost manufacturing capacity utilization and activities in other critical sectors;
v. The banking sector reforms and efforts to resolve liquidity challenges are sustained to channel credit massively to the real sector of the economy;
vi. Government sustains the current reforms in the various sectors of the economy to achieve rapid growth and development;
vii. Agricultural output is increased barring adverse weather conditions, with continued implementation of various government programmes, especially preserving, processing and marketing activities; to add value to agricultural output
viii. The growth in the services sector is sustained, by increasing the local contents of the industry and by expanding the tele-density of the country;
ix. The downstream petroleum sub-sector is deregulated and encouraged the setting up of private refineries;
x. The economy is diversified from the primary products and away from crude oil and natural gas; to other sectors such as agriculture, manufacturing, solid mineral, services, tourism and trade.
xi. Other key economic and social infrastructure are improved to facilitate the performances of other sectors.
xii. The existing democratic governance is sustained, rule of law, justice, fairness and equity and inclusive growth are given priorities they deserve in Nigeria.
xiii. Put in place definite effort to reduce cost of governance and restructure government expenditure pattern in favour of capital expenditure.
xiv. Strengthen law enforcement institutions and sustain fight of corruption.
xv. Motivate the SMES and enhance good governance.
The Role of the Three Tiers of Government

a. Due Process in procurement process
b. Curb Corruption and Ensure Good Governance
c. Reduce Cost of Governance
d. Patronise Nigerian Made Products
e. Diversify the Economy (Agriculture, Solid minerals, Manufacturing, Tourism, ICT, Science and Technology)
f. Protect Local Manufacturers through appropriate Incentives and Policies
g. Government Poverty Alleviation Initiatives should be People-Oriented
h. Human Capital Development
i. Entrepreneurship
j. Empowering the Informal Sector
k. Institutional Reforms
l. Tackle the Security Problem and Enhance the Flow of FDI
m. Infrastructure
n. Social Security Measures
o. Promote public private partnership (PPP)
p. Provide enabling environment for businesses to strive and attract FDI
q. Capacity building for the management and staff of MDAs.
r. Nigeria should borrow a leaf from USA and other countries that have successfully come out of recessions (Britain, Canada, Ireland, Singapore, etc.).

The three tiers of government also have roles to play to ensure sustained economic growth for Nigeria.

However, the prospects for growth in Nigeria are very bright going by the achievements recorded thus far shown by the second quarter GDP of 2017 and the ongoing reforms in the various sectors. Therefore, for Nigeria to consolidate these economic gains and move higher in the frontlines of growth, development and economic recovery, it must deepen reforms that improve human capital, promote high-quality public infrastructure and encourage competition.

Nigeria needs to implement faithfully all the recommendations mentioned above. Nigeria needs to use oil revenue to diversify her economy to create job opportunities and satisfy the basic needs of Nigerians and to ensure sustainable development. To
achieve this, she has to address all the challenges highlighted above. Finally, governments at all levels should look beyond oil and tap other natural resource endowments, if the country's economy should be diversified as crude oil price has continued to dwindle.
Introduction

This paper examines education priorities, the contribution of national universities commission (NUC) to falling academic standards and Nigerian Education in the ECOWAS context. Education is crucial in development but it appears Nigeria’s Economic Recovery and Growth Plan (ERGP) does not consider Education a priority sector despite its pre-eminence as a Sustainable Development Goal (SDG). The ERGP does not consider executing anything about education and improving human capital is not a priority. Also, its design indicates no lessons learnt from the fact that growth without development was a significant trigger for Nigeria's deep recession. Nigeria’s economy which in 10 years (2005-2015) grew at about 6.3% annually only to plunge into a lingering recession in the 11th year in 2016 was not a case of “structural challenges” but structural neglect. Moreover, the ERGP’s touted plan to “Introduce post-university skills development institutions (PUSDIs)” itself is a tacit admission to the failure of Nigeria’s universities to deliver quality graduates and the government/NUC bears significant blame. Also, Nigeria with preponderance of universities does not measure up in competition in the 1000 world ranking. Furthermore, Nigeria’s performance in higher education is one of the lowest in
ECOWAS, being third from the bottom position with Government expenditure on Education as a percentage of gross domestic product (GDP) estimated at under 2%. A well-rounded multidimensional education is what sustains development and should be the practice championed by NUC contrary to current practices. It is instructive that Nigerian government commands the least vote of confidence (41%) from the citizens amongst the ECOWAS Member States. The paper recommends that as with the new global thinking and in line with SDGs, education should be a priority in Nigeria and universities should be treated as mind-set transformation agents for a future of solving the challenges of national development. The current one-dimensional tertiary education being championed by NUC should be replaced with multidimensional education and university curricula be redesigned for knowledge application. Multinational companies in Nigeria should be made to set aside a fraction of their profits for research support in universities as they do in other developed countries.

Background to the Study

The Economic Recovery and Growth Plan - ERGP

The first two opening sentences introducing the Economic Recovery and Growth Plan - ERGP document says “Nigeria has the potential to become a major player in the global economy by virtue of its human and natural resource endowments. However, this potential has remained relatively untapped over the years”. Wonderful; but then comes the irony. Of the eight deliverable outcomes projected by the ERGP for 2020 (see BOX 1), the ERGP is completely silent on developing the acclaimed “relatively untapped” human resource endowments of Nigeria. Still in the introductory section, we are told the ERGP is a Medium Term Plan for 2017 – 2020, that builds on the Strategic Implementation Plan (SIP) for the 2016 Budget and has been developed for the purpose of restoring economic growth while leveraging the ingenuity and resilience of the Nigerian people – the nation’s most priceless assets. Again, the ERGP is silent on how the acclaimed “ingenuity and resilience of the Nigerian people – the nation’s most priceless assets” is to be leveraged by the deliverable outcomes projected.

We are further told “the ERGP is also consistent with the aspirations of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), given that the initiatives address its three dimensions of economic, social and environmental sustainability issues”. The SDG concerning education is Goal 4 and it is specifically SDG 4.3 (see BOX 2) that is the focus of this paper. But then, the eight deliverable outcomes projected (see BOX 1) are largely economic with barely anything on social issues.
BOX 1: ERGP Deliverable Outcomes

1. Stable Macroeconomic Environment
2. Restoration of Growth
3. Agricultural transformation and food security
4. Power and petroleum products sufficiency
5. Improved Stock of Transportation Infrastructure
6. Industrialized Economy
7. Job Creation and youth empowerment
8. Improved Foreign Exchange Inflows

BOX 2: SDG4 on Education

SDG4. Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all
SDG4.3. By 2030, ensure equal access for all women and men to affordable and quality technical, vocational and tertiary education, including university

BOX 3: ERGP Key Execution Priorities

(1) Stabilizing the macroeconomic environment
(2) Achieving agriculture and food security
(3) Ensuring energy sufficiency (power and petroleum products)
(4) Improving transportation infrastructure
(5) Driving industrialization focusing on Small and Medium Scale Enterprises

We are also told “the ERGP aims to restore sustained economic growth while promoting social inclusion and laying the foundations for long-term structural change” and that its programmes and policies “requires a healthy, educated citizenry able to establish businesses that create jobs, a hardworking and productive workforce”. It is worrisome that while other countries in Africa in their vision plans for similar periods give high priority to education as instrumental in fostering socio-economic transformation in the lives of the people, Nigeria’s ERGP does not consider Education a priority sector, neither does it indicate in any form that Education has “potential to
drive growth and contribute to GDP growth”, has “ability to respond strongly to stimulus”, or that it has “the flexibility of production methods and capacity to innovate and generate large-scale employment”. This is even as this ERGP document acknowledges “Human development indicators paint a bleak picture of Nigeria’s health and education systems” and indicates three broad strategic objectives: (1) restoring growth, (2) investing in our people, and (3) building a globally competitive economy. Furthermore, in order to meet the objective of “investing in our people”, “the Federal Government will invest in health and education to fill the skills gap in the economy, and meet the international targets set under the United Nations’ Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)” and this is supposed to “Improved human capital”. Moreover, occupying position 4 out of 17 on the list of SDGs clearly indicate education should be of high priority. Nevertheless, regarding education, the ERGP merely contains some sound bites and clever jargons without much substance since “to achieve the objectives of the ERGP, the key execution priorities, are completely silent on education (see BOX 3). Hence, while the ERGP document contains few “Education Strategies” including to “Improve the quality of education by strengthening quality assurance” and key activities such as “Review and restructure the education curriculum in line with international best practices” as well as “Introduce post-university skills development institutions (PUSDIs)”, executing anything about education or Improving human capital is not a priority in the ERGP. Moreover, the ERGP’s touted plan to “Introduce post-university skills development institutions (PUSDIs)” itself is a tacit admission to the failure of Nigeria’s universities to deliver graduates with requisite skills to develop the country.

This paper aims to bring out some food for thought in the debate concerning the continued lack of adequate attention and lip service to education by successive governments in Nigeria. Specifically, the paper examines how this could be contributing to falling academic standards in the Universities and Nigeria’s continued under development in the context of growth versus development. The paper also investigates the role of the national universities commission (NUC) and how the NUC could be contributing to falling academic standards in the Universities. The state of Education affairs in Nigeria is also situated in the ECOWAS context.

**Methodology**

The study employs desk review methodology whereby pertinent documents from various sources are reviewed. Building up on the introductory review of the ERGP document, other documents reviewed include the Nigerian Government’s NUC Act,

Following this introduction, Section Two presents discussions on the concepts of Growth and Development and the focus of Nigeria while Section Three dwells on the Importance of Education in Development. Section Four discusses the role of NUC and the falling academic standards in Nigerian universities while Section Five concludes with some policy recommendations.

**Should Nigeria’s Focus be on Growth or Development: The Difference?**

Growth and development can both be negative but for the purpose of this review, the focus is on their positive aspects. The difference between growth and development is not just semantics. Growth indicates a quantifiable change in size while development indicates a transformation or improvement of structure. The growth in physical size is measurable and refers to physical change whereas development is physical as well as social or psychological change. Growth means an increase while development implies improvement in quality. All things being equal, growth should lead to development but we know all things are never equal in real life. This means there could be growth without development. For instance, the proceeds of economic growth could be wasted or retained by a small wealthy elite as Nigeria’s recent recession exemplify. On the other hand, the advent of development must necessarily engender some growth. Growth means becoming bigger or larger or having more importance and is related to quantitative improvement while development is related to both quantitative and qualitative improvement. Hence, growth is contained in development. Growth can be instantaneous but development necessarily is gradual.

When we say development is shown by the qualitative improvement of circumstances, it means that as something develops, the quality of the whole improves. Hence, the advance of economic development in a country implies quality standards all round. When countries are referred to as developed and developing or under developed, the issue at stake is structural transformation. The developed countries have transformed their structures whereas the under developed or developing countries have structures not yet transformed.
In this context, it appears developers of the ERGP and the policy makers behind it did not learn much lessons from Nigeria’s deep recession and the fact that growth without development played a very significant role in triggering the recession (Ako 2017). It is instructive that an economy which in the 10 years between 2005 and 2015 grew at an average 6.3 per cent annually only to plunge into a lingering recession in the 11th year in 2016 was not a case of “structural challenges” but structural neglect; whereby the economy is highly dependent on the oil and gas sector which accounts for just 10 per cent of GDP whilst neglecting the other sectors that account for about 90 per cent of GDP. Just like other national plans before it, the ERGP is largely growth oriented. Unless and until policy makers understand the differences between growth and development and that the two are not synonymous and focus appropriately, Nigeria will yet remain in a quagmire of stunted development with unending cycles of growth without development. Nigeria is classified a developing nation for a reason and yet, here we are AGAIN with an ERGP clearly focusing on growth and not development. The pertinent question here is when will Nigeria learn? It is the people that develop a place. Develop a people and the place will become developed. The persistent preoccupation of government and policy makers with “macroeconomic stability” at the expense of people’s development as amplified in the current ERGP makes no sense in Nigeria’s current underdevelopment. Moreover, this is a sad but true reflection of the falling academic standards in Nigerian Universities i.e. playing to the gallery and lip service; for which the government/national universities commission (NUC) bears significant blame.

The Importance of Education in Development

The importance of education has been highlighted over the years by various world bodies such as The World Bank and United Nations in their reports and programs (World Development Reports -WDR, Human Development Reports and Sustainable Development Goals). These world bodies recognize that education systems are inevitably embedded in complex social, political, economic, and cultural contexts.

For instance, WDR-2006 considered the role education plays in reducing poverty and inequality whereby it was demonstrated that an educated workforce is necessary for a high national standard of living and that increasing the human capital of the poor is likely one of the most effective ways to reduce poverty and increase upward economic mobility. The WDR-2007 and WDR-2013 touched on the importance of skills accumulation as a part of a youth or jobs agenda and demonstrated that schooling, skills, and the knowledge that result from them improve employment and
productivity, health outcomes, quality of governance, and many other outcomes. In the WDR-2012, education as a marker, and driver, of gender equality is highlighted while in the forthcoming WDR2018, The World Bank is focusing on realizing the promise of education for development “to provide guidance on how to expand the scope and quality of education around the world”.

The Concept Note for the forthcoming World Development Report 2018 has four main points including: that (i) education is a powerful driver of both individual and national well-being, but it could achieve much more than it is now achieving; and that (ii) promoting universal learning and skills is the priority now—because while the world has achieved massive growth in school participation in recent years, many systems have struggled to ensure that students learn and acquire relevant skills, at a time when jobs are changing rapidly.

The WDR2018 Concept Note further posits that promoting learning and skills at scale requires much more than getting these interventions right: it requires careful attention to the technical, political, and social challenges of aligning an education system toward delivering relevant learning and skills. According to this Concept Note, getting education right is clearly a core responsibility of public policy and that education is a foundational building block for achieving nearly every other development goal. The Benefits of Education cover economic and non-economic benefits, for both individuals and societies (Poverty and Shared Prosperity reports 2016 and 2017, WDR2018 Concept Note).

Individual Benefits of Education in Development

At the individual level, education is the most powerful and consistent tool for escaping poverty—and increasing access to education can help close social gaps linked to different forms of exclusion such as gender, disability and others. One of the most vigorous results in microeconomics is that schooling usually leads to increased earnings of about 6 to 12 percent for each year of education. Hence, educating people is the definite way to extricate them from poverty since education is a powerful instrument for eradicating poverty and promoting shared prosperity. Additionally, education’s benefits are not just economic. “Even controlling for income, education improves health, resilience, and life satisfaction, and its benefits are manifested across generations, as education inhibits the intergenerational transmission of poverty”. This implies “educated individuals lead healthier lives and are more engaged citizens, and their families end up healthier and better educated—reducing the intergenerational transmission of poverty” (WDR2018 Concept Note).
National and Social Benefits of Education in Development

At the national level, education has been shown constantly to strengthen sustained growth and development. Theoretical models consistently consider human capital as a significant determinant of growth in developing or developed nations. Also, beyond its direct impacts, education increases the returns to other investments and policies. For instance, education enables individuals to make better use of financial or health products and to adopt and disseminate new technologies. This multiplier effect is implicit in many theoretical models of growth, which suggest an interaction between physical and human capital. Empirical studies also indicate education was the critical factor that enabled countries to take advantage of other reforms and investments or technological breakthroughs such as the export-oriented policy reforms in East Asia, (WDR2018 Concept Note).

At the community and societal level, education increases productivity, economic growth, social capital and leads to better-functioning institutions and service delivery. Education multiplies the effects of other interventions and policies, such as agricultural extension, provision of health care, or improvements in infrastructure etc. Furthermore, improvements in society-wide governance depends on well-educated citizens and government officials. Education can also engender greater social cohesion, and since human capital is difficult for others to appropriate (unlike natural resources or even physical capital), wealth built on human capital can create fewer incentives for conflict than other types of wealth. Finally, education has been consistently associated with reducing behaviors that have negative externalities such as smoking and crime (WDR2018 Concept Note).
BOX 4: SDG4 on Education

SDG4.7. By 2030, ensure that all learners acquire the knowledge and skills needed to promote sustainable development, including, among others, through education for sustainable development and sustainable lifestyles, human rights, gender equality, promotion of a culture of peace and non-violence, global citizenship and appreciation of cultural diversity and of culture’s contribution to sustainable development.

Global Benefits of Education in Development

Education was one of the keys to the United Nations’ Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) whose target was 2015, and it is still fundamental to the current Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) whose target is year 2030. Education was number two MDG and it is currently number four SDG (see BOX 2). Additionally, UNESCO’s Global Education Monitoring Report (GEMR 2016) reviews the ways in which education can contribute to all of the Sustainable Development Goals. The GEMR 2016 discusses target 4.7 of SDG 4 which is on sustainable development and global citizenship and touches on social, humanistic and moral purposes of education. Target 4.7 (see BOX 4) explicitly links education to other SDGs and captures the transformative aspirations of the new global development agenda (GEMR 2016). In the new thinking, higher education is recognized as the instrument of development in the new knowledge economy whereby the new modes of economic growth are dependent on knowledge and information technology (WDRs –various).

The Learning Crisis

In a changing and multifaceted world, education and knowledge are increasingly becoming the foundation for - and drivers of - economic, social and institutional growth (Awiti, 2014: Bloom et al., 2006). Education’s higher institutions thus
influence the economic competitiveness of individual nations and regions. As the
global economy and the nature and demands of jobs change, due to global integration
and the growth of the digital economy, education systems and the types of skills
imparted at various levels of education may need to change to ensure that the range of
skills acquired are relevant. Also, the quality of the programs aimed at delivering those
skills will become even more relevant (WDRs –various).

However, despite gains in access to education, it has been observed in recent times that
schooling does not necessarily lead to learning and this undermines the potential
benefits of education. In this respect, recent assessments of student learning have
highlighted that many children and youth are leaving school unequipped with the
skills they need for life and work, and often without even the most foundational
literacy and numeracy skills. Although tertiary enrolment have surged, evidence is
mounting that students are learning far too little in many countries, relative both to the
countries’ own learning standards and to common-sense expectations about what
schooling should deliver— as well as to the demands from the labor market (WDR2018
Concept Note). In Nigeria, this evidence is exemplified in recent times by universities
being forced to conduct post-Unified Tertiary Matriculation Examinations (post-
UTME)since 2005 to confirm quality of prospective students before offering
admissions. These post-UTMEs were briefly proscribed in 2016 but have been re-
introduced in 2017. Moreover, different universities also apply different UTME cut off
(minimum) marks to ensure maintenance of university specific standards. The WDR
2018 is billed to present evidence on the proximate causes of the learning crisis—such
as poor readiness to learn, shortcomings in teacher preparation, inputs that never
reach the classroom, and education and training systems that do not link well to
societal or economic needs. The costs of these learning and skills deficits will grow as
markets continue to globalize and technology transforms the world of
work(WDR2018 Concept Note).

Tertiary Education, the National Universities Commission and Falling
Academic Standards in Nigeria

Tertiary Education in Nigeria

Tertiary education ranges from short courses to bachelor, master and doctoral
programmes and tertiary institutions vary widely in terms of size, cost, courses,
procedures and quality. However, global enrolment in tertiary education doubled
from 100 million in 2000 to 207 million in 2014 but disparity across and within
countries is huge (GEMR 2016). For instance, in the fifty seven (57) years since
independence, the education system in Nigeria has evolved from only one institution of higher education – Yaba College founded in 1932 in Yaba to the University College Ibadan in 1948 to almost 500 tertiary institutions in 2017. Of these tertiary institutions, about 153 are universities with a further 200 applications for private universities pending approval in 2017. The classification of these tertiary institutions in Nigeria is presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Types and Ownership of Universities Recognized By NUC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INSTITUTION</th>
<th>OWNERSHIP PUBLIC</th>
<th>PRIVATE</th>
<th>Total Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Universities</td>
<td>Federal 40</td>
<td>State 45</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polytechnics</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monotechnics</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colleges</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: NUC and JAMB

However, differences in national policy structures and resources, and in institutional missions, pose considerable barriers to a meaningful global measure of quality in tertiary education. Hence, university rankings attract attention because they are simple to understand, but such rankings are usually based on research rather than teaching quality or student learning. In this respect, it is of concern that Nigerian universities are consistently missing in the ranking list of 1000 universities worldwide. The current QS World University Rankings features 18 African universities, 9 of which are in South Africa and 5 from Egypt. Ghana, Morocco, Uganda and Kenya have one entrant each in the 1000 university ranking. It should be of great concern that other countries in Africa with less universities meet the 1000 world ranking but Nigeria with preponderance of universities does not measure up. Thus, while the number of universities in Nigeria have grown significantly and Nigeria may have the highest number of universities in Africa, this growth has not translated into improvement in quality.

The National Universities Commission's (NUC) Quality Assurance and Falling Academic Standards in Nigeria

Education Quality Outputs/Outcomes/Impacts

Gerner (1971) argues that education may be viewed, at least in part, as a deliberate process of production which requires Input-Output Model to evaluate its performance.
and impact on economic development. Input-output analysis in economics refers to
the study of the effects that different sectors have on the economy as a whole, for a
particular nation or region. The Input-Output analysis requires not only the inputs
invested in, the processes required to transform the inputs into products and the
products themselves but also the pertinent relationships to achieve the stated goals
(Stufflebeam and Shinkfield, 1985). The Model postulates that the quality and quantity
of inputs and the quality of the process determines the quality of the output/outcome
of an education industry. For instance, the quantity and quality of lecturers, students,
learning materials and lecture rooms, curricula and teaching methodologies and how
they interact in the learning process determine the quality of outputs/outcomes.

In the Input-Output analysis, we may differentiate outputs from outcomes/impacts in
that Outputs relate to "what we do" while Outcomes/impacts refer to "what difference
is there" (Wetengere 2016). In this sense, the outputs of the education system include
academic achievements, changes in attitudes and behaviours, productivity on-the-job
and good citizenship. Other attainments of quality education are linked to community
participation, learner confidence, enhanced life-skills and the capability to make
responsible choices and resolve conflict. According to UNICEF (undated), Quality
outcomes are what students know and what they can do as well as their attitudes and
the expectations they have for themselves and their societies. On the other hand,
Schreyer (2009) and Fraumeni et al. (2008) define the output of the education sector
as the effect of education processes on the level of competences (the amount of
knowledge, skills, understanding and attitudes) students have attained or possessed
after completion of studies. This is also referred to as investment in human capital
(OECD, 2010).

In this respect, many universities especially in Africa (including Nigeria) continue to
prepare graduates to become loyal employees in white collar jobs wherein graduates
can pass examinations but they cannot think for themselves. The graduates regard
self-employment as a second class type of job or at best a temporary business such that
once an employment vacancy materializes, they tend to opt for employment. These
type of graduates can pass examinations but they cannot think for themselves (Awiti
have established projects/businesses like bars and shops which do not match their
professions. Hence, university education in Nigeria may not necessarily prepare
graduates to use their knowledge and skills to exploit the abundant resources that the
country is endowed with. According to Awiti (2014), the current processes of training
and learning have spoon-fed students instead of making them curious and creative such that the students are taught to think the way of their lecturers instead of building critical thinking and instead of building capacity to identify and solve problems. Hence, students have learnt to complain or to blame others for their failures.

For instance, a study conducted by the Inter University Council of East Africa (IUECA) indicates 56 percent of graduates in East Africa lack the basic and technical skills needed in the job market and do not meet the needs of private sector employers and chief executives and those of the larger society (Awiti, 2014). This is because most university curricula and teaching strategies do not prepared students for the real life by building capacity for eager investigations or eagerness to learn more about something or the ability to make or form something new. They also do not prepare students for the objective analysis and evaluation of an issue in order to form a judgment nor the process of working through details of a problem in order to reach a solution and imagination nor the ability to form mental images of things that are not present to the senses or not considered to be real. These competences are expected if the graduates are to be the agents of economic development in their environment. To be able to do so, Awiti (2014) recommends the curricula must change appropriately.

**Functions of NUC and Falling Academic Standards in Nigeria**

One of the several functions of NUC is to ensure that university graduates attain a minimum level of competence in their fields of study. This is achieved via NUC’s mandate to draw up benchmark minimum academic standards (BMAS) for all disciplines in Nigerian universities. Therefore, the process of quality assurance in Nigerian universities is carried out through the development of BMAS for and accreditation of academic programmes. The BMAS are in respect of course content, staffing (academic, technical and other supporting staff), equipment, space as well as a uniform application of the course system and grade point average. BMAS together with the accreditation exercise, ensure that graduates attain a certain minimum level of competence in their academic pursuits so that they come out as productive and effective members of the society with enough background to make meaningful contributions to national development (Fafunwa 1990).

Accordingly, quality assurance in the Nigerian higher education system broadly consists of internal and external mechanisms (Okebukola and Sambo in Shabani, Okebukola and Sambo 2002). The internal mechanism is made up of all activities towards the attainment of set standards at the Departmental, Faculty/School and
University Senate/Board of Studies levels as well as the involvement of examiners as peer assessors. External mechanisms of Quality assurance on the other hand involve the accreditation conducted on behalf of the Federal Government by appropriate statutory agencies to ensure that at least the provisions of the Minimum Academic Standards are attained, maintained and enhanced. The accreditation exercise is to eradicate intellectual mediocrity and the NUC's aim is not to scrap university programme(s) but rather to identify viable and unviable programmes and make appropriate recommendations to proprietors concerned (Anumnu Esther - undated). The accreditation exercise is also aimed at assuring employers and other members of the community that graduates of all academic programmes taught in Nigerian universities have attained an acceptable level of competency in their areas of specialization, thus making them suitable for employment and for further studies (Okebukola and Sambo in Shabani, Okebukola and Sambo 2002). However, those programmes found deficient during an accreditation exercise would have to be up-graded in order to satisfy the required minimum standards.

In the light of this, the continued denial of university autonomy by the NUC as well as its various attempts to usurp from the universities the internal mechanisms for quality assurance under various guises is not only counterproductive but could be contributing significantly to falling academic standards in Nigeria. Universities ought to produce scientifically and culturally literate graduates with capacity to assess evidence and communicate clearly as well as capacity for curiosity, creativity, critical thinking, problem solving and imagination; all of which are necessary skills and attitudes required to meet the existing and emerging problems of development. Bearing this in mind, the continued penchant of government regulators to put square pegs in round holes for political correctness and/or political patronage has done more harm than good regarding academic standards in Nigerian universities.

For instance, the NUC website contains the profile of its current Director of Academic Standards who is described as a well-rounded educationist with Bachelors in Education (B.Ed.) degree in Islamic studies and a Ph.D. in Education Psychology. This could imply the sum qualifications of Islamic studies and Education Psychology are not just publicly touted as “well-rounded” by the NUC but made the current face of academic standards in Nigerian universities. For starters, the NUC publicly describing this kind of qualification as well-rounded is turning the truth on its head. This state of affairs can be further interpreted to mean academic standards in Nigerian universities are now being rooted in the mind-set of the Muslim religion and Islamic
thinking since Islamic studies is about the study of the Muslim religion and psychology has to do with mind-sets. This ought not to be and the government/NUC should not continue to toy with issues of academic standards in Nigerian universities. The question to be asked is: what will be the mind-set of such a Director of academic standards and what will be his focus given his background? Is there any wonder the educational standards in Nigeria continue to go downhill? A Muslim can indeed be a Director of academic standards at NUC but bearing in mind majority of universities in Nigeria (public and private) are NOT Islamic religion based universities, s/he ought to be suitably qualified to spearhead academic standards in Nigerian universities that can produce literate graduates with capacity for curiosity, creativity, critical thinking, problem solving and imagination; all of which are necessary skills and attitudes required for education to play its pivotal role in Nigeria’s economic development.

Secondly, the accreditation exercises of NUC are riddled with rampant corruption whereby universities have to part with significant millions of naira in bribes (gifts) to get favourable accreditation reports by the visiting teams made up of staff of NUC, Federal Ministry of Education (FME) and consultants as the author is aware. In this manner, NUC staff live larger than life lives and frequently behave like emperors rather than the public servants they are. A visit to the office of the NUC Executive Secretary would make one wonder if one is in the office of a public servant given the elaborate ostentatious furnishings. This apparent taste for ostentation has made NUC and Federal Ministry of Education staff involved in accreditation visits corruption (egunje) partners such that the Ministry which should be supervising the NUC is actually being dictated to by the NUC in the name of “NUC autonomy”; since the NUC is the government arm generating the illicit bribes from universities to the benefit of both NUC and FME staff. Hence, if the external mechanisms for quality assurance in the Nigerian universities by NUC & co. are corruption riddled and not necessarily focused on quality assurance, how can we then expect the internal mechanisms of quality assurance of the universities to be devoid of corruption, since the universities have to meet up with the corruption demands of NUC & co? Corruption breeds corruption and if the head is rotten, the body must necessarily become rotten. The NUC thus bears significant blame for the current falling standards in Nigerian universities.

In addition, NUC’s apparently one-dimensional promotion of university postgraduate diplomas (PGD) as the sole bridging programme for university postgraduate education is further eroding the quality of university education. It has also made
university education one-dimensional in Nigeria and universities are no longer at liberty to admit for graduate studies based on undergraduate academic transcripts. The world recognizes obvious linkages in the socio-economy (World Bank 2016) and now considers poverty multidimensional; yet NUC is actively promoting one-dimensional education in Nigeria. This ought not to be for sustainable development. A well-rounded multidimensional education is what sustains development and should be the practice championed by NUC. Moreover, these PGDs which have fast turned into money making machines for universities, have further overstretched academic staff and the PGD students themselves mostly see it as a mere end to a means as the author is aware. The introduction of PGD in the BMAS by NUC in collaboration with university administrators has thus led to spikes in corruption and the significant lowering of academic standards in Nigerian universities generally.

It is Furthermore and in relation to its accreditation functions, the NUC continues to prevent and/or hamper university autonomy. For instance, the NUC's statutory function to develop BMAS in respect of course content, staffing (academic, technical and other supporting staff), equipment, space as well as a uniform application of the course system and grade point average is now being surreptitiously over extended at the expense of university autonomy. In this respect and in furtherance of its apparent emperor-like mentality, the NUC now seemingly acts as a “Teachers' Commission” for universities and is apparently trying to “regulate” the qualifications of academic staff of universities after the fact in very bizarre manner. In this bizarre manner, the NUC can accredit a university and/or a program but still turn around to declare graduates of such accredited universities and/or programs not qualified to teach in the programs for which they are specifically certified by accredited universities. These kind of unacceptable irregularities being generated by the NUC are possible precisely because of the aforementioned “Nigerian factor” of putting incompetent and/or unqualified people in positions where they are unable to think through problems, let alone solve such problems i.e. putting square pegs in round holes. The loser can only be the Nigerian educational system of which academic standards bear the brunt.

Also in this context that the recent lowering of UTME cut off marks for universities in Nigeria to 120/400 or 30% has been described as lowering the bar for half-baked students who consider university education as merely a rite of passage to get university degrees that reduce in value daily. Accordingly, the Vice Chancellor of the University of Ibadan - Nigeria’s premier and highest ranking university, Professor Idowu Olayinka opined “it should worry Nigerians that 30% is now acceptable for
admission into universities....Yet we complain about the poor quality of our graduates.... You can hardly build something on nothing”. (Tayo 2017). Similarly, commenting on the state’s successive feats of first position in the National Examinations Council (NECO) exams in Nigeria recently, the Ekiti state governor is reported to have noted that developing education is different from infrastructural development. The governor ascribed the state’s educational feats to giving teachers their due respect and not meddling into their administrative affairs (Ani 2017). In so far as this is true, the continued lack of autonomy for universities significantly contributes to falling academic standards in Nigeria.

Education in Nigeria in the ECOWAS Context

Education and Human Development

From Table 2 below, the Nigerian government does not report on its capital expenditure for education. Investigations reveal the government aggregates it under the Social and Community Services subhead which comprises expenditures for education, health, and other social and community services. This is the kind of deliberate and entrenched lack of integrity and seriousness on the part of government that makes it almost impossible for both career civil servants and elected government officials to be held accountable for non-performance on important developmental goals such as education and health. In this respect, the Federal Ministry of Finance and the Office of the Accountant-General of the Federation are completely responsible for this shoddy and highly suspicious state of affairs which could be an avenue for covering corruption.
Table 2: ECOWAS Countries Education Achievements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HDI rank</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>GovtExpd on Educ (% of GDP)</th>
<th>Empl to Pop ratio</th>
<th>Labour force participation rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>122</td>
<td>Cabo Verde</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>60.9</td>
<td>68.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>139</td>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>72.1</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>152</td>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>??</td>
<td>53.1</td>
<td>56.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>162</td>
<td>Senegal</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>51.7</td>
<td>57.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>166</td>
<td>Togo</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>74.6</td>
<td>80.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>167</td>
<td>Benin</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>70.9</td>
<td>71.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>171</td>
<td>Côte d'Ivoire</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>60.6</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>173</td>
<td>Gambia</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>77.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>175</td>
<td>Mali</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>60.6</td>
<td>66.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>177</td>
<td>Liberia</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>58.4</td>
<td>60.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>178</td>
<td>Guinea-Bissau</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>67.2</td>
<td>72.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>179</td>
<td>Sierra Leone</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>64.5</td>
<td>66.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>183</td>
<td>Guinea</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>80.9</td>
<td>82.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>185</td>
<td>Burkina Faso</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>81.1</td>
<td>83.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>187</td>
<td>Niger</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>62.9</td>
<td>64.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: HDR 2016

It is very telling and should be a great embarrassment to the Nigerian government that a UN world document on human development continues to report lack of data to establish Nigeria’s position on human development in education. Nevertheless, from available data for ratio of employment to population (53.1) and labor force participation rate (56.3) and in the ECOWAS context, Government expenditure on Education as a percentage of gross domestic product (GDP) in Nigeria is probably under 2%. It is also very telling that Nigerian government does not report disaggregate expenditure on Education as a percentage of GDP.

It is not surprising therefore that Table 3 reports that only 41% of Nigerians trust the Federal Government i.e. the government of Nigeria commands the least vote of confidence (41%) from the citizens amongst the ECOWAS Member States even though the Education quality is reported to be about average. Burkina Faso has the top position with a vote of confidence of 67% from her citizens.
### Table 3: ECOWAS Countries Perception of Wellbeing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HDI rank</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Education quality</th>
<th>Health care quality</th>
<th>Standard of living</th>
<th>Overall life satisfaction index</th>
<th>Confidence in judicial system</th>
<th>Trust in national government</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>122</td>
<td>Cabo Verde</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>139</td>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>44</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>152</td>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>162</td>
<td>Senegal</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>166</td>
<td>Togo</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>167</td>
<td>Benin</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>171</td>
<td>Côte d'Ivoire</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>173</td>
<td>Gambia</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>175</td>
<td>Mali</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>177</td>
<td>Liberia</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>178</td>
<td>Guinea-Bissau</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>179</td>
<td>Sierra Leone</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>183</td>
<td>Guinea</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>185</td>
<td>Burkina Faso</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>187</td>
<td>Niger</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** HDR 2016

### Education and Global Competitiveness

The *Global Competitiveness Report (GCR)* produced by the World Economic Forum (WEF) provides comprehensive assessment of national competitiveness worldwide, including insight into the drivers of world productivity and prosperity. The report captures various aspects of competitiveness in 12 pillars, which make up a Global Competitiveness Index (GCI). The 12 pillars of the GCI have 3 sub-indices: Basic Requirements; Efficiency Enhancers and Innovation & Sophistication Factors to highlight stages of economic development. Higher education where universities belong is considered as an efficiency enhancer under Pillar 5. From Table 4, all the ECOWAS countries perform poorly in terms of global competitiveness and Nigeria is at the bottom 10% in overall ranking still struggling with basic requirements in the factor driven first stage of economic development. Although Nigeria has the highest ECOWAS competitiveness in terms of efficiency enhancers, higher education is not responsible for the efficiency score since Nigeria’s performance in higher education is one of the lowest in ECOWAS, being third from the bottom position. Nigeria’s relatively high competitiveness in terms of efficiency enhancers within ECOWAS is driven mainly by Pillar 7 on Labor Market Efficiency.
Conclusion

It is worrisome that unlike other African countries in their vision plans for similar periods, Nigeria does not give high priority to education as instrumental for fostering socio-economic transformation in the lives of the people. Nigeria’s ERGP does not consider Education a priority sector, neither does it indicate in any form that Education has “potential to drive growth and contribute to GDP growth”, nor that it has “ability to respond strongly to stimulus”, or that it has “the flexibility of production methods and capacity to innovate and generate large-scale employment”. Hence, while the ERGP document contains few “Education Strategies”, executing anything about education or improving human capital is not a priority in the ERGP. Moreover, the ERGP’s touted plan to “Introduce post-university skills development institutions (PUSDIs)” itself is a tacit admission to the failure of Nigeria’s universities to deliver graduates with necessary requisite skills to develop the country.

It appears developers of this ERGP and the policy makers behind it did not learn much lessons from Nigeria’s deep recession and the fact that growth without development played a very significant role in triggering the recession. It is instructive that an economy which in the 10 years between 2005 and 2015 grew at an average 6.3 per cent annually only to plunge into a lingering recession in the 11th year in 2016 was not a case of “structural challenges” but structural neglect; whereby the economy is highly dependent on the oil and gas sector which accounts for just 10 per cent of GDP whilst neglecting the other sectors that account for about 90 per cent of GDP. Just like other

---

**Table 4: Subindex Efficiency Enhancers - Pillar 5**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ECOWAS Region</th>
<th>GCI rank</th>
<th>SUB-INDEX: Efficiency Enhancers</th>
<th>Pillar 5: Higher Education &amp; Training</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rank</td>
<td>Score</td>
<td>Rank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Côte d’Ivoire</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senegal</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cape Verde</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gambia</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mali</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benin</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberia</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sierra Leone</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>134</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

national plans before it, the ERGP is largely growth oriented. Unless and until policy
makers understand the differences between growth and development and that the two
are not synonymous and focus appropriately, Nigeria will yet remain in a quagmire of
stunted development with unending cycles of growth without development. It is the
people that develop a place. Develop the people and the place will become developed.

This is a sad but true reflection of the falling academic standards in Nigerian
Universities; playing to the gallery and lip service; for which the government/national
universities commission (NUC) bears significant blame. A well-rounded
multidimensional education is what sustains development and should be the practice
championed by NUC. It is instructive that Nigerian government commands the least
vote of confidence (41%) from the citizens amongst the ECOWAS Member States.

**Recommendations**

The paper therefore recommends as follows:

1. As with the new global thinking and in line with SDGs, education should be a
   priority in Nigeria and Nigerian universities should be treated as mind-set
   transformation agents that enable graduates to build capacity for curiosity,
   creativity and critical thinking for a future of solving the challenges of national
development. To this end, university education should be made more relevant
to societal needs.

2. The current one-dimensional tertiary education being championed by NUC be
   replaced with multidimensional education and university curricula be
   redesigned for knowledge application.

3. University education must be thematic, driven by research, innovation and
   problem-solving based approaches. To this end, bureaucratic bottlenecks that
   prevent universities’ consultancy services from competing favourably with
   their counterparts in the labour market should be removed.

4. The National Universities Commission (NUC) should ensure and/or protect
   university autonomy and academic freedom and also ensure that university
   curricula emphasizes indigenous technology and cultural heritage.

5. Multinational companies operating in Nigeria should be made to set aside a
   fraction of their profits for research support in universities as they do in other
developed countries.
References


Anumnu, S. I. (undated). The role of National Universities Commission in University Administration: A Critique


QS World University Rankings (2018).


Introduction

A major factor affecting school performance in Nigeria no doubt is the health and nutrition of students. Moreover, their health and nutrition also affect their future productivity in the work force. The study examined the rationale for the present government under the Economic Recovery Growth Plan (ERGP) framework to vigorously pursue investment in Nigerian people so as to ensure their sustainable livelihoods and to achieve the desired national development aspiration. The approach used in the study is descriptive but mostly analytical. The data are from secondary sources; from the publications of the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN), National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) and the World Bank Global Development Indicator. Evidence-based statistics from the study have shown that human development indicators hinged on Human Development Index (HDI) and anchored on long and healthy life, access to knowledge and a decent standard of living have not shown remarkable improvement in spite of the various economic policy changes and directions of the economy. Therefore, it behooves on the current government through the ERGP framework to focus on strict policy implementation of the plan document and beam searchlight on ensuring and improving accessibility, affordability and quality of education, health care delivery mechanisms and personal income across the
six geo-political zones by reviewing for effectiveness the extant education and health, income and employment policies in Nigeria.

**Background to the Study/Statement of the Problem**

National development planning is a deliberate, comprehensive, time-specific effort, initiated and sustained by the central government for the purpose of creating and maintaining conditions that will accelerate economic growth and social development. Meanwhile, growth and development requires a long-term perspective to frame short term trade-offs. A long-term plan enables the government and society to deal with the inevitable short-term turbulences in a nation's progress (Adeoye, 2008; 2011).

National development planning has occupied the attention of Nigerian political leaders and the civil society for decades now. It has come in different shades and forms, and has been couched in different policy garbs. For emphasis, outside the 'Development Plans', previous development efforts include: Operation Feed the Nation, Green Revolution, Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP), Vision 2010, Vision 20:2020, 7 Point Agenda, the Agriculture Transformation Agenda (ATA) and most currently the Economic Recovery Growth Plan (ERGP), which incidentally shapes the focus of this study.

Nigeria has the potential of becoming a major player in the global economy by virtue of its human and natural resources endowments. However since 1960 to date, the Nigerian economy has focused more on crude oil export rather than agriculture, solid mineral, and tourism just to mention but few the numerous sectors that can leverage the growth of the Nigerian economy. Oil and the proceeds accounts for more than 95 percent of exports and foreign exchange earnings of the Nigerian economy while agriculture, manufacturing and other sectors accounts for less than one percent of total exports. The high economic growth rate recorded during 2011 – 2015, which averaged 4.8 per cent per annum mainly driven by higher oil prices, was largely non-inclusive, highly import dependent, consumption driven and undiversified economy base. Declining quality of education, health, low per capita income and high unemployment rate poses serious impediments to the development of the economy. Of the approximate 6 million Nigerians graduating annually from the educational system, only about 10% are often employed, thereby leaving about 4.5 million to enter into the labour market annually (a combination of unemployment, under-employment, low-wage employment and social exclusion) (FGN, 2009). The deficit in educational quality has grossly undermined the competitiveness of the Nigerian
labour forces in national and global labour market, making it difficult for qualified Nigerians to access jobs globally. Despite the emerging global hunt for talents, especially in the ICT sub-sector. The inability of many of our youths to gain access to global centers of learning excellence for the furtherance of their education has further compounded the issue of unemployment at home.

Nigeria finds herself faced with the paradox of the simultaneous existence of surplus labour and scarcity of skills, due to a persistent skills mismatch which further compounds the unemployment problem. Formal and informal education and training lacks focus and coordination in line with the development needs of the Nigerian economy while the content and quality of Nigerian education is in crisis with strikes at different educational institution across the country. At the primary level, the regular assessment of student’s achievement remains rare. Meanwhile, the existing assessments that exist are not encouraging. At the university level, religious studies and civil service needs have resulted in the development needs of the humanities and the social sciences and the neglect of the natural sciences, applied technology, business – related skills and research capabilities. Another major factor affecting school performance is the health and nutrition of students. Their health and nutrition also affect their future productivity in the workforce. Health infrastructure, represented by the establishment of tertiary, secondary and primary hospital, has suffered deterioration similar to the other sector. The sector is characterized by inadequate funding, lack of drugs, medical personnel and equipment. The decay and neglect in the health sector has led to serious brain drain as many health specialists have left the country for greener pastures. Majority of Nigerians remain under the burden of poverty, inequality and unemployment.

General economic performance was also seriously undermined by deplorable infrastructure, corruption and mismanagement of public finances. Decades of consumption and high oil price – driven growth led to an economy with a positive but jobless growth trajectory (FGN, 2016). After more than a decade of economic growth, the sharp and continuous decline in crude oil prices since mid-2014, along with a failure to diversify the sources of revenue and foreign exchange in the economy, led to a recession in the second quarter of 2016. The challenges in the oil sector, including sabotage of oil export terminals in the Niger Delta, negatively impacted government revenue and export earning, as well as the fiscal capacity to prevent the economy from contracting. The capacity of government spending was equally constrained by lack of fiscal buffers to absorb the shock, as well as the leakages of public resources due to corruption and inefficient spending in the recent past years.
The current administration recognizing the need to maintain a steady macroeconomic balance in the economy introduced the Economic Recovery and Growth Plan (ERGP), a medium term plan for 2017 – 2020 that is built on the Strategic Implementation Plan (SIP) framework as its compass for re-directing the economy to a sustainable growth path. It aims at restoring economic growth while leveraging the hard work and resilience of the Nigerian people, the nation's most priceless assets. The ERGP is consistent with the aspirations of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and the African Vision 2063. The ERGP has three broad strategic objectives that will help achieve the vision of inclusive growth. The objectives include: First, gradually restoring growth in Gross Domestic Product (GDP) to its 2010-2011 levels of 7 per cent by 2020. This will involve; providing fiscal buffers, ensuring macroeconomic stability as well as diversifying the economy by leveraging science and technology to drive growth in agriculture, energy, industry, manufacturing, and key service sectors. Second, improving the human capital base of the economy through investments in job creation, youth empowerment, education, health, and supporting the vulnerable groups of the Nigerian society. Third, building a global and competitive economy by creating a business-friendly environment to support the operations and inventiveness of the private sector. The second objective which no doubt is the cardinal objective of every growth and development plan is the focus of the paper. The key questions to frame the discussions of the study include: What are the lingering challenges of human development in Nigeria? What will ERGP do differently from other plans to improve investment in human development in Nigeria? And what are the possible agenda for change?

The rest of the paper is divided into five sections. Following section one is the theoretical literature presented in section two. Section three highlights some of the trends and profile of human development indicators in Nigeria. Section four reviews the commitment of the Nigerian government to human development together with the tools for investing in Nigerian people with an intention of providing an agenda for change which is presented in the last section alongside the concluding remarks.

**Conceptual Issues**

**Human Development**

Ultimately, the economy is about people and resources. It is difficult to understand the economy and its economic growth without a better understanding of the human development indicators: health, education, income and employment as outlined by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP, 1990). The concept of human
development has been at the heart of the United Nations Development Programme since 1990 when the foundations were laid for a perspective on development aspirations that is today widely known and accepted. Human development is therefore regarded as development that improves people's lives and their livelihoods and places human beings at the centre of all development efforts. It also refers to the process of enlarging the range of people's choices; increasing their opportunities for education, health-care, income and employment- and covers a full range of human choices; from a sound physical environment to economic and political freedom. It involves an accumulation of material wealth as well as social capital. The concept of human capital development is designed to promote development which addresses the root cause of poverty and human deprivation (NHDR, 2015). Human development is however, generally measured by the Human Development Index (HDI), which include indicators on income, literacy levels, and life expectancy.

**Human Development Index (HDI)**

The HDI is a composite of three basic components of human development: longevity, knowledge and standard of living of the people all revolving around the explanations to human development. Longevity is measured by life expectancy. Knowledge is measured by a combination of adult literacy (two thirds weight) and mean years of schooling (one third weight) while standard of living is measured by the peoples' purchasing power, based on real GDP per capita adjusted for the local cost of living(purchasing power parity, PPP) (HDR,1994) Unarguably, the HDI offers an alternative to Gross National Product(GNP) for measuring the relative socio-economic progress of nations. It enables people and their government to evaluate progress over time and to determine priorities for policy intervention. It also permits instructive comparisons of the human development experiences in different countries. The complimentary indices to HDI are: the Inequality-adjusted Human Development Index (IHDI) and the Gender Inequality Index (GII). The trio of HDI, IHID and the GII forms the key features of the current HDI computation, which involves a change from a simple arithmetic average to a more holistic 'geometric' average. Indeed, up and till 2010, the HDI was seen and defined rather simplistically as an arithmetic average of normalized indices in the dimensions of health, education, and income. The HDI and the other complimentary indices capture more accurately, the state of deprivations as well as the attendant disparities in an economy, (NHDR, 2015.) The HDI has been used in five main ways:

1. To stimulate national political debates.
2. To give priority to human development.
3. To highlight disparities within countries and within regions
4. To open new avenues for socio-economic analysis.
5. To stimulate dialogue on aid policy.

Human Security
A discussion on human development is quite incomplete these days without some comments on human security. Human security analysis is an aspect of human development analysis initiated by Haq, Sen and associates. Human development and human security are inseparable such that while human security seeks to increase peoples' options, opportunities and access to public services and goods, and emphasize what can be achieved, human security focuses on the risks, dangers, and threats to human development. It evaluates the degree of confidence that people have in public services and goods, and emphasizes what can be lost when human potential is thwarted (Tadjbakhsh and Chenoy, 2007; NHDR, 2015)

Human development and human security can be seen as two processes that go hand in hand. This is mainly because the major effect of the two is to enhanced quality of life for the ordinary citizen and as such progress in one is most likely to enhance the chances of progress in the other, while the reverse is the most likely possible. Addressed in another dimension, human security challenges the question of 'security' from its traditional conceptualization of the safety of states from military threats and insurrection to safety of the people, for the people and their communities. To buttress the analysis, poverty of the people is conceptualized as a human security threats for the simple reason that it is a threat to the dignity of individuals as well as threat to the stability of the nation state. Environmental destruction, lack of access to clean drinking water, poor maternal health and unemployment are all forms of human insecurity. Human security includes not just protecting the people but also empowering people to fend for themselves.

Profiles of Human Development Indicators in Nigeria
This section aims at presenting the scenarios of human development indicators in Nigeria. At some point cross-country comparisons are made to showcase where Nigeria is or where Nigeria ought to be among the comparator countries. The figures and tables are presented below.
In terms of job creation, Figure 3.1 shows the trend of unemployment rate in Nigeria between 1999 and 2015. From the figure, it is evident that the country which felt better between 1999 by ensuring an unemployment rate of less than 5% has continued to fail in job creation for the majority of the populace. Unemployment rate has been rising consistently between 2009 to 2015 and beyond. This questions the effectiveness of employment generation measures of the government in the present years. Comparatively, evidence from the United Nations Statistical Database (2014) provides facts about unemployment rates in some African countries as illustrated in the Figure 2.
In Figure 2, comparison of unemployment among the six most vibrant economies in Africa – Nigeria, South Africa, Egypt, Algeria, Morocco and Ghana was made. Figure 3.2 shows that in 2013, unemployment rates of Ghana were about 5.3 per cent, 9 per cent in Morocco and Egypt respectively, 9.8 per cent in Algeria, 23.9 per cent in Nigeria and 25.1 per cent in South Africa. This means that the two largest African economies are lagging behind in job creation. Therefore, more still needs to be done in Nigeria in terms of job creation in an attempt to increase inclusive growth process. Figure 3 shows the percentage of the population in severe poverty among the three economies of Nigeria, South Africa and Egypt.
In Figure 3, the three largest economies in Africa were compared in terms of the proportion of their population in severe poverty. Africa’s largest economy has 1.3% compared to Nigeria’s 25.7% and Egypt’s 1.5% respectively. Similarly, from Figure 4, it is clear that between 2002 and 2012, Nigeria recorded the highest population of people living below the poverty line. In terms of national poverty line, according to the UN Statistics (2014), 46% of Nigerians were living below poverty line compared to South Africa’s 23% and Egypt’s 25.2%. Moreover, when poverty is measured in terms of people living below $1.25 per day, about 67.98% of Nigerians were living below the poverty line when we had just 13.77% of South Africans and 1.69% of Egyptians living below poverty line. High level of poverty is not synonymous with inclusive growth.
Figure 4: Population below Poverty Line in Africa

Source: World Development Indicator, WDI (2014)

Figure 5a: Forecast of Dependency Ratio in Nigeria, 2015

Sources: World Development Indicator, (2014)
One of the causes of exclusive growth is in terms of dependency ratio. In Figure 5a and Figure 5b, Nigeria’s dependency ratio of ages 0-4 was around 83.9% while the dependency ratio of 65 years old and above was expected to be about 5.1%. The effect of this on the active workforce is shown in Figure 5b where the percentage of total dependent in Nigeria was forecast to be 89% in 2015 according to the United Nations Statistical Database (UNSD, 2014), meaning that the active work force will be just 11% by 2015. The implication of this is that incidences of poverty will become more intensified regardless of any governmental efforts to curb the situation owing to the fact that the real income of an active worker will fall drastically in Nigeria years to come, because there are mouths to feed. This may negatively affect efforts to achieve inclusive growth in Nigeria. From Figure 6, we can observe the proportion of homeless persons in 2013 in each country as a percentage of the entire population. This also measures poverty in these countries.
Findings show that Ghana has the highest percentage of 1.2% followed by Algeria with 0.8%. In Nigeria, 0.5% of the entire population is homeless, 0.2% in Angola and 0.1% in South Africa and Egypt respectively. Though Nigeria seems to have low percentage when based on its proportion, however, when converted to the actual number of population that is homeless, Nigeria has the highest incidence of 0.5% of over 170 million. This would have also worsened due to the present insecurity caused by Boko Haram (Western education is harmful) that has rendered many people in the North East region (Bornu and Yobe States in particular) of the country homeless. This represents the internally displaced persons (IDPs).
Figure 7: Literacy Rate among African Countries, 2002-2015

Source: World Development Indicator, 2015

Figure 8 shows the literacy rate of Nigeria between 2002 and 2015 which stood at 51.1%. This is very low for a country that wants to reduce poverty and increase participation in the growth process and in benefit sharing. Moreover, considering the status of the country in terms of natural endowment, a 51% literacy rate compared with South Africa’s 93%, Egypt’s 73.9% and Ghana’s 71.5%, is very low.

Figure 8: Carbon Emission (KT) among African Countries

Source: World Development Indicator, 2015
Figure 9 provides information on the amount of carbon emission in kilo tones of oil equivalent by the top five oil producing countries in Africa. From the trend, Nigeria is the highest emitting country among the five countries. This trend appears to continue unabated except in the early 1980s, early and late 1990s when emissions dropped a little, but has remained unabated since then.

**Figure 9: Carbon Emission (Co₂) in Nigeria**

![Graph showing carbon emission in Nigeria from 1971 to 2013](image)

**Source:** World Development Indicator, 2015

In Figure 10, it became clear that some improvements were recorded prior to 2010 mostly because of the implementation of the Gas Master Plan of 2006, which was not sustainable. Egypt follows Nigeria from the trend in terms of carbon emission, Angola and Algeria follows. Libya has the lowest rate of carbon emission among the five largest oil producing economies in Africa. Nigeria’s emission will continue to grow unless due attention is given to reducing gas flaring in the Niger Delta region of the country. High rate of emission means lesser natural capital utilization now and in the near future and this portends danger for the growth process to be inclusive. Inclusive growth will require that all forms of capital (natural and unnatural) are maintained to guarantee future usage. Moreover, increase carbon emission has health hazard as it reduces life expectancy.
The life expectancy in Nigeria compared to the five largest oil producing African economies is among the lowest. Comparatively, it fares better than that of Angola within the years, 1971 to 2013. Libya has highest life expectancy, followed by Egypt and Algeria. Libya’s life expectancy at birth is 73 years in 2006 and 75 years in 2012, in Egypt, it was 69 years in 2006 and 70.9 years in 2012, in Algeria, it was 70 years in 2006 and 70.88 years in 2012, in Nigeria it was about 49 years in 2006 and 52 years in 2012, while in Angola, it was also about 49 years in 2006 and 51.5 years in 2012. If to go by anything, improvement in the life expectancy of Nigerians must be considered to ensure inclusive growth. In terms of energy consumption per/capital, the trend below shows that Libya and South Africa is having an edge as it relates to the amount of energy consumed per capita. Algeria is ahead of Nigeria around the early 1980s and Egypt around the late 1990s. While Nigeria’s energy consumed per capita continues to shrink daily, Angola’s seems to be increasing forward. For growth to be termed inclusive, access to energy consumption in Nigeria must be positive and ever increasing.
It is observed that between 1999 and early 2000, Nigeria was almost at par with South Africa in terms of energy consumed per $1000 GDP. In the early 2000s, Nigeria became Africa's most energy consuming nation per $1000 GDP, but since 2003 to date the country's energy consumption has remained below South Africa's energy consumption and that of Libya. The abysmally low energy consumption of Nigeria implies that more needs to be done in order to ensure inclusive growth.

**Source:** World Development Indicator, 2014
The role of institution and governance is necessary for inclusive growth (Bouma and Berkhout, 2015). As the authors rightly observed, quality institution and effective governance is related to lower inequality and lower incidence of poverty and unemployment. The Figure below presents two indicators of governance among others.

**Figure 12: Energy Consumed Per $1000 GDP**

Source: World Development Indicator, 2014

**Figure 13: Governance Indicators**

Source: World Development Indicator, 2014
The value of the Figure 13 ranges from -2.5 (low rank) to 2.5 (high rank). As observed from the trend, the highest Nigeria achieved was in 2008 when it earned about -0.8 in control of corruption. In terms of corruption, Nigeria has always been ranked high. From 2008 till date, corruption has deteriorated from -0.8 to about -1.2 in 2013. Meanwhile, government effectiveness in Nigeria maintained an upward trend between 2002 and 2006, at the peak of -0.9, but has been on decline over time. This shows that inclusive growth in Nigeria is either weak or non-existing and as such needs to be improved and sustained if inclusive growth is to be achieved. Table 1 summarizes the status of some of the major factors that impact on life expectancy and human development in Nigeria by international standards and by the standards even in most sub-Saharan African countries, Nigeria is very poorly equipped to development its human capacities.

Table 1: Selected Health Indicators in Nigeria

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Life expectancy at birth (years)</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>54.0</td>
<td>54.0</td>
<td>52.5</td>
<td>53.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crude birth rate per 1000 persons</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>42.0</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>13.60</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>42.0</td>
<td>39.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crude death rate (per 1000 person)</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infant mortality per 1000 live births</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>75.1</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>69.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: WDI (2016)*

Life expectancy dropped from 54 years in 2010 to 53 in 2015 according to UNDP (2016). In comparison, this is far below that of Indonesia where life expectancy is estimated at 70 and also in Botswana and Ghana, which is 64 and 61.1 years respectively (UNDP, 2016). Crude death rate per 1000 persons remains at 14 from 1992 to 2001 before it dropped to 12 in 2005 and further declined to 11 in 2006. It gradually rose to 17.8 percent in 2007 but dropped to 14 percent in 2010. As at 2016 it stood at 16. Infant mortality rate on the other hand experienced a marginal improvement in the year 2000 as it stood at 75 per 1000 births. In the year 2001, it was 80 per 1000 births after which it steadily improved slightly to 76 in 2004 and reached 75 in 2009. By 2016, the infant mortality rate stood at 87.2.
It should be noted that under – 5 mortality rate (U5MR) is, according to UNICEF (2013), the principal indicator measuring human progress. This implies that U5MR is the end result of the development process rather than an input because it is the result of a wide variety of inputs on nutritional health and the health of mothers. These include the level of immunization and oral rehydration therapy (ORT), availability of maternal and child health services (including parental care), income and food availability in the family, and the availability of clean water and safe sanitation. U5MR represents a more accurate picture of the health status of the majority of children and society as a whole. This is the reason why UNICEF has chosen U5MR as its single most important indicator of the state of nation’s children. The profile of USMR is Nigeria demonstrates clearly the appalling and uncared state of Nigeria’s children, a major challenge indeed to the Nigerian economy. The top five child killers of U5 are parental conditions, respiratory infections, diarrhea diseases, vaccine preventable diseases and malaria (Dawuda and Gajere, 2015). The table below shows the reported cases of notifiable health challenges in Nigeria between 2007 and 2016.

**Table 2: Trends in Nigeria's three Mortalities, 2012-2016**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Infant mortality rate</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>64.7</td>
<td>69.4</td>
<td>71.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under – 5 mortality rate</td>
<td>120.9</td>
<td>116.6</td>
<td>112.5</td>
<td>108.8</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maternal mortality rate</td>
<td>678</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>789</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>814</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life expectancy</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>50.3</td>
<td>55.25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** World Development Indicator (2016)

As presented in tables 4. All the zones in Nigeria experienced reduction in infant mortality between 2007 and 2016. As at 2016, the North-West geo-political zone recorded the highest rate while the least was recorded by the South-South zone. The same applies to under 5 mortality rate. However, there was a drop from 162 between 2004 and 2008 to 128 in 2009 and 2012. As at 2013, the South – West had the highest...
Under 5 mortality rate while the South – West had the least. The spate of improved performance is also observed in the proportion of under one children immunized against measles. There was a slight increase in this proportion from 41.4 percent in 2008 to 42.1 percent in 2013. The same pattern is observed for all the geo-political zones, with the exception of the North Central and the South – West zones where the proportions respectively dropped from 51.4 to 48.1 and from 65.5 to 62.5 (NDHS, 2005).

Table 4: Infant Mortality Rate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Geo – political Zone</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2016</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>North – Central</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North – East</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North – West</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South – East</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South – South</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South – West</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: NDHS 2013 and 2015

Furthermore, antenatal care as provided by skilled providers improves chances of pregnant women’s safe delivery. From the surveys of National Human Development in Nigeria, it appears that for the entire country, the performance of the indicator – proportion of women aged 15 – 49 and who received antenatal care from skilled providers has witnessed some improvement. The proportion increased from 57.7 percent to 60.6 per cent between the periods 2008 and 2016. The same applied to all the geo-political zones as presented in table 6. The zone with the highest proportion of women in this category as at 2016 was the South – West zone while the least proportion was recorded in the North-West zone. Table 6 presents the report of the survey.

Table 5: Under – 5 Mortality rate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Geo – Political Zone</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2016</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>North – Central</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North – East</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North – West</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>185</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South – East</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South – South</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South – West</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: NDHS 2013 and 2015
However, the case of pregnant women delivered by skilled personnel is slightly different. As shown in table 6, there was a slight drop from 38.9 per cent in 2008 to 38.1 per cent in 2016 suggesting a decrease in the number of pregnant women delivered by skilled personnel. With respect to zonal differences, all the zones, as presented in table 6, recorded increase in the proportion of pregnant women delivered by skilled personnel with the exception of the South – South where in 2016 there was a drop of 0.4 percent from the 2008 figure.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Geo-political Zone</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2016</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>North – Central</td>
<td>65.1</td>
<td>67.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North – East</td>
<td>43.1</td>
<td>49.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North – West</td>
<td>31.1</td>
<td>41.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South – East</td>
<td>87.0</td>
<td>90.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South – South</td>
<td>69.8</td>
<td>73.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South – West</td>
<td>87.1</td>
<td>90.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>57.7</td>
<td>60.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 7: Proportion of Pregnant Women Delivered by Skilled Personnel**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Geo-political Zone</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2016</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>North – Central</td>
<td>42.7</td>
<td>67.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North – East</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>19.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North – West</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>12.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South – East</td>
<td>81.8</td>
<td>82.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South – South</td>
<td>55.8</td>
<td>55.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South – West</td>
<td>76.5</td>
<td>82.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>38.9</td>
<td>38.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Sources:** NDHS 2013 and 2015

One of the strategies for ensuring wide unhindered access to health services is the provision of health insurance opportunity for the people. As presented in table 8 at least nine out of every ten people are yet to enjoy health insurance coverage. Between 2008 and 2016, the proportion of men and women in this category dropped slightly, suggesting that more men and women were covered within this period. The same applies to all the geo-political zones, with the exception of the South – South zone where some men lost the opportunity to be covered by health insurance organizations as the proportion of men not enjoying the coverage increased from 96.6 percent to 98.0 percent as presented in the table8.
Meanwhile, in Nigeria, the first serious attempt to monitor the HIV/AIDS epidemic began in 1991 when the Federal Ministry of Health established the HIV/AIDS surveillance. Subsequent surveys have been taking place over the years till date. Using the results of the National Development Human Survey 2013 and 2015, the prevalence rate of HIV/AIDS dropped slightly from 5.8 percent in 2008 to 4.6 per cent in 2010 across the six geo-political zones in Nigeria (NDHS, 2013 and 2014). Table 9 shows the Multi-dimensional Poverty Index (MPI) in Nigeria. The MPI measures peoples’ deprivations in health, education and standard of living. The MPI combines information on the proportion or incidence of peoples’ deprivations as well as the intensity of these deprivations (NBS, 2015)

### Table 8: Proportion of People aged 15 – 49 years not enjoying health insurance coverage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>North – Central</td>
<td>97.4</td>
<td>95.2</td>
<td>97.4</td>
<td>97.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North – East</td>
<td>98.3</td>
<td>97.6</td>
<td>99.5</td>
<td>99.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North – West</td>
<td>99.4</td>
<td>98.7</td>
<td>99.3</td>
<td>97.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South – East</td>
<td>97.9</td>
<td>97.6</td>
<td>99.3</td>
<td>97.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South – South</td>
<td>96.6</td>
<td>98.0</td>
<td>96.6</td>
<td>95.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South – West</td>
<td>97.8</td>
<td>95.4</td>
<td>97.3</td>
<td>96.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>98.2</td>
<td>97.0</td>
<td>98.2</td>
<td>97.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Sources:** NDHS 2013 and 2015

Information from Table 9 shows that the Nigerian MPI stood at 0.247 in 2013, an improvement over the 0.31 recorded in 2008. Table 9 shows a breakdown of MPI for

### Table 9: Censored Headcounts in Nigeria and Contribution of Deprivation to MPI in 2015 with K = 2.5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Geo – political zone</th>
<th>MPI value 1</th>
<th>Nutrition</th>
<th>Proportion of people who are poor and deputed in Electricity</th>
<th>Sanitation</th>
<th>Drinking water</th>
<th>Assets</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>North – West</td>
<td>0.315</td>
<td>0.169</td>
<td>0.581</td>
<td>0.056</td>
<td>0.436</td>
<td>0.365</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North – East</td>
<td>0.329</td>
<td>0.117</td>
<td>0.696</td>
<td>0.106</td>
<td>0.541</td>
<td>0.833</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North – Central</td>
<td>0.285</td>
<td>0.136</td>
<td>0.528</td>
<td>0.375</td>
<td>0.395</td>
<td>0.797</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South – West</td>
<td>0.154</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.208</td>
<td>0.234</td>
<td>0.407</td>
<td>0.762</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South – East</td>
<td>0.176</td>
<td>0.334</td>
<td>0.302</td>
<td>0.1703</td>
<td>0.427</td>
<td>0.753</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South – South</td>
<td>0.194</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.259</td>
<td>0.263</td>
<td>0.322</td>
<td>0.807</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCT</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.172</td>
<td>0.311</td>
<td>0.289</td>
<td>0.251</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>0.247</td>
<td>0.168</td>
<td>0.436</td>
<td>0.192</td>
<td>0.415</td>
<td>0.794</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Sources:** NBS, 2015
the geo-political zones and the FCT, with the South-West recording the least MPI value of 0.154 in 2013. This indicated that the combined measure of the incidence and the intensity of poverty are lowest in the South-West zone in 2013. Since the MPI represents a combined measure of deprivation across the already defined dimensions, a pattern showing better performance in the South as opposed to the Northern geo-political zones was observed. The Northern geo-political zones have the highest MPI values. However, the proportion of people deprived in nutrition is relatively low in the Northern zones compared with the South-West and South-East zones. The North-East has the least contribution of deprivation from nutrition. The reason is not far-fetched: The most recent development programme of Agricultural Transformation Agenda (ATA) and the Growth Enhancement Scheme (GES) of the recent past administration recorded a good performance in improved production of arable crops and livestock through the provision of subsidized inputs to farmers, while the GES, which started in the Northern zone has had a good coverage within the zone. The deprivation of people in the Northern zones has been attributed to more of lack of household infrastructure including electricity, sanitation and portable drinking water and lack of assets (NDHS, 2015). Furthermore, the breakdown of the overall MPI value by states as revealed by the National Bureau of Statistics documentation indicates that the top five least deprived states in Nigeria were Lagos, Abia, Ogun, Anambra and Rivers, all in the Southern region while, the top five most deprived states in the Northern region include: Taraba, Sokoto, Kebbi, Bauchi and Kastina (NBS, 2015). Table 10 shows the Nigerian six geo-political zones human security index at 2015. From the table, it is only in the South-East that the human security is above 0.50. Residents in the North-West are the least humanly secured, closely followed by residents in the North-East geo-political zone.

**Table 10: Composite Human Security Index**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Geo-Political Zone</th>
<th>Human Security Index</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>North-Central</td>
<td>0.3888</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North East</td>
<td>0.3043</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North- West</td>
<td>0.2967</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South East</td>
<td>0.4342</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South-South</td>
<td>0.4723</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South- West</td>
<td>0.4680</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>0.3299</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** NHDR, 2015

At this point, it is quite expedient to make an evaluation of Nigerian Government commitment to human development before prescribing some vital tools for investing in Nigerian people. Meanwhile, the persistence of institutional inefficiencies, coupled with the low volume and poor quality of many development indices and human security indices as outlined in the previous section, often lead to the assumption that the Nigerian government is not committed to their peoples’ development. For example, the allocation of government budget to education and health, are they in line with the international standard? The answer may be entirely no. Therefore at this point, the question that may be asked is simple. What should ERGP do differently from previous plan documents to improve human development indices?

It is to be noted that the problem may not necessarily be the lack of political commitment but rather the wide range of actions and inactions needed to create effective human development system. Political commitment is needed not just to improving human development in general but to boosting nutrition, implementing focal and major health and education reforms, to confronting HIV/AIDS, and Ebola, to protecting the vulnerable poor. Not only must vested interests be overcome, but human development programmes must simultaneously focus on the needs of the poorest, through basic health and education, and on the need to build the Nigerian society more generally. Taken together, the agitations within the public education system in Nigeria including the University lecturers (ASUU) and non-academic staff (NASU) and health labour forces under the aegis of the Nigerian Medical Association and the Joint Health Workers Union which normally represent the bulk of the non-military public services in Nigeria must be balanced.

For ERGP to reverse the ugly trends and promote investment in Nigeria’s people. The social development targets of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (2030) and Africa's Vision 2063 offers a benchmark:

i. Achieving and promoting universal primary education and other levels of education.
ii. Eliminating gender disparities in education among the geopolitical zones (by 2020)
iii. Reducing infant and child mortality by two – thirds of the Nigerian population.
iv. Reducing maternal mortality by three quarters of the Nigerian population.
v. Achieving universal access to reproductive health services
vi. Reducing extreme poverty by half (by 2020)

For the present government through the ERGP framework to achieve the desired economic goals, political commitment, appropriate and effective service delivery and increased international cooperation must be sought. Although mechanisms have been instituted and they are yielding positive results, replications are urgently needed now at the state and local government levels.

Conclusion and Recommendation

This study yields a number of insights into the analysis of human development in Nigeria using the descriptive but mostly analytical approach. The choice of this analytical approach is to provide an in-depth economic assessment of the human development indices of the Nigerian economy. Overall, the status of human development in Nigeria has not shown remarkable improvement in spite of the changes in the social and economic conditions in recent years following the reform measures. Moreover, there still exist the challenges of inequality, unemployment, educational and health challenges as well as the fear of macroeconomic instability.

In the mean time, the status of human development in Nigeria is being influenced by a number of factors. Basically, poor implementation of human development policies has been the bane of achieving the laudable objectives of development plans and documents in Nigeria. The inability of the government to effectively implement the economic blueprints as regards human development to the latter is one of the explanations of poor living standard and poor human development in Nigeria. Addressing the full implementation, monitoring and evaluation of ERGP, therefore becomes a critical criteria to ERGP improving the standard of living of Nigerians. Efforts should be made to improve the accessibility, affordability and quality of health care delivery mechanisms, access to basic education for all by improving the quality of secondary and tertiary education and science and technology based education for Nigerians through the ERGP framework.

The basic limitation encountered in the course of the study is data availability on the education and health variables. Meanwhile, the relied UNDP reports on Nigerian human development indices are limited and this no doubt could affect in some ways the robustness of the analysis and of the study and its policy relevance. That
notwithstanding, the study gives some useful guidance to policy makers on human development and sustainable livelihoods within the Nigerian context.

References


Introduction

Effective public service performance is a sine qua non for sustainable development. The problem of effective public service performance in Nigeria is caused by corrupt practices that have engulfed the system. It is the contention of this paper that there is a correlation between corruption and public service performance in Nigeria. Thus, the elite theory was found suitable to explain the prevalence of corruption in the public service system as a framework of analysis. The study equally adopted the secondary method documentary method in its data gathering and analysis, these includes textbooks, newspapers, journals etc. This discourse examined the problems of public service performance in Nigeria. It also, examined the relationship between corruption and public service performance with emphasis on budget implementation among other programmes. The study revealed that corruption unarguably is responsible for the abysmal performance of the programmes. The study observed that top government functionaries over the years are indeed the perpetrators of this official crime. Also that corruption in the public service has retarded productivity, economic growth and development of the country. This study suggested that an attitudinal change and promotional reward system to corrupt free officials should be encouraged among staff and government officials as a way of promoting service oriented public service.
Background to the Study
The machinery for implementing government policies is the public service. The effectiveness of public service performance is determined by the socio-political environment under which it operates. As an important instrument for execution of policies and programmes of government, the public service is expected to be competent, and effective devoid of corruption practices. In Nigeria, the economic and political landscape is surrounded by corruption. According to National Planning Commission (2005) “systemic corruption and low levels of transparency and accountability have been major sources of development failures. To perform its functions effectively, public service needs to be divested from all sorts of corrupt acts.

As expected effective public service performance is a pre-requisite for sustainable development. This notion is anchored on the fact that government ability to deliver on her promises for better living is based on the efficiency of its public service performance. Therefore, the inability of the Nigerian public service to perform optimally had over the years constituted a challenge, yet to be resolved. It is a known fact, and Nigerian experience examplified to this, that corruption is pronounced in the public service, its efficiency as well as ability to effect policy directed toward sustainable development goals like reduction of poverty, remains very low. The behavior of public officials which deviates from accepted norms in order to serve private ends is corruption. It is a general term covering misuse of authority as a result of considerations of personal gain, embezzlement, stealing or misappropriation of public funds. Corruption has become highly rampant and permeates every sphere of state and society. Corruption in political and administrative arena hinders equality, efficiency, effectiveness, responsiveness, accountability and justice etc.

Corruption in Nigeria exist at an alarming proportion. In government via public service, it thrives in the areas of project costing; ghost workers syndrome, contract awards and subsequent abandonment, payment of huge sums of money to political godfathers; embezzlement and misappropriation of public funds among others. The impact of corruption on the Nigerian society includes abysmal public service performance, inadequate infrastructure, bad governance, pervasive dehumanizing poverty and general underdevelopment. This accounts for the inefficient and unimpressive governance in Nigeria.

Corruption remains endemic as well as extremely prevalent in the public service which affects its effectiveness and performance. There are instances where corruption
within the public service manifested over the years: the haphazard or ineffective implementation of federal budgets between 1999-2002 could be gleaned from the people which the senate indicted over “an alleged non-implementation of all appropriation Acts since the dawn of democracy (in May 1999)” (Eminue, 2005). The persistent challenge in the Nigerian health sector is human resources' crisis, which has the tendency to cripple the sector. Inadequate investment, weak administration and corruption remain the cause of poor health workers welfare and the widespread inefficiency in the healthcare workforce (Odusile, 2017) etc.

This paper sets out to examine corruption and effective public service performance with the intent to ascertain the adverse effect on the sustainable development goals with special focus on such government economic policies like budget implementation, ailing health sector, NEEDS among others. This paper is further structured as follows; introduction, which highlights the issue of corruption and effective public service performance, the statement of the problem of the study; part two is literature review focusing on conceptual clarification and theoretical framework; section three discusses the problems of corruption in the public service, section four evaluates the impacts of corruption on effective public service performance, while section five is on the findings, conclusion and recommendations

Statement of the Problem
Corruption has become a major problem in government. Corruption emanates from the top level and so, the higher echelons of government are infested with the disease of corruption. Politics has been converted into pursuit of personal ends. The public office has become an opportunity to “strike gold and enjoy loaves and fishes of office”. The sharp decline in the standards of conduct of public service, and in such circumstances, governance, administration and management have lost their relevance. For example the non implementation of government policies, financial fraud and crises of confidence within the ministries and its agencies. The alleged fraud and embezzlement and contract scam involving the Minister of Petroleum for State and NNPC Group Managing Director. The minister had lodged a detailed/documented complaint with the president of the Federal Republic and substantive oil minister, on the junior minister’s alleged sideling and insubordination by the NNPC Group Managing Director, in all matters on high level appointments, promotions, and award of contracts well exceeding 20billion dollars. Another is the non implementation of budgets by the various Ministries and Agencies of Government. The crisis of confidence in the health sector over allegations of fraud between the Executive
Secretary, National Health Insurance Scheme and the Minister of Health which has resulted in incessant strike actions by health workers. These problems are no doubt caused by corruption. Worse is the fact that despite the rapid growth in the size and power of the public service, there has not been an accompanied noticeable improvement in performance to the public or increased labour productivity in the public sector. The pertinent question is: how has corruption affected effective public service performance for sustainable development in Nigeria? This forms the focus of the study.

**Conceptual Clarification**

**Corruption**

Corruption in its many facets has been viewed in several ways just as there are multiple phases of corrupt practices in the society. The concept of corruption varies. It embraces a broad spectrum of activities ranging from fraud, embezzlement to bribery among others. Corruption is one of the most intractable social ills or pathology ravaging the Nigerian state, the effects and implications of which lack coherent and definitive bounds. The simplest definition of corruption is that it is the misapplication of public resources to private ends. In broader sense, however, corruption can be defined as “an arrangement that involves an exchange between two parties (the demander and the supplier) which has an influence on the allocation of resources either immediately or in future, and the use or abuse of public or collective responsibility for private end.

Igwe (2010:14) had argued that corruption is universally declaimed and constitutes a phenomenon in itself and invariably the outcome of a conglomeration of discrete failure such as failure of institutional control over bureaucrats or a failure of the legal system that checkmates the behaviour of those who perpetrate the crime; corruption is a system of deep institutional weakness that leads to inefficient economic policies. It reduces economic growth, like long term foreign and domestic investments. Preye and Weleayan (2011:47) view corruption as the pervasion of integrity of state affairs through bribery, favour or moral depravity. Corruption involves the injection of additional but improper transactions aimed at changing the moral course of events and altering judgments and positions of trust. It consists in the doer’s and receiver’s use of informal, extra legal or illegal act to facilitate matters.

This definition of corruption maybe inadequate in the explanation of the concept. Hence the focus of corruption must be aligned carefully towards the political elite
class, civilian and the military alike. Thus, according to Yagboyaju (2005:78) the concept of what has come to be known as corruption is:

*Any act perpetrated by political class, civilian or military or a highly placed public official aimed at changing the moral or lawful course of events, especially when the perpetrator uses such a position of authority for the purpose of personal or group interest (such as acquiring wealth, status or power) at the expense of public interest.*

Dike (2003) cited in Erunke (2014:32) corroborated the point of view of Yagboyaju (2005:78) when he situated corruption at the highest level of political authority in Nigeria. Thus, corruption occurs when the politicians and other important state decision-makers whose duties are to formulate and implement policies on behalf of the electorate are themselves corrupt. In this sense, corruption could be said to have taken place when public policy formulation and legislation are tailored to benefit political office holders to the abject neglect of the mass of the people. For the purpose of this study we are interested in Bureaucratic corruption. This mostly is prevalent in the public service and every other public institution.

Ayua (2001:11) contended that bureaucratic corruption has been the main target of most definitions of corruption. It arises when for example, underhanded deals are made between public authorities and elements in the private sector in order to get special favours. This include for instance, the design or selection of uneconomical projects because of opportunities for financial kickbacks, procurement fraud, including payments, collusion, misrepresentation, the delivery of substandard goods and services, illicit payments and or receipt of spent money...Bureaucratic corruption also includes extortion, misappropriation of funds, nepotism and favouritism, personal use of official and government secrets and improper exercising of power.

**Efficiency and Effectiveness**

Efficiency and Effectiveness are common and inter-related concepts associated with organizational endeavours (Okpo and Onwubiko, 2006:14). Ikelegbe (1994:5) asserts that efficiency simply describes input/output relations, effectiveness refers to the degree to which an organization can or is able to achieve high output with minimum input. Efficiency is the extent to which the resources of a programme or organization are used in a manner designed to maximize cost effectiveness. It is a measure of how well a programme was conducted regardless of the outcome it produces.
In public agencies and programmes, Okpo and Onwubiko (2006:14) aver that efficiency is often times regarded as a “non – measurable proposition” for the fact that in government and public service, the emphasis is on goals attainment or realization of policy, programmes or organizational goals and objectives. Generally, we can say that an organization is effective depending on whether stated intentions, planned or projected output and objectives are realized or not.

**Public Service**

Public service is loosely defined by Caiden (1971) cited in Peter (2016:17) to mean the collectivity of specialized government institutions or agencies established by law, financed by public money and staffed by professionals and career bureaucrats for the purpose of executing public policies. For Ezeani (2006:8) public service is much broader than the term civil service as the former (Public service) refers to the totality of services that are organized under public (that is government) authority. Simply put, public service is a body or department in the executive arm of government with the responsibility to assisting in the planning and implementation of government policies. It comprises ministries, agencies, parastatal, corporation and such like. Since it is institution established to deliver essential services to the people, it is non-profit-oriented. According to Lewis and Cartron (1996) cited in Peter (2016:18) public service is a trust. Therefore, the citizens expect public servants to serve public interest with fairness and to manage public resources properly on a daily basis.

**Performance**

Performance is a consequence of an action. In the context of public service, according to Prasetya and Kato (2011:15), performance is the attained result of skilled workers in some specific situations. This implies that, it is an act, process or art of performing an official duty. It can also be described as how well or badly a person does a particular job or activity.

Performance is an action that involves a lot of efforts aimed at achieving a purpose. That is the activities of a public servant most especially in terms of his/her efficiency in producing certain quantity of goods and services. This scenario or act has the potential of easily diminishing, truncating as well as stifling the sustainable development goals of the nation.
Theoretical Framework
Elite Theory
There is a growing body of literature on the fact that elite group has been a veritable tool for perpetration of corruption especially at the level of governance. In line with the above, this paper adopts Elite theory as a framework for analysis. Proponents of elite theory includes Vilfredo Pareto (1923-1948), Gaetano Mosca (1858-1941), Robert to Michels, (1876-1936), Jose Ortega (1855-1983) among others. They contend that public policy is the values and preferences of the governing elite. The theory explains that every society is ruled by a minority that possesses the qualities necessary for its accession to full social and political power.

In other words, all societies are made up of two classes of people – a class that rules and a class that is ruled. The first class is very few and performs all political functions including making and implementation of policies, monopolizes power and enjoys the advantages derivable from it. Whereas, the second class, the masses are directed and controlled by the first class. Elite do not only control and dominate the commanding height of the economy, they equally exercise legal monopoly over means of coercion, dominate the structures and institutions of politics and also shape the ideological and philosophical direction of the society (Ihonvbere 2009:13; Ojukwu and Shopeju, 2010:5).

The development of governing elite in Nigeria has much to do with the colonial background of the country. After independence, Nigerian elites which took over power from the erstwhile colonial administrations imbibed the culture of self-serving ethos that is, exploitation of the people and the country for selfish purposes (Ojukwu and Shopeju, 2010:5). The Nigerian elite by their activities have continued to be a cog in the wheel of economic growth and development. This is because they see governance as a means to an end, they are self centered with tendency for unbridled materialism. Consequently, the elite group is not different from its colonial progenitor, an instrument of exploitation and a tool for primitive accumulation. Public policy which includes implementation of economic polices is characterized by sharp corrupt practices by the governing elites and top public servants which has hindered economic growth and development.

Problems of Effective Public Service Performance in Nigeria
According to Dahida and Akangbe (2013:10), Public service management in developing economics like Nigeria since the end of colonial rule and onwards, under
which persons tainted with corrupt genes ascended into the realm of leadership, public service has not been any better. The continued existence of structurally weak unethical control mechanism has helped to create a variety of loopholes that have tended to facilitate and sustain corrupt practices. In this situation or context, unethical practices in the form of corruption in developing economies' (Nigeria) public service manifests itself in any of the following according to Peter (2016:8) bribery involving the promise, offering or giving of a benefit that improperly affects the actions and decisions of public servants whose benefit accrue to the public servant, another person or an entity; embezzlement involving theft of resources by control of such resources, for example, hospital staff that steal medicines and in turn sell these to private pharmacists, abuse of power involving a public servant using his/her vested authority to improperly benefit another public servant, person or entity (or the vested authority to improperly discriminate against another public servant, person or entity), for example, during a tender process but before actual selection of a successful contractor the head of department expresses his/her wish to see the contract awarded to a specific person; fraud involving actions or behaviours by a public servant, other person or entity that fool others into providing a benefit that would not normally accrue to the public servant, other persons or entity, for example, a public servant that registers a fictitious employee in order to collect the salary of that fictitious employee.

Furthermore, problems that derail public service performance can be viewed in, for instance; extortion involving coercing a person or entity to provide a benefit to a public servant, another person or entity in exchange for acting (or failing to act) in a particular manner, for example, a public health official threatens to close a restaurant on the basis of fabricated health transgression unless the owner provides the public health official with regular meals. Nepotism involving a public servant ensuring that family members are appointed to public services or that family members receive contract from state resources, for example, a head of department appoints his/her sister's child to a position even when more suitable candidates have applied for the position. Favouritism involving the provision of services or resources according to personal affiliations like ethnic, religious, party of a public servant, for example, a regional manager in a particular region ensures that only persons from the same tribe are successful in tenders for the supply of foods into the manager's geographic area of responsibility.
Again discussions on Nigeria’s development has also identified corruption at various dimensions and magnitudes as the foundation of the problem of the public service. But in as much as it was accepted, corrupt practices are much deeper than just what we see it as; people being corrupt to get rich or being corrupt to sail beyond the scope of underdevelopment and imperial induced poverty in Nigeria. The public service in a nutshell cannot realize the goal of government which are intended for better living conditions for the citizens due to numerous manifestation of corrupt practices. The acts impede the objectives for which governments in developing economies are meant to perform.

**An Evaluation of Corruption on Effective Public Service Performance in Nigeria 1999 – 2017**

In this section of the paper, we try to x-ray some policies of government that have through corruption like mismanagement by way of misapplication, injudicious utilization or diversion of funds to extraneous uses and outright embezzlement have had deleterious impart on the public services performance in Nigeria. The implementation of budgets from 1999-2002 shows that they were not regarded as an article of faith: that the trend shows a virtual slide into financial anarchy, inability to develop its human resources and infrastructure makes it impossible to plan its investment—thereby rendering it impossible for the expected inflow of foreign investment into the country (the report of senate committee on alleged non-implementation of all Appropriation Acts, 2002).

According to the committee (headed by Senator Idris Abubakar), ‘non-implementation of budget ‘erodes the confidence of the international community in (Nigeria’s) ability to positively reform (her) procedures on the economy in a post –military era.” It further revealed that “capital provisions in all the budgets from 1999-2002 have always been recorded in recurrent budget.” Asserting that “the most guilty parties have been the presidency and the public service, the report revealed, “operation of funds outside the consolidated Revenue fund has continued in clear violation of constitutional Revenue provisions which negatively affects the appropriation of the budgetary process. For instance, although the 2002 Budget made provision for an expenditure profile of N6.2billion, actual expenditure was N31 billion. That “illegal expenditure of public fund affecting budgetary performance that existed within the period” could be glanced from “the grant of N10million to the government of Niger republic without appropriation and legislative approval” (The Guardian, 2002:14).
Another instance of this is the National Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) which was launched on May 29, 2004. The National Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) reforms specifically address the international targets, which were set in 1991 to improve economic well-being, social and human development and ensure environmental sustainability and regeneration. The National Planning Commission in 2004, stated that the National Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) thrust corresponds with the United Nation’s Millennium Declaration, that ushered the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) now Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

Realization of the eight goals of the MDGs (develop a global partnership for development) cannot be feasible when a country stands in isolation without development support from bigger economics of the world as a result of corruption on the part of public service functionaries or officials. Ubani et al (2013:32) assert that the Obasanjo administration through the National Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) reforms boasted that one of the government’s goals was to fight corruption to a standstill just like the present administration has started, but there were traces of official corruption among the elected public officers in collaboration with the public service personnel’s, despite the efforts of the anti corruption agencies.

Also, the National Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) was aimed at promoting private enterprise through privatization and deregulation of the economy, but official scams, non-performance by the firms that got the nod had characterized the “so called privatization” by the Bureau for Public Enterprise (BPE). For instance, the TRANSCORP that acquired NITEL and MTEL from government have failed to deliver in the sector.

In line with the numerous economic policies that have failed the nation is the Transformation agenda programme. Usigbe (2011) cited in Ubani et al (2013:33) has identified the key policies which the agenda was to pursue to include:

i. Ensuring greater harmony between fiscal and monetary policy.
ii. Pursuit of sound macroeconomic policies, including fiscal prudence supported by appropriate monetary policy to contain inflation at single digit.
iii. The budget process shall be reviewed to provide greater clarity of roles between the executive and legislature to ensure that the appropriate bill is enacted into law.
iv. The existing revenue allocation formular shall be reviewed to achieve a more balanced fiscal federalism.

v. Institutionalizing the culture of development planning at all level of government and ensuring that the annual capital budget allocation takes a cue from medium and long term development plans.

However, the programme was faced with threats and challenges of corruption by the elected representatives of the people which hampered the actualization of this lofty economic policy. The policy was affected by the lack of synergy between political office holders and public service officials; bankrupt leadership, embezzlement of funds, award of contracts to friends and relations for self ends. The recent developments in the health sector of the economy is a case of corruption in the public service affecting stability and growth in the nation’s health institutions. Sadly, there has been accusations of fraud between the health minister and the executive secretary of the National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS) (Odusile, 2017:6).

Accordingly, a persistent challenge in the Nigerian health sector is human resources crisis which has the tendency to cripple the sector. Inadequate investment, weak administration and corruption remain the cause of poor health workers’ welfare and widespread inefficiency in the healthcare workforce. No doubt the crisis of confidence within the health workforce is a big constraint to health system development and sustenance in the country (Odusile, 2017:6).

The Findings of the Study
As the foregoing analysis has clearly demonstrated, the study revealed the following findings:

1. That corruption is indeed a frightening problem in Nigeria. It pervades every segment of the national life. It undermines the goals of development.

2. That Corruption accounts for the abysmal performance of most government policies and subsequent collapse of such programmes as have been seen in the discussions in this study.

3. That public funds are often arbitrarily handled, used for private purposes by top government functionaries over time. This act of criminality accounts for poor and non-implementation of key government policies and projects like non budget implementation etc.

4. That socio-economic conditions have gone bad leading to instability in government and retard action of productivity, economic growth and sustainable development of the country.
These findings justified the views of Yagboyaju (2005:78) that “any act perpetrated by political class, civilian or military or a highly placed public official aimed at changing the moral or lawful course of events, especially when the perpetrator uses such a position of authority for the purpose of personal or group interest (such as acquiring wealth, status or power) at the expense of public interest. Also, the view of Dike (2003) cited in Erunke (2014:32) when he situated corruption at the highest level of political authority in Nigeria. Thus, corruption occurs when the politicians and other important state decision makers whose duties are to formulate and implement policies on behalf of the electorate are themselves corrupt. In this sense, corruption could be said to have taken place when public policy formulation and legislation are tailored to benefit political office holders to the abject neglect of the masses.

Conclusion
This study x-rays corruption and effective public service performance. It observed that corruption will thrive in the face of poverty, adversity and hardship. It is therefore incumbent on the government to create an enabling environment for improvement in social welfare system through the payment mechanism for appropriate wages for the public servants and general improvement in the conditions of the people. The introduction of the due process unit in the presidency is to ensure that extant regulations are complied within the award and execution of government contracts. The public service must ensure the survival of this system. Corruption is not about officials requesting remuneration for the work they already collect a salary to do. It is really about frustrating the regulatory principles of economic policies or contractual obligations so that they would derive benefits in the long-run to the detriment of the economy. The result of this is that citizens are now alienated from the public office holders? This has affected the economic policies and effective public service performance of the country.

Recommendations
Following the discoveries and findings highlighted in this discourse, the study recommended as follows, that:

i. There should be an attitudinal change and promotional reward system to corrupt free officials to encourage staff in the public service and government officials as a way of promoting service-oriented public service in Nigeria.

ii. Public service rules and regulations should be backed by political will and the preparedness of government to impose total adherence to rules and regulations to promote good public service performance.
iii. There should be visionary leadership to ensure effectiveness, and integrity, all of which are vital to actualize good public service system devoid of corruption.

iv. Adequate punishment should be meted out to any public service official involved in any act of corruption, no matter how highly placed.

References


Introduction

A typical business cycle model depicts the cyclical nature of unemployment, inflation, and economic growth, but overtime especially in 1970s and 1980s economic theories have proved the possibility of stagflation and unstable relationship between inflation and unemployment. The objectives of this paper are to find the short-run and long-run impact of monetary and fiscal policy on stagflation (inflation, unemployment, and economic growth) from 1980 to 2014. Therefore, we employ Bound Test of Autoregressive Distributed Lag model, and Wald coefficient diagnostic test on annual linear data collected from Central Bank of Nigeria Statistical Bulletin (2015). The bound test results indicate that there is no long-run relationship or cointegration between our policy variables (prime lending rate, interest rate, government expenditure and debt) and stagflation in Nigeria. Also the joint coefficients Wald test of monetary and fiscal policy variables have a no significant impact on inflation, unemployment and economic growth. We suggest that right policy mix should be used to address the issue of inflation, unemployment and growth in Nigeria.
Background to the Study
Globally stagflation is one major difficult economic condition that is common, stagflation is a situation of high unemployment combined with high inflationary pressure that leads to stagnant growth. The origin of global stagflation has been recorded since 1960s and 1970s in the United Kingdom and ever since then many countries have continued to encounter an episode of combined rising unemployment, high inflation and declined economic growth simultaneously including Nigeria.

A typical business cycle model depicts the cyclical nature of economic periods and it is expected that in the boom period high demands for goods and services derives up prices, increases aggregate demand and encourages firms to hire more likewise this ensures increased employment and this is what Philip’s short run curve emphasized on, backed up by the early Keynesian theory. But the 1970s and 1980s experience of stagflation made it obvious that the stable relationship between inflation and unemployment no longer exists (Blanchard 2000). Hence fundamental theories have proved that it is not impossible to have high unemployment associated with high inflation and there are two basic theories that elaborate on the definitive causes of stagflation. The Neo-Keynesian supply theory stressed that the main causes of stagflation is cost oriented due to deficiencies in the aggregate supply matching up with aggregate demand (Zinam (1982), Blanchard (2009), Kerry (1979), and Kraut (2002)). And neoclassical theory argued that stagflation can be as a result of changes in money supply and fluctuations in real quantities (real output, and employment) and these are caused by real factors. In addition, Eduardo (1999) explores the contribution of demand deficiencies through demand-pull stagflation theory as a factor of economic stagflation. While Austrian School of Thought stressed that stagflation is as a result of monetary pumping which weakens the rate of growth and raises prices of goods and services (Stostak 2006). Generally Stagflation can occur due to low productive capacity caused by unfavorable supply shocks such as increase in price of oil making production more costly, secondly inappropriate macroeconomic policy choice, monetary mismanagement and deficiencies that stems from inconsistence in savings and investment cycle.

Many developed economies of the world have encountered the episode of stagflation including UK, US, Germany, France, Japan and others, alongside other global economic fluctuation and crisis which have ensured increased protectionism and enhanced global institutional coordination and this have risk implication for less developed oil producing economies like Nigeria in the global context. Nigeria is one of
The sub-Saharan Africa largest economies that depend heavily on oil as its main source of foreign exchange earnings and government revenue. In the face of global oil price crisis, the rate of decline in growth and rising inflation has continued to diversify the economy. Nigeria has been hobbled by inadequate power supply, lack of infrastructural facilities, restrictive trade policies, inconsistent regulatory environment, insecurity, pervasive corruption and others.

The question here is that in the face of these established economic and geopolitical problems in Nigeria, can our macroeconomic policies be relied upon to restore equilibrium. The use of policy mix in restoring equilibrium and bring the economy out of stagflation have been debated by theorists. Both theories and empirical studies have established the use of monetary and fiscal policy to restore equilibrium in macro economy. Some authors have examined the impact of monetary policy on inflation in Nigeria (Afnofun et al (2015), Chuba (2015), Odiba and Apeh (2013), Olorunfemi and Adeleke (2013), Olanipekun and Akeju (2013), Mbutor (2014), Bakare (2016), Adenuga et al (2012), Falukasi (2005), Omoke and Ugwuanyi (2010)). While Sunde (2015), Holmlundi (2007), and Zhang (2013) found that monetary policy can impact positively on the rate of unemployment. Another strand of empirical literature have affirmed on the relationship with fiscal policy on unemployment and economic growth (Monacilli et al (2010), Mehmood and Sadiq (2010), Nwosu (2014), Ukpere (2015), Aurbach and Gorodnichenko (2012a).

All these studies have tried to analyze the individual impact of fiscal and monetary policy instrument on variables. But tackling the dilemma of stagflation still depends on the effectiveness of the policy mix since no one policy can mitigate the impact of stagflation and restore equilibrium. Many developed economies who have encountered stagflation; UK, US, France, Germany, have used right policy mix (monetary and fiscal policy, structural reform) as a corrective measure. Nigeria equally in the conduct of her monetary and fiscal mandate has tried to fight inflation and unemployment to sustain growth in the economy. Now our research questions are (i) to what extent has the mixture of monetary and fiscal policy been able to restore equilibrium and sustain growth.

Therefore this paper is set to find the short and long run impact of monetary and fiscal policy on inflation, unemployment and economic growth from 1980 to 2014.
**Theoretical and Empirical Literature**

**The Concept of Stagflation**

Stagflation is an economic situation in which inflation rate is high, the economic growth rate is low and unemployment remains steadily high. Or a condition of weak economic growth, high unemployment and high and rising sustained prices of goods and services, while Keynesian macroeconomic theory refers to the concept (inflation and recession) as being mutually exclusive, the relation is well described by the Philips curve.

The concept of stagflation is a global issue because at one time or the other, the economies of the world have gone through the period of stagflation especially during the period of 1960 to 1982. The word stagflation was once coined out during the period of 1960 to 1970s by Lain Macleod.

The first global stagflation occurred in 1970s, and the most serious periods of stagflation were in 1973 – 1974/1975 and 1979 – 1981, within these periods many countries/economies experienced rising inflation and unemployment with sluggish economic growth caused by oil shocks and high price of energy (Kaldor 1976, Cornwall 1994). Again the major causes of the stagflation of the 1980s were, cost push shocks in commodities caused by wage and price controls of 1971 and the 1973 oil crisis. These two factors contributed to the energy shortage that characterized the 1970s, this resulted in actual or relative scarcity of raw materials and there exist supply shock (Bronfenbrenner 1976)

**Stagflation Episodes**

The episode of stagflation was seen between 1960s and 1970s in United Kingdom and this was caused by sever policy errors because UK policy makers failed to recognize the primary role of the monetary policy in controlling inflation (Edward and Nikolov, 2002) and by oil price crisis that lead to supply shock incident. The main cause of the stagflation in UK in this periods were rapid increase in oil prices, inappropriate economic policies and the Central Bank excessive simulative monetary policy used to counteract the resulting recession causing a price wage spiral. Also from 1973 to 1975, US encountered an episode of stagflation that lasted all through till early 1980s caused by wrong monetary and fiscal policy.
The Japan experience called “Lost Decade” or lost 20 years, came as a result of abnormalities within the Japanese economic system which was fueled by speculative asset price bubble. Japan experienced stagflation between 1991 to 2000, then 2000 to 2010. Over the period of 1995 to 2007, GDP shrink from $5.33 to $4.36 trillion in nominal terms, real wage fell, price stagnated and the macro economy experienced 20 years setback. Quickly Japan embraced Abenomic policy which involves the use of monetary policy, fiscal stimulus and structural reform. Unfortunately this policy was not successful in addressing the Japanese problem. It resulted in volatility of Japanese stock market, negative interest rate, and worsened GDP figure (Leika 2012, krugman 2009).

**Stagflation and Philips Curve**

There are enough theories that have been used to describe the concept of stagflation in macro economy; the foremost theory that explains the phenomenon is the Philip Curve. The Philips curve argued that in the short – run, unemployment and inflation rates are inversely related. Graphically, the short-run Philips curve is an L-shaped. The Phillips curve was proposed in the 1958 by A. W. Phillips using wage changes in Great Britain from 1861 to 1957. In 1960, Paul Samuelsson and Robert Solow expanded his work to show the relation between unemployment and inflation. The curve explains the relationship between inflation and unemployment as a direct and stable relationship that depicts an increase in demand for labour as government spending generates growth, unemployment falls, firms must compete for fewer labour by raising nominal wages, then labour rises wage through high bargaining power, and this causes wage increase which is passed on to consumer inform of price increase.

It shows a stable tradeoff between inflation and unemployment. But in 1970s the tradeoff concept of the Phillips curve was debated and theories proved that there is no longer a tradeoff and the stable relationships have been displaced. American economists, Friedman and Phelps argued and maintained that there is no Philip curve but a series of short-run and long-run Philip curve which exists at the natural rate of unemployment.

**Theories of Stagflation**

It is not impossible to have high unemployment associated with the high inflation. And the initial tradeoff was argued by the monetarist economists Milton Fredman and by Phelps Edund, against the early Keynesian theories. From this point we have two main theories used to explain the concept of stagflation.
The Neo-Keynesian Supply Theory:
This theory is based on the Keynesian cost push model. In Keynesian economics there are two distinct type of inflation demand pull inflation caused by deficiencies in aggregate demand and cost push inflation caused by the aggregate supply curve- here stagflation is as a result of cost push factors. The inability of the aggregate supply to quickly respond to increased changes in the aggregate demand. And this formed a disruption to the supply side of the demand–supply market equation leading to supply shocks. Below are some factors that can cause insufficient supply;
   a) Scarcity of major commodities, natural resources or capital needed to produce goods and services
   b) Political and religious upheavals
   c) Policy change for example extremely restrictive government control of production

Resource shortages may affect the availability of raw material, thereby resulting in output drop and continuous increased prices. (Blanchard 2009, kraut 2002, Kerry 1979)

Demand Pull Stagflation Theory
Eduardo (1999) explores the idea that inflation is caused by demand factors that when there is sudden increase in the prices of goods and the supply side at this time unable to meet up with the pulls of demand chain, therefore we experience demand shock. This is exclusively caused by monetary shocks without any increase in output potentials in the short period. And wrong monetary policy implementation leading to sudden inflation without corresponding positive supply shocks can also be a factor here.

The Neoclassical Theory
Based on the neoclassical idea that inflation is caused by nominal factors like changes in the money supply and fluctuations in real quantities (real output, employment and unemployment) are caused by real factors. Therefore neoclassical emphasized that the causes of stagflation are insufficient government regulations and real business cycle fluctuations. In the view point of the neoclassical, real factors determine output growth and level of employment, affects aggregate supply curve only. While nominal factors like changes in money supply can affect prices and caused aggregate demand curve to shift only.
**Austrian School of Economics**

The Austrian school maintained that the main cause of growth in the economy is the increased money supply. Stagflation is as a result of monetary pumping which weakens the rate of growth and at the same time raises the rate of prices of goods and services (Shostak 2006). They affirmed that the causes of stagflation are as a result of loose monetary policy. Increased money supply leads to increase in price inflation with sluggish economic growth.

**An Overview of Monetary Policy and Inflation in Nigeria**

The maintenance of price stability is one of the principal objectives of macroeconomic management. Inflation has been defined by various economists in different ways which aim at the same meaning. Johnson (1973) maintained that inflation is generally and conveniently defined as a sustained trend in the general price level.

Price changes are generally measured by means of three indices namely; the wholesale price index (WPI), the consumer price index (CPI) and the implicit price index (IPI) or the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) deflator. Each is a weighted index of prices of selected commodities in a basket, the behavior of which is taken as representatives of the average behavior of prices of such goods and services in general. In Nigeria, the Federal Office of Statistics has the primary responsibility of computing inflation rate. For the purpose of this study, only the Consumer Price Index (CPI) would be taken into consideration as a measure of inflation (CBN 2007).

There are theories that have tried to explain the main causes of inflation; the monetarist quantity theory of money, Keynesian theory that emphasizes on the aggregate demand as a factor that triggers inflation, Monetary disequilibrium and monetary neutrality theory both imply on the ability of money to influence prices, the purchasing power parity theory of inflation depicts exchange rate as a factor of inflation.

The classicalists and Monetarist have maintained through theories that inflation is caused by the monetary variables and monetary policy is the best instrument used to regulate prices through conduct of monetary policy. Over the years, the objectives of the monetary policy remained the achievement of internal and external balance of payments, price and financial stability and most importantly regulation of prices. The pursuit of monetary policy in Nigeria has two major phases (i) Monetary policy pursuit before Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) and secondly after SAP.
CBN (2015) affirmed that between 1986 and 2014, Central Bank has used various instrument within the policies of money to achieve her objectives. And these instruments includes:

i) Monetary policy rate (MPR)
ii) Open market operations (OMO)
iii) Discount Widow Operation
iv) Cash Reserve Ratio (CRR)
v) Foreign Exchange Net Open Position (NOP) Limit

The outlook of inflation in Nigeria within these periods especially between 2015 and 2013 have gradual fluctuations but still maintained a single digit numbers till 2016 with the figure 15.7. The fluctuation has been attributed to many factors including political and environment factors.

Then 2012 to 2001 maintained a double digit number in inflation rate, there are obvious inflationary pressure against the declining trend in output growth. And the objective of monetary policy includes,

i) Creating buffer for external reserve
ii) Maintaining stability in money market rates
iii) Achieving exchange rate stability in naira
iv) Narrow spread between the lending and deposit rates

Between year 2000 and 1980 fluctuated along single and double digit inflationary rate, reaching the peak of 72.84 percent in 1995. There are remarkable tensed pressures and the CBN continued to use tight monetary policy to achieve moderation in the inflationary trend at this time but the end result showed persistent pressure and disequilibrium in the external sector (CBN 1995). The conduct of the monetary policy was heavily challenged by the global financial crisis. Therefore the bank adopted the policy of monetary easing to address the problem of liquidity shortages in the banking system from 2008 to 2010.

Below is the graphical representation of the annual rate of inflation in Nigeria from 1980 to 2016
Figure 1: annual rate of inflation in Nigeria from 1980 to 2016

Source: CBN Statistical Bulletin (2016)

Also the table below indicates the rate of inflation from 2005 to 2016 with the annual percentage rate of change:

Table 1: Rate of inflation with Annual percentage change from 2005 to 2016

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Value (%)</th>
<th>Change (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>17.7</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>-53.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>-34.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>114.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>8.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>9.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>-21.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>12.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>-30.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>-5.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>11.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>74.24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Fiscal Policy, Unemployment and Economic Growth in Nigeria

Unemployment is one of the developmental problems that face every developing country in the 21 century and globally. A cursory view of the unemployment problem in Nigeria which has been high and rising in the face of declining economic growth, increasing population rate is a case of great economic concern.
In Nigeria, the labour market is characterized by high rate of unemployment, low wages and poor working condition. The incident of unemployment rate in Nigeria is alarming, the population of unemployed Nigerian increased by 518 000 to over 1.45million from 2015 to 2016 (National Bureau of Statistic 2016) and among the causes are epileptic electric power supply, poor quality of education, lack of skills, negligence of Agriculture as a source of income and corruption among others. These situations have a ripple effect on the aggregate economy; it has caused an increase in crime rate, threat to peace and stability, reduction in investment and migration, and most importantly decline in economic growth and its determinants.

The theoretical views have stressed the importance fiscal policy in boosting aggregate demand and supply to achieve and maintain sustainable economic growth. Fiscal policy involves the use of government spending, taxation and debt instrument to achieve desired result. Since early 1980s till date, the major focus of the fiscal policy have been the achievement low inflation, sustained economic growth, macroeconomic stability, support private-led growth, improve education, and agricultural production and reduced the rate of unemployment. Over time different measures have been taken to ensure the achievement of the above objectives and these measures include low income tax regime, various government expenditure, and borrowing.

In recent times, with the global fall in price of oil, the focus of the fiscal policy involved;

i) Ensuring economic growth and diversification
ii) Enhancing effects of capacity building and diversification
iii) Reducing the rate of unemployment
iv) Expanding revenue base of the government among others
Figure 2. Graphical Representation of Unemployment and Economic Growth Trend in Nigeria


Evidence of Stagflation in Nigeria

Empirical Literature
Impact of Monetary Policy on Inflation
There are numerous literatures that can explain the relationship between inflation, unemployment, economic growth and macroeconomic policy instrument in many countries. Below are some of them:
Anfofun et al (2015) employ Granger causality test and VAR model for Nigeria, the result shows evidence of a feedback relationship between inflation and its determinants also fiscal deficits, exchange rate, import of goods and services, money supply and agricultural output have a long run influence on inflation rate. Only lending rate influenced inflation in the short and long run horizon. Chuba (2015) using a recursive vector autoregression (VAR) model seeks to establish the transmission mechanism from money supply to inflation in Nigeria. He found that the impact of the change in money supply is transmitted to inflation in Nigeria through the money-price link. The insignificant response of exchange rate to interest rate shows that the impact of the change in money supply is not transmitted to inflation in Nigeria through the money-interest link.
Odiba and Apeh (2013) study the effect of the money supply and aggregate demand on inflation in Nigeria using GARCH model and the result indicates that money supply and aggregate demand were the main determinants of inflation. Olorunfemi and Adelake (2013) discovers unidirectional causality between money supply and inflation rate as well as interest rate and inflation rate with Vector Auto Regressive (VAR) model, the causality test runs from money supply to inflation, from the interest rate to inflation and from interest rate to money supply. Olanipekun and Akeju (2013) examine the relationship between money supply, inflation and capital accumulation in Nigeria, the Error Correction Model resultsshow that money supply (both broad and narrow) has a positive relationship with inflation in Nigeria. Mbutor (2014) using Chow test reveals several structural breaks in inflation; the impulse response function emitted positive relationship between inflation and money supply. However, the variance decomposition of inflation shows that GDP was the strongest contributor to inflationary developments in Nigeria.
Beside Bakare (2016) examine the determinants of money supply growth and its implications on inflation in Nigeria. The result of quasi-experimental research design approach showed a positive relationship between money supply growth and inflation in Nigeria. However, the alternative scenario of Nominal GDP targeting is more amenable to a multiple-objective monetary policy, as it generates higher economic
growth, higher exchange rate stability as well as lower inflation rate. Adenuga, et al (2012) and Fatukasi, (2005), find a significant relationship between inflation and money supply in Nigeria. The result of Omoke and Ugwuanyi (2010) agrees with the above using cointegration and Granger-causality test analysis. They found that Money supply Granger cause both output and inflation in Nigeria. While Laryea and Sumaila (2001) assessed the determinants of inflation in Tanzania and the study established that in the short-run, output and monetary factors are the main determinants of inflation in Tanzania. Ajilore and Ikhide (2013) tests the relevance of monetary policy targeting in South Africa and the study indicates that a well- articulated monetary policy have a positive effect on inflationary pressure in the economy. On the opposite Umaru and Zabairu (2012), examine the impact of inflation on economic growth and development in Nigeria using Granger causality test, the results suggest a unidirectional causality from GDP to Inflation meaning that GDP causes inflation and not inflation causing GDP while Oyinbo and Rekvot (2014) find no causality between inflationary trend and economic growth.

**Impact of Monetary Policy on unemployment**

Eita and Ashipala (2010) using Engel – Granger two step models for Namibia finds that unemployment is affected by actual output, inflation, investment and aggregate demand. They did not consider monetary policy a factor that will affect unemployment, while on the contrary Sunde (2015) investigates the impact of monetary policy on unemployment using VAR model for Namibia and the result indicates that monetary policy affects unemployment positively in the short run. Alexius and Holmlundi (2007) with structural VAR Model, check the effect of monetary policy on Swedish unemployment fluctuations and found that 30 per cent of fluctuation in unemployment are caused by monetary shocks. While Fabian et al (2000), using structural VAR model explores the determinants of unemployment in Italy, they affirmed that unemployment is caused by non-demand factors: productivity and labour supply shocks temporary and permanently by shocks to the wage bargaining schedule. Zhang (2013) using dynamic stochastic general equilibrium model with financial and labour market frictions on Canadian data, the analysis reveals that in long run unemployment fluctuations are driven by shocks to firm’s net worth and production technology in the non-tradable sector.

**Impact of Fiscal Policy on Inflation**

The relationship between fiscal policy and inflation has not been widely researched; however there are good number of literatures reviewed here, Rother (2004) use
GARCH Model for 15 OECD countries, the study finds that fiscal policy has an important impact on CPI inflation volatility and the result is robust. Dupor (2016) finds no effect of fiscal policy on inflation; Olayungbo 2013 using an asymmetry causality test examines the impact of government spending on inflation in Nigeria and discovers a unidirectional causality from negative government expenditure changes to high inflation. Mehrara (2016) using smooth transition regression model shows that in regime of tight monetary or low growth of liquidity, government expenditure is not inflationary, while in expansionary regime or increases in money supply has more effect on inflation. Han and Mulligan (2002) examine the correlation between public expenditure and the size of the government, the result indicates positive and significant relationship exiting between inflation and the size of the government. In US, Ezirim et al (2008), explore the causality between public expenditure and inflation using co-integration and granger causality test and concludes that inflation is positively related to public expenditure. Surjaningsih et al (2012), examine the impact of fiscal policy on inflation and output in Indonesia, the result of the VECM on quarterly data shows that government spending is more effective to stimulate economic growth during recession period while increase in government spending causes decrease in inflation while tax increase leads to increased inflation.

Impact of Fiscal policy on unemployment and Economic Growth

Demand and output has a direct relationship with the number of jobs to be created in the labour market and the use of fiscal policy in controlling aggregate demand is important, if inflation is to be controlled and growth achieved. Monacilli et al. (2010) employ VAR model to check the effect of fiscal policy on labour market variables in the United States. The study finds that fiscal policy have an increased effect on GDP and a ripple effect on employment of labour of about 1.3 million jobs. In addition, hour and employment also rise significantly in response to a government spending stock.

Mehmood and Sadiq (2010) examined the relationship between government expenditure and unemployment rate in Pakistan for the period 1976 to 2010, using an error correction modeling technique, their result revealed that a negative relationship exists between government expenditure and Unemployment rate in Pakistan. Mihov (2003) suggest that discrentional fiscal policies have contributed significantly to output volatility in wide range of country, Also Nwosa (2014) employ an Ordinary Least square (OLS) estimation technique, and discovers that government expenditure has positive and significant impact on unemployment rate. Auerbach and Gorodnichenko (2012a) examined the relationship between government purchases
and unemployment in Nigeria, using an error correction modeling technique. He found a significant negative relationship which means that an increase in government purchases leads to a reduction in unemployment rate. While Ukpere (2015) utilize multiple regression for Nigeria and reveals that positive correlation exists between government expenditure and economic growth.

Samira and Khalil (2015) test the government civil expenditures effect on unemployment rate in Iran using VAR and VEM. The long period relationship was analyzed and a negative and meaningful relation of total government civil expenditure on unemployment rate was established. Umut (2015) using VAR technique for Netherland, the study reveals that fiscal shocks exert significant impact on GDP, Unemployment rate, Consumption and Investment. For OECD Countries, Holden and Sparrman (2016) estimated the effect of government purchases on unemployment, they conclude that an increase in government purchases equal to one percent of GDP reduces unemployment by about 0.3 percentage point in the same year. The effect is greater and more persistent under less “employment-friendly” labour market institutions, and greater and more persistent under a fixed exchange rate regime than under a floating regime. The effect is also greater in downturns than in booms. The effect on unemployment reflects a corresponding positive effect of increased government purchases on employment to population rate. Agu et al (2015), employ multiple regression on a set of Nigeria data and finds positive correlation between government expenditure and economic growth.

Perotti (2002) sets up a VAR for 5 OECD countries to study the impact of fiscal policy on GDP and its components, the price level and the short term interest rate. He finds a small positive impact of fiscal policies on prices about 4 quarters after the shock for all countries excluding the US, while he also points to a relatively large degree of uncertainty around these results. For the four largest euro area countries, also Marcellino (2002) finds a small positive relationship, although differences across countries are large. For the US, Perotti’s findings are supported by Fatas and Mihov (2002). Similarly, Mountford and Uhlig (2002) report for the US a weak link between fiscal policies and inflation which depends to a large extent on the respective model specification.

Adeoye (2006) analyzed the impact of fiscal policy on economic growth in Nigeria; he finds that public investment negatively affects output growth implying that public expenditure has a crowding out effect on private investment. Omitogun and Ayinla
(2007) examined empirically the contribution of fiscal policy in the achievement of sustainable economic growth in Nigeria, the result showed no impact. While Amin (1999) finds positive impact for Cameroon. Chuku (2010) used quarterly data to explore the monetary and fiscal policy interactions in Nigeria using vector autoregression (VAR) model the result indicates that monetary and fiscal policies in Nigeria have interacted in a counteractive manner for most of the sample period (1980-1994), while at other periods, no symmetric pattern of interaction between the two policy variables was observed. Ogbole, Amadi, and Essi (2011) examine fiscal policy and its impact on economic growth in Nigeria. The study involves comparative analysis of the impact of fiscal policy on economic growth in Nigeria during regulation and deregulation periods. Results showed that there is difference in the effectiveness of fiscal policy in stimulating economic growth during and after regulation period.

**Methodology**

**Model Specification**
There are three basic structural model CBN (2007) used to drive the causes of inflation in Nigeria and equally many empirical studies have employed other models and methodology to check the determinate and cointegration between inflation and other variables, for example; Mordi (2007), Ogbuagu and Ewubare (2014) used open economy model, Chuba (2015) employed recursive VAR model and Anfofun et al (2015).

We are adopting the model used by Ogbuagu and Ewubare (2014) that is an Open Economy Structural Model by CBN (2007) to capture the effect of monetary and fiscal policy on inflation, unemployment and economic growth (stagflation).

Therefore, our linear specified model is as;

\[
\text{Infl}_t + \text{unem}_t + \text{rgdp}_t = a_0 + a_{\text{prlr}} + a_{\text{intr}} + a_{\text{gove}} + a_{\text{debt}} + a_{\text{exch}} + a_{\text{popgr}} + e_t \quad \text{(eq1)}
\]

The above model implies that we have more than one dependent variable, and they are (inflation, unemployment, and economic growth) which represent stagflation.

In the model presented above,

Infl = Inflation (% of GDP)

Unem = Unemployment (%)
Rgdp = Real Domestic Product  
Prlr = Prime Lending rate  
Intr = Interest rate  
Govex = Government expenditure (% of GDP)  
Debt = External debt (% of GDP)  
Exch = Exchange rate (control variable)  
Popgr = Population growth rate (control variable)

\[ a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_T \] are the parameter to be estimated, \( y \) is error term while \( t \) is the time period.

And our empirical models are thus;

**Model 1:**
\[ \text{Infl}_t = a_0 + a_1 \text{Prlr}_t + a_2 \text{Intr}_t + a_3 \text{Govex}_t + a_4 \text{Debt}_t + a_5 \text{Exch}_t + a_6 \text{Popgr}_t + e_t \quad \text{… eq2} \]

**Model 2:**
\[ \text{unem}_t = a_0 + a_1 \text{Prlr}_t + a_2 \text{Intr}_t + a_3 \text{Govex}_t + a_4 \text{Debt}_t + a_5 \text{Infl}_t + a_6 \text{Popgr}_t + e_t \quad \text{… eq3} \]

**Model 3**
\[ \text{rgdp}_t = a_0 + a_1 \text{Prlr}_t + a_2 \text{Intr}_t + a_3 \text{Govex}_t + a_4 \text{Debt}_t + a_5 \text{unem}_t + a_6 \text{Infl}_t + e_t \quad \text{…eq4} \]

**A priori Expectation of our variables**
It is expected that monetary policy should have reduction effect on the inflation rate following the classical quantity theory and money neutrality theory. Then fiscal policy should be used to reduce unemployment rate and boost economic growth, supported by Keynesian theory and money disequilibrium.

**Data Collection**
Our data were sourced collected from the Central Bank of Nigeria Bulletin.

**Method of Data Analysis**
(i) **Unit Root Test**
Unit root tests are to ensure that the variables are stationary at levels, first difference or second difference. The test for stationarity or unit roots employed here is the Augmented Dicky-Fuller (ADF).
(ii) To Achieve Objective 1: Autoregressive Distributed Lag Model (Bound Test)
ARDL Bound Test is useful when the unit root test result indicates that the variables are integrated of different orders; some are stationary at 1(1), while some are stationary at 1(0) while none is stationary at 1(2).

(iii) Lag Order Selection
To determine the optimum lag length, we employ Schwarz information criterion (SIC) and Akaike information Criteria (AIC) and we choose the model with lowest AIC and SIC value.

(iv) Diagnostic Test
Three testswere performed using LM test for serial correlation Heteroskedasticity test and Cusum Stability test.

Result Presentation and Interpretation
Unit Root Test Result
As in the theoretical literature, most time series variables are non-stationary at level and using non-stationary variables in the model might lead to spurious regression. Hence the result shows that our variables are stationary at level, first and second differenced. Below is the summary of unit root result.
Table 2: Shows Unit Root Test Result

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Levels (p-values)</th>
<th>1st Differenced</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Infl</td>
<td>0.0672</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.0656</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.0710</td>
<td>0.0002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unem</td>
<td>0.9475</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.4887</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.9256</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rgdp</td>
<td>0.0007</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.0014</td>
<td>0.0038</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prlr</td>
<td>0.1861</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.5804</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.6681</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intr</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.0001</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Govex</td>
<td>0.0022</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.0046</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.1948</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Debt</td>
<td>0.5957</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.5035</td>
<td>0.0332</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.1948</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exch</td>
<td>0.9349</td>
<td>0.0002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.5053</td>
<td>0.0011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.9476</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Popgr</td>
<td>0.0597</td>
<td>0.0068</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.1735</td>
<td>0.01877</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.7965</td>
<td>0.0002</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


From the summary table above, some of our variables are stationary in level, and first differenced and this certify the condition for Bound test.

Lag Order Selection
To achieve our objective one, first we analyzed our models using lag 3 and lag 2.
Lag 3 was selected based on the Akaike Information Criteria (AIC) and SIC, because it has the lowest values of AIC and SIC.

Autoregressive Distributed Lag Model (Bound Test) Result for Model 1,

D(infl) c D(INFL(-1)) D(INFL(-2)) D(INFL(-3)) D(PRLR(-1)) D(PRLR(-2)) D(PRLR(-3)) D(INTR(-1)) D(INTR(-2)) D(INTR(-3)) D(DEBT(-1)) D(DEBT(-2)) D(DEBT(-3)) D(GOVEX(-1)) D(GOVEX(-2)) D(GOVEX(-3)) D(EXCH(-1)) D(EXCH(-2)) D(EXCH(-3)) D(POPGR(-1)) D(POPGR(-2)) D(POPGR(-3)) ECT(-1)............

(eq5)
Table 3: Result of the impact of monetary and fiscal policy on inflation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>t-Statistic</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>4.579078</td>
<td>0.572843</td>
<td>5.097</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(INFL(-1))</td>
<td>-0.407868</td>
<td>0.55850</td>
<td>0.730282</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(INFL(-2))</td>
<td>0.356456</td>
<td>-0.407868</td>
<td>0.55850</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(INFL(-3))</td>
<td>0.549629</td>
<td>-0.407868</td>
<td>0.55850</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(INFL(-1))</td>
<td>2.323395</td>
<td>3.65177</td>
<td>0.5577</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(INFL(-2))</td>
<td>5.035749</td>
<td>-0.513338</td>
<td>0.5577</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(INFL(-3))</td>
<td>4.032780</td>
<td>-0.885309</td>
<td>0.5577</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(PRER(-1))</td>
<td>-2.332395</td>
<td>2.871888</td>
<td>0.5405</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(PRER(-2))</td>
<td>2.871888</td>
<td>0.5405</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(PRER(-3))</td>
<td>-2.871888</td>
<td>0.5405</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(INTR(-1))</td>
<td>0.395670</td>
<td>0.423350</td>
<td>0.4736</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(INTR(-2))</td>
<td>0.395670</td>
<td>0.423350</td>
<td>0.4736</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(INTR(-3))</td>
<td>0.395670</td>
<td>0.423350</td>
<td>0.4736</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(DEBT(-1))</td>
<td>0.574282</td>
<td>1.794434</td>
<td>0.1635</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(DEBT(-2))</td>
<td>0.574282</td>
<td>1.794434</td>
<td>0.1635</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(DEBT(-3))</td>
<td>0.574282</td>
<td>1.794434</td>
<td>0.1635</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(GOVEX(-1))</td>
<td>0.347437</td>
<td>2.871888</td>
<td>0.5405</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(GOVEX(-2))</td>
<td>2.871888</td>
<td>0.5405</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(GOVEX(-3))</td>
<td>2.871888</td>
<td>0.5405</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(EXCH(-1))</td>
<td>0.733153</td>
<td>0.770832</td>
<td>0.3954</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(EXCH(-2))</td>
<td>0.733153</td>
<td>0.770832</td>
<td>0.3954</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(EXCH(-3))</td>
<td>0.733153</td>
<td>0.770832</td>
<td>0.3954</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(POPGR(-1))</td>
<td>-373.6351</td>
<td>559.4041</td>
<td>0.5407</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(POPGR(-2))</td>
<td>559.4041</td>
<td>373.6351</td>
<td>0.5407</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(POPGR(-3))</td>
<td>373.6351</td>
<td>559.4041</td>
<td>0.5407</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECT(-1)</td>
<td>-0.067164</td>
<td>2.344705</td>
<td>0.9785</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R-squared</td>
<td>0.870806</td>
<td>Mean dependent var -0.800000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R-squared</td>
<td>0.160239</td>
<td>S.D. dependent var 17.37959</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S.E. of regression</td>
<td>15.92640</td>
<td>Akaike info criterion 8.167994</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum squared resid</td>
<td>1014.600</td>
<td>Schwarz criterion 9.271855</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log likelihood</td>
<td>-87.26792</td>
<td>Hannan-Quinn criter. 8.496290</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-statistic</td>
<td>1.225509</td>
<td>Durbin-Watson stat 1.414870</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prob(F-statistic)</td>
<td>0.47367</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors Computation (2017)

From the above table 3, the P value indicates that there is no significant short run impact of monetary policy (prime lending rate and interest rate) and fiscal policy variables (debt and government expenditure) on inflation, the control variables (exchange rate and population rate) also have no significant impact on the inflation rate in Nigeria.
To ascertain the long run cointegration, $F_{stat}$ value was compared with the Pesaran Critical Value at 5 percent level.

Pesaran table = lower bound value = 3.79, upper Bound Value = 4.85

$F_{stat} = 1.22 < 4.85$

Therefore, we conclude that there is no long run relationship between inflation and our variables (prlr, intr, debt, govex, exch, popgr). Also the value of error term is negative and not significant and the speed of adjustment towards equilibrium is very poor at 6.7 percent. Affirming that there is no long run relationship.

**Diagnostic Test**

**Table 4: Breusch-Godfrey Serial Correlation LM Test:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>F-statistic</th>
<th>0.549341</th>
<th>Prob. F(1,20)</th>
<th>0.4672</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Obs*R-squared</td>
<td>0.775251</td>
<td>Prob. Chi-Square(1)</td>
<td>0.3786</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 5: Heteroskedasticity Test: Breusch-Pagan-Godfrey**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>F-statistic</th>
<th>1.450158</th>
<th>Prob. F(7,21)</th>
<th>0.2384</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Obs*R-squared</td>
<td>9.450131</td>
<td>Prob. Chi-Square(7)</td>
<td>0.2219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scaled explained SS</td>
<td>9.194603</td>
<td>Prob. Chi-Square(7)</td>
<td>0.2390</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**CUSUM Stability Test**
The diagnostic test result above shows no serial correlation, no heteroscedascity and the cusum test indicates that the model is stable.

Table 6: Wald Test: for Monetary Policy coefficients
Null Hypothesis: C(5) = C(6) = C(7) = C(8) = C(9) = C(10) = 0

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test Statistic</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Probability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F-statistic</td>
<td>17.38824</td>
<td>(6, 2)</td>
<td>0.3554</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square</td>
<td>104.3294</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.4326</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For robustness we used Wald coefficient diagnostic test to check the joint coefficient of our policy variables and the results are:
The Wald Coefficient test for the impact of monetary policy on inflation indicates that C(5) = C(6) = C(7) = C(8) = C(9) = C(10) = 0 with P-value of 0.4326 indicates that jointly the coefficients of prime lending rate and interest rate have no significant impact on inflation rate in Nigeria within the period of review.

Table 7: Wald Test: for Fiscal Policy coefficients
Null Hypothesis: C(11) = C(12) = C(13) = C(14) = C(15) = C(16) = 0

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test Statistic</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Probability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F-statistic</td>
<td>17.38824</td>
<td>(6, 2)</td>
<td>0.4554</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square</td>
<td>104.3294</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.3214</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While fiscal policy variables (govex, and debt) with coefficients; C(11) = C(12) = C(13) = C(14) = C(15) = C(16) = 0

With P-value of 0.3214 shows no significant impact of fiscal policy on inflation in Nigeria

Autoregressive Distributed Lag Model (Bound Test) Result for Model 2
D(UNEM) = C(1) + C(2)*D(UNEM(-1)) + C(3)*D(UNEM(-2)) + C(4)*D(UNEM(-3)) + C(5)*D(PRLR(-1)) + C(6)*D(PRLR(-2)) + C(7)*D(PRLR(-3)) + C(8)*D(INTR(-1)) + C(9)*D(INTR(-2)) + C(10)*D(INTR(-3)) + C(11)*D(DEBT(-1)) + C(12)*D(DEBT(-2)) + C(13)*D(DEBT(-3)) + C(14)*D(GOVEX(-1)) + C(15)*D(GOVEX(-2)) + C(16)*D(GOVEX(-3)) + C(17)*D(POPGR(-1)) + C(18)*D(POPGR(-2)) + C(19)*D(POPGR(-3)) + C(20)*UNEM(-1) + C(21)*PRLR(-1) + C(22)*INTR(-1) + C(23)*DEBT(-1) + C(24)*GOVEX(-1) + C(25)*POPGR(-1) .......... (eq6)
Table 8: Result of the impact of monetary and fiscal policy on Unemployment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>t-Statistic</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>0.341537</td>
<td>0.483980</td>
<td>0.705685</td>
<td>0.5068</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(UNEM(-1))</td>
<td>-0.161546</td>
<td>0.399632</td>
<td>-0.404237</td>
<td>0.7001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(UNEM(-2))</td>
<td>-0.085010</td>
<td>0.228184</td>
<td>-0.372550</td>
<td>0.7223</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(UNEM(-3))</td>
<td>0.089709</td>
<td>0.250127</td>
<td>0.358654</td>
<td>0.7321</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(PRLR(-1))</td>
<td>0.287119</td>
<td>0.238338</td>
<td>1.204673</td>
<td>0.2737</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(PRLR(-2))</td>
<td>0.281839</td>
<td>0.305144</td>
<td>0.923624</td>
<td>0.3913</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(PRLR(-3))</td>
<td>0.384558</td>
<td>0.377904</td>
<td>1.039569</td>
<td>0.3425</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(INTR(-1))</td>
<td>-0.018831</td>
<td>0.026935</td>
<td>-0.669120</td>
<td>0.5107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(INTR(-2))</td>
<td>0.051682</td>
<td>0.022520</td>
<td>0.602537</td>
<td>0.5068</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(INTR(-3))</td>
<td>-0.012596</td>
<td>0.024444</td>
<td>-0.515317</td>
<td>0.6248</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(DEBT(-1))</td>
<td>0.006241</td>
<td>0.023865</td>
<td>0.261531</td>
<td>0.8024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(DEBT(-2))</td>
<td>-0.040545</td>
<td>0.023123</td>
<td>-1.746678</td>
<td>0.1313</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(DEBT(-3))</td>
<td>-0.004785</td>
<td>0.034033</td>
<td>-0.440593</td>
<td>0.6592</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(GOVEX(-1))</td>
<td>0.234508</td>
<td>0.231706</td>
<td>0.93673</td>
<td>0.3875</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(GOVEX(-2))</td>
<td>0.127233</td>
<td>0.332729</td>
<td>0.382391</td>
<td>0.7153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(GOVEX(-3))</td>
<td>0.624616</td>
<td>0.341905</td>
<td>1.830080</td>
<td>0.0970</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(POPGR(-1))</td>
<td>62.07023</td>
<td>54.69063</td>
<td>1.134933</td>
<td>0.2997</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(POPGR(-2))</td>
<td>-100.8160</td>
<td>109.5012</td>
<td>-0.920684</td>
<td>0.3927</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(POPGR(-3))</td>
<td>84.44472</td>
<td>91.00032</td>
<td>0.932356</td>
<td>0.3871</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ET(-1)</td>
<td>65.05977</td>
<td>86.70339</td>
<td>0.750268</td>
<td>0.4815</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

R-squared: 0.785918
Adjusted R-squared: 0.0282308
S.E. of regression: 1.688526
S.D. dependent var: 1.746678
Akaike info criterion: 3.97744
Schwarz criterion: 4.925481
Hannan-Quinn criterion: 4.236396
Durbin-Watson stat: 1.593481

**Source:** Authors Computation (2017)

From the above table 8, the \( P_{value} \) indicates that there is no significant short run impact of monetary (prime lending rate and interest rate) and fiscal policy variables (debt and government expenditure) on unemployment, the control variables (exchange rate and population rate) also have no significant impact on the unemployment rate in Nigeria.

To ascertain the long run cointegration, \( F_{stat} \) value was compared with the Pesaran Critical Value at 5percent level.
Pesaran table = lower bound value = 3.79, upper Bound Value = 4.85 $F_{a0} = 1.15 \times 4.85$
Therefore, we conclude that there is no long run relationship between inflation and our variables (prlr, intr, debt, govex, popgr). Also the value of error term value is positive and not significant and the speed of adjustment towards equilibrium is at 65 percent. Affirming that there is no long run relationship.

**Table 9: Wald Test: for Monetary Policy coefficients on UNEM**

Null Hypothesis: $C(5) = C(6) = C(7) = C(8) = C(9) = C(10) = 0$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test Statistic</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Probability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F-statistic</td>
<td>1.394879</td>
<td>(6, 8)</td>
<td>0.3228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square</td>
<td>8.369276</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.2123</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 10: Wald Test: for Fiscal Policy coefficients on unem**

Null Hypothesis: $C(11) = C(12) = C(13) = C(14) = C(15) = C(16) = 0$

Wald Test:
Equation:Untitled

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test Statistic</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Probability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F-statistic</td>
<td>0.983989</td>
<td>(6, 8)</td>
<td>0.4934</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square</td>
<td>5.903932</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.4340</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The wald coefficient diagnostic test indicated that both monetary policy ($C(5) = C(6) = C(7) = C(8) = C(9) = C(10) = 0$) with $P_{value}$ of 0.2123 and Fiscal policy variables with coefficients ($C(11) = C(12) = C(13) = C(14) = C(15) = C(16) = 0$) with $P_{value}$ 0.4340 have no impact on the rate of unemployment.

**Autoregressive Distributed Lag Model (Bound Test) Result for Model 3,**

$$D(RGDP) = C(1) + C(2)*D(RGDP(-1)) + C(3)*D(RGDP(-2)) + C(4)*D(RGDP(-3)) + C(5)*D(PRLR(-1)) + C(6)*D(PRLR(-2)) + C(7)*D(PRLR(-3)) + C(8)*D(INTR(-1)) + C(9)*D(INTR(-2)) + C(10)*D(INTR(-3)) + C(11)*D(DEBT(-1)) + C(12)*D(DEBT(-2)) + C(13)*D(DEBT(-3)) + C(14)*D(GOVEX(-1)) + C(15)*D(GOVEX(-2)) + C(16)*D(GOVEX(-3)) + C(17)*D(UNEM(-1)) + C(18)*D(UNEM(-2)) + C(19)*D(UNEM(-3)) + C(20)*RGDP(-1) + C(21)*PRLR(-1) + C(22)*INTR(-1) + C(23)*DEBT(-1) + C(24)*GOVEX(-1) + C(25)*UNEM(-1) \ldots \quad (eq7)$$
Table 11: Result of the impact of monetary and fiscal policy on Economic Growth

Dependent Variable: D(RGDP)
Sample (adjusted): 1984 2014

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>t-Statistic</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>0.608757</td>
<td>1.015470</td>
<td>0.599483</td>
<td>0.5677</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(RGDP(-1))</td>
<td>-0.710796</td>
<td>0.308045</td>
<td>-2.307439</td>
<td>0.0544</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(RGDP(-2))</td>
<td>-0.599629</td>
<td>0.212764</td>
<td>-2.818284</td>
<td>0.0258</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(RGDP(-3))</td>
<td>-0.607942</td>
<td>0.188907</td>
<td>-3.218205</td>
<td>0.0147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(PRLR(-1))</td>
<td>0.862557</td>
<td>0.600781</td>
<td>1.433716</td>
<td>0.1942</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(PRLR(-2))</td>
<td>1.031604</td>
<td>0.689720</td>
<td>1.495685</td>
<td>0.1784</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(PRLR(-3))</td>
<td>0.547393</td>
<td>0.826447</td>
<td>0.662587</td>
<td>0.5288</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(INTR(-1))</td>
<td>0.050430</td>
<td>0.082969</td>
<td>0.607819</td>
<td>0.5625</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(INTR(-2))</td>
<td>-0.074353</td>
<td>0.083348</td>
<td>-0.892071</td>
<td>0.4020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(INTR(-3))</td>
<td>-0.060771</td>
<td>0.051072</td>
<td>-1.189904</td>
<td>0.2729</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(DEBT(-1))</td>
<td>-0.130968</td>
<td>0.067679</td>
<td>-1.935140</td>
<td>0.0942</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(DEBT(-2))</td>
<td>0.017545</td>
<td>0.074512</td>
<td>0.235471</td>
<td>0.8206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(DEBT(-3))</td>
<td>-0.121328</td>
<td>0.084251</td>
<td>-1.440076</td>
<td>0.1930</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(GOVEX(-1))</td>
<td>-0.860256</td>
<td>0.720010</td>
<td>-1.194785</td>
<td>0.2711</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(GOVEX(-2))</td>
<td>1.219678</td>
<td>0.788024</td>
<td>1.547769</td>
<td>0.1566</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(GOVEX(-3))</td>
<td>0.072994</td>
<td>0.773931</td>
<td>0.094316</td>
<td>0.9275</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(UNEM(-1))</td>
<td>-0.622491</td>
<td>1.065551</td>
<td>-0.583648</td>
<td>0.5778</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(UNEM(-2))</td>
<td>-1.124995</td>
<td>0.657474</td>
<td>-1.710871</td>
<td>0.1308</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(UNEM(-3))</td>
<td>-0.739014</td>
<td>0.760623</td>
<td>-0.971590</td>
<td>0.3636</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECT(-1)</td>
<td>0.344406</td>
<td>0.589737</td>
<td>0.583998</td>
<td>0.5775</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

R-squared          | 0.847414    | Mean dependent var | 0.084074
Adjusted R-squared | 0.433252    | S.D. dependent var  | 6.159727
S.E. of regression  | 4.637206    | Akaike info criterion | 6.037656
Sum squared resid   | 150.5258    | Schwarz criterion   | 6.997535
Log likelihood      | -61.50836   | Hannan-Quinn criter. | 6.323078
F-statistic         | 2.046093    | Durbin-Watson stat  | 2.120914
Prob(F-statistic)   | 0.168971    |                     |            

Source: Authors’ computation (2017)

Model three was used to measure the impact of monetary and fiscal policy on economic growth and the result shows that none of the policy variables including the control variables have a significant impact on economic growth within the time under consideration in the short run and ECT (-1) value indicates that there is no long run cointegration. And the speed of adjustment towards the equilibrium is 34 percent.
To ascertain the long run cointegration, \( F_{stat} \) value was compared with the Pesaran Critical Value at 5 percent level.

Pesaran table = lower bound value = 3.79, upper Bound Value = 4.85

\[ F_{stat} = 2.04 < 4.85 \]

Therefore, we conclude that there is no long run relationship between inflation and our variables (prlr, intr, debt, govex, popgr).

**Table 12: Wald Diagnostic Test (Monetary Policy on RGDP)**

Null Hypothesis: \( C(5) = C(6) = C(7) = C(8) = C(9) = C(10) = 0 \)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test Statistic</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Probability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F-statistic</td>
<td>1.438797</td>
<td>(6, 8)</td>
<td>0.3088</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square</td>
<td>8.632782</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.1953</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 13: Wald Diagnostic Test (Fiscal Policy on RGDP)**

Null Hypothesis: \( C(11) = C(12) = C(13) = C(14) = C(15) = C(16) = 0 \)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test Statistic</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Probability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F-statistic</td>
<td>2.052361</td>
<td>(6, 8)</td>
<td>0.1708</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square</td>
<td>12.31417</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.0553</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Also both monetary variables using wald coefficient test have no impact on real GDP since their coefficients \( (C(5) = C(6) = C(7) = C(8) = C(9) = C(10) = 0) \) \( P_{value} \) of 0.195 but fiscal policy variables in Lag (1, 2, 3) with coefficients \( (C(11) = C(12) = C(13) = C(14) = C(15) = C(16) = 0) \) \( P_{value} \) of 0.0553 impacted significantly on rgdp.

**Diagnostic Test:** Indicates that our model is normally distributed, no serial correlation, and no heteroskedasticity. See appendix for full result.

**Conclusion / Policy Implication**
The main objectives of this paper is (i) to examine the impact of monetary and fiscal policy on stagflation (inflation, unemployment and economic growth) in Nigeria. Thus we employ Bound test of ARDL model, Wald diagnostic coefficient test of VAR and our findings are;
Monetary policy variables have no impact on inflation rate in Nigeria; this is against our apriori expectation and the mandate of monetary policy in Nigeria. Also monetary policy variables have no impact on unemployment rate and economic growth in Nigeria and this is supported by the idea of classical dichotomy or Neutrality theory of money which states that changes in the stock of money affects only nominal variables in the economy such as prices, wages, and exchange rate with no effect on real economic variables like employment, real GDP, and real consumption. Our result agrees with Ashipala (2010), Fabian et al (2000), and Zhang (2013) who found no impact of monetary policy on unemployment in Namibia, Italy, and Canadian respectively.

There is no impact of fiscal policy on inflation, unemployment and economic growth in Nigeria and this is an undesirable policy outcome because it is expected that our fiscal mandate should spur economic growth and reduce unemployment in Nigeria. This result is in line with Mehmood and Sadiq (2010), Samira and Khali (2015) and Gorodnichenko (2012a) and disagrees with studies that found positive impact of fiscal policy on unemployment and growth like Agu et al (2015), Umut (2015), Holden and Sparman (2016) and Ukpere (2015).

Therefore keeping in mind that the most important mandate of monetary and fiscal policy in Nigeria as stated by the Central Bank is price control, that is keeping inflation low while targeting unemployment reduction through GDP growth. Obviously, from our result we cannot say that these have been achieved since there is an evidence of inflationary trend and unemployment is still high, significantly economy has recorded sluggish growth over time. This could be due to sever economic, political and religious factors instabilities in the country. Again the issue of policy ineffectiveness in the less developed countries like Nigeria is also a strong factor.

**Recommendation**

Stagflation is an economic situation of high inflation, unemployment and decline economic growth. This is a very difficult economic situation because it requires more than one policy to control and correct it. Based on our result monetary and fiscal policy administration in Nigeria have been to tackle inflationary trend, achieve economic growth, financial and exchange rate stability among others. But our empirical results have shown that this mandate is far from being reach. The way forward here are;
(i) Right policy mix; we need more than expansive monetary and restrictive fiscal policy to address this. Nigeria need a combination of monetary, fiscal, exchange rate and strong structural reforms to be able to tackle this problem and drive our economy back to normal.

(ii) Nigeria need a stable geopolitical environment that supports investment (both domestic and foreign investment) as this will boost growth and reduce unemployment rate.

(iii) Monetary and fiscal policy left alone cannot reduce the rate of unemployment in Nigeria; therefore government should focus on Power sector enhancement as this have a direct link to employment generation.

References


Mordi, C. (2007). *The Dynamics of Inflation in Nigeria” Research and Statistics Department, CBN Occational, Paper No. 32*


Appendix 1

Result for Model 1

d(infl) c D(INFL(-1)) D(INFL(-2)) D(INFL(-3)) D(PRLR(-1)) D(PRLR(-2)) D(PRLR(-3)) D(INTR(-1)) D(INTR(-2)) D(INTR(-3)) D(DEBT(-1)) D(DEBT(-2)) D(DEBT(-3)) D(GOVEX(-1)) D(GOVEX(-2)) D(GOVEX(-3)) D(EXCH(-1)) D(EXCH(-2)) D(EXCH(-3)) D(POPGR(-1)) D(POPGR(-2)) D(POPGR(-3)) ECT(-1)

Dependent Variable: D(INFL)
Method: Least Squares
Date: 01/05/18   Time: 07:45
Sample (adjusted): 1984 2014
Included observations: 27 after adjustments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>t-Statistic</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>4.579078</td>
<td>7.993607</td>
<td>0.572843</td>
<td>0.5974</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(INFL(-1))</td>
<td>-0.407868</td>
<td>0.558507</td>
<td>-0.730282</td>
<td>0.5057</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(INFL(-2))</td>
<td>-0.866506</td>
<td>0.356456</td>
<td>-2.430889</td>
<td>0.0719</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(INFL(-3))</td>
<td>-0.184452</td>
<td>0.549629</td>
<td>-0.335593</td>
<td>0.7540</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(PRLR(-1))</td>
<td>-2.332395</td>
<td>3.651727</td>
<td>-0.638710</td>
<td>0.5577</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(PRLR(-2))</td>
<td>-2.585041</td>
<td>5.035749</td>
<td>-0.513338</td>
<td>0.6348</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(PRLR(-3))</td>
<td>-3.570258</td>
<td>4.032780</td>
<td>-0.885309</td>
<td>0.4260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(INTR(-1))</td>
<td>0.603844</td>
<td>0.67849</td>
<td>-0.112919</td>
<td>0.9048</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(INTR(-2))</td>
<td>-0.37657</td>
<td>0.295529</td>
<td>0.127423</td>
<td>0.6048</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(DEBT(-1))</td>
<td>0.339670</td>
<td>0.423350</td>
<td>0.802340</td>
<td>0.4973</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(DEBT(-2))</td>
<td>-0.574282</td>
<td>0.336934</td>
<td>1.704434</td>
<td>0.1635</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(DEBT(-3))</td>
<td>-0.114273</td>
<td>0.316558</td>
<td>0.366660</td>
<td>0.7324</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(GOVEX(-1))</td>
<td>0.347437</td>
<td>2.871888</td>
<td>0.120978</td>
<td>0.9095</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(GOVEX(-2))</td>
<td>2.717671</td>
<td>3.213660</td>
<td>0.845662</td>
<td>0.4454</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(GOVEX(-3))</td>
<td>-2.656662</td>
<td>4.755679</td>
<td>0.558692</td>
<td>0.6062</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(EXCH(-1))</td>
<td>0.733153</td>
<td>0.770832</td>
<td>0.951120</td>
<td>0.4954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(EXCH(-2))</td>
<td>-0.335009</td>
<td>1.150174</td>
<td>-0.291268</td>
<td>0.7853</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(EXCH(-3))</td>
<td>-0.598063</td>
<td>1.139040</td>
<td>-0.525059</td>
<td>0.6273</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(POPGR(-1))</td>
<td>-3.736331</td>
<td>5.594041</td>
<td>-0.667516</td>
<td>0.5407</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(POPGR(-2))</td>
<td>-19.55780</td>
<td>47.29999</td>
<td>-0.408940</td>
<td>0.6963</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(POPGR(-3))</td>
<td>301.2331</td>
<td>356.0171</td>
<td>0.846120</td>
<td>0.4451</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECT(-1)</td>
<td>-0.067164</td>
<td>2.344703</td>
<td>-0.028645</td>
<td>0.9785</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

R-squared 0.870806  Mean dependent var -0.800000
Adjusted R-squared 0.160239  S.D. dependent var 17.37959
S.E. of regression 15.92640  Akaike info criterion 8.167994
Sum squared resid 1014.600  Schwarz criterion 9.271855
Log likelihood -87.26792  Hannan-Quinn criter. 8.496230
F-statistic 1.235509  Durbin-Watson stat 1.414870
Prob(F-statistic) 0.471367
Dependent Variable: D(INFL)
Method: Least Squares

Breusch-Godfrey Serial Correlation LM Test:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>F-statistic</th>
<th>Prob. F(1,6)</th>
<th>Obs*R-squared</th>
<th>Prob. Chi-Square(1)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.093531</td>
<td>0.7701</td>
<td>0.429779</td>
<td>0.5121</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Heteroskedasticity Test: Breusch-Pagan-Godfrey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>F-statistic</th>
<th>Prob. F(20,7)</th>
<th>Obs*R-squared</th>
<th>Prob. Chi-Square(20)</th>
<th>Scaled explained SS</th>
<th>Prob. Chi-Square(20)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.709757</td>
<td>0.2397</td>
<td>23.24216</td>
<td>0.2771</td>
<td>1.070361</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Wald Diagnostic test
Wald Test:
Equation: Untitled

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test Statistic</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Probability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F-statistic</td>
<td>14.05818</td>
<td>(6, 2)</td>
<td>0.0679</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square</td>
<td>84.34907</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Null Hypothesis: \( C(20) = C(21) = C(22) = C(23) = C(24) = C(25) = 0 \)

Null Hypothesis Summary:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Normalized Restriction (= 0)</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Std. Err.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C(20)</td>
<td>-1.279173</td>
<td>0.478133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C(21)</td>
<td>-0.904228</td>
<td>1.654303</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C(22)</td>
<td>0.102499</td>
<td>0.483578</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C(23)</td>
<td>0.703424</td>
<td>0.186842</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C(24)</td>
<td>0.440912</td>
<td>0.212613</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C(25)</td>
<td>49.40093</td>
<td>83.56452</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Restrictions are linear in coefficients.
### Appendix 2

**Result for Model 2**

\[
D(\text{UNEM}) = C(1) + C(2) \ast D(\text{UNEM}(-1)) + C(3) \ast D(\text{UNEM}(-2)) + C(4) \ast D(\text{UNEM}(-3)) + C(5) \ast D(\text{PRLR}(-1)) + C(6) \ast D(\text{PRLR}(-2)) + C(7) \ast D(\text{PRLR}(-3)) + C(8) \ast D(\text{INTR}(-1)) + C(9) \ast D(\text{DEBT}(-1)) + C(10) \ast D(\text{DEBT}(-2)) + C(11) \ast D(\text{DEBT}(-3)) + C(12) \ast D(\text{GOVEX}(-1)) + C(13) \ast D(\text{GOVEX}(-2)) + C(14) \ast D(\text{GOVEX}(-3)) + C(15) \ast D(\text{POPGR}(-1)) + C(16) \ast D(\text{POPGR}(-2)) + C(17) \ast D(\text{POPGR}(-3)) + C(18) \ast D(\text{POPLR}(-1)) + C(19) \ast D(\text{POPLR}(-2)) + C(20) \ast D(\text{POPLR}(-3)) + C(21) \ast D(\text{POPLR}(-4)) + C(22) \ast D(\text{POPLR}(-5)) + C(23) \ast D(\text{POPLR}(-6)) + C(24) \ast D(\text{POPLR}(-7)) + C(25) \ast D(\text{POPLR}(-8)) + \ldots
\]

Dependent Variable: D(UNEM)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>t-Statistic</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>0.341537</td>
<td>0.483980</td>
<td>0.705685</td>
<td>0.5068</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(UNEM(-1))</td>
<td>-0.161546</td>
<td>0.399632</td>
<td>-0.404237</td>
<td>0.7001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(UNEM(-2))</td>
<td>-0.085010</td>
<td>0.228184</td>
<td>-0.372550</td>
<td>0.7223</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(UNEM(-3))</td>
<td>0.089709</td>
<td>0.250127</td>
<td>0.358654</td>
<td>0.7321</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(PRLR(-1))</td>
<td>0.287119</td>
<td>0.238338</td>
<td>1.204673</td>
<td>0.2737</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(PRLR(-2))</td>
<td>0.281839</td>
<td>0.305144</td>
<td>-0.923624</td>
<td>0.3913</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(PRLR(-3))</td>
<td>0.389458</td>
<td>0.377906</td>
<td>1.030569</td>
<td>0.3425</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(INTR(-1))</td>
<td>-0.018831</td>
<td>0.026935</td>
<td>-0.699120</td>
<td>0.5107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(INTR(-2))</td>
<td>0.051682</td>
<td>0.032250</td>
<td>1.602537</td>
<td>0.1602</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(INTR(-3))</td>
<td>-0.012596</td>
<td>0.024444</td>
<td>-0.515317</td>
<td>0.6248</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(DEBT(-1))</td>
<td>0.006241</td>
<td>0.023965</td>
<td>0.261531</td>
<td>0.8024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(DEBT(-2))</td>
<td>-0.040545</td>
<td>0.023213</td>
<td>-1.746678</td>
<td>0.1313</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(DEBT(-3))</td>
<td>-0.004786</td>
<td>0.034033</td>
<td>-0.140593</td>
<td>0.8928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(GOVEX(-1))</td>
<td>0.234508</td>
<td>0.251766</td>
<td>0.91673</td>
<td>0.3875</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(GOVEX(-2))</td>
<td>0.127233</td>
<td>0.332729</td>
<td>0.382391</td>
<td>0.7153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(GOVEX(-3))</td>
<td>0.624416</td>
<td>0.341053</td>
<td>1.830080</td>
<td>0.1170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(POPGR(-1))</td>
<td>62.07023</td>
<td>54.69063</td>
<td>1.134933</td>
<td>0.2997</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(POPGR(-2))</td>
<td>-100.8160</td>
<td>109.5012</td>
<td>-0.920684</td>
<td>0.3927</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(POPGR(-3))</td>
<td>84.84472</td>
<td>91.00032</td>
<td>0.932356</td>
<td>0.3871</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ET(-1)</td>
<td>65.05077</td>
<td>86.70339</td>
<td>0.750268</td>
<td>0.4815</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

R-squared 0.785918
Adjusted R-squared 0.107993
S.E. of regression 1.688526
Akaike info criterion 3.957714
Schwarz criterion 4.925481
Log likelihood -31.45028
Hannan-Quinn criter. 4.236396
F-statistic 1.592999
Durbin-Watson stat 1.593481
Prob(F-statistic) 0.460534
Breusch-Godfrey Serial Correlation LM Test:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>F-statistic</th>
<th>Prob. F(1,1)</th>
<th>Obs*R-squared</th>
<th>Prob. Chi-Square(1)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.011466</td>
<td>0.9321</td>
<td>0.306085</td>
<td>0.5801</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Heteroskedasticity Test: Breusch-Pagan-Godfrey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>F-statistic</th>
<th>Prob. F(22,4)</th>
<th>Obs*R-squared</th>
<th>Prob. Chi-Square(22)</th>
<th>Scaled explained SS</th>
<th>Prob. Chi-Square(22)</th>
<th>1.0000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.356453</td>
<td>0.2106</td>
<td>25.06597</td>
<td>0.2939</td>
<td>0.185007</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Monetary Policy Impact

Wald Test:

Equation: Untitled

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test Statistic</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Probability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F-statistic</td>
<td>1.394879</td>
<td>(6, 8)</td>
<td>0.3228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square</td>
<td>8.369276</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.2123</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Null Hypothesis: C(5) = C(6) = C(7) = C(8) = C(9) = C(10) = 0

Null Hypothesis Summary:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Normalized Restriction (= 0)</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Std. Err.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C(5)</td>
<td>-0.437322</td>
<td>0.422234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C(6)</td>
<td>-1.291444</td>
<td>0.517666</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C(7)</td>
<td>-0.811725</td>
<td>0.647455</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C(8)</td>
<td>-0.066686</td>
<td>0.052444</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C(9)</td>
<td>0.057010</td>
<td>0.064527</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C(10)</td>
<td>0.032431</td>
<td>0.042586</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Restrictions are linear in coefficients.
**Fiscal Policy Impact on Unemployment**

Wald Test:
Equation: Untitled

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test Statistic</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Probability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F-statistic</td>
<td>0.983989</td>
<td>(6, 8)</td>
<td>0.4934</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square</td>
<td>5.903932</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.4340</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Null Hypothesis: $C(11) = C(12) = C(13) = C(14) = C(15) = C(16) = 0$

Null Hypothesis Summary:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Normalized Restriction (= 0)</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Std. Err.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C(11)</td>
<td>0.195314</td>
<td>0.048290</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C(12)</td>
<td>0.054729</td>
<td>0.035414</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C(13)</td>
<td>0.058776</td>
<td>0.024419</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C(14)</td>
<td>0.312332</td>
<td>0.365212</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C(15)</td>
<td>-0.167549</td>
<td>0.342328</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C(16)</td>
<td>1.135469</td>
<td>0.193773</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Restrictions are linear in coefficients.
### Appendix 3
#### Result for Model 3

\[
\begin{align*}
D(RGDP) = C(1) + C(2)D(RGDP(-1)) + C(3)D(RGDP(-2)) + C(4)D(RGDP(-3)) + \\
C(5)D(PRLR(-1)) + C(6)D(PRLR(-2)) + C(7)D(PRLR(-3)) + C(8)D(INTR(-1)) + \\
C(9)D(INTR(-2)) + C(10)D(INTR(-3)) + C(11)D(DEBT(-1)) + C(12)D(DEBT(-2)) + \\
C(13)D(DEBT(-3)) + C(14)D(GOVEX(-1)) + C(15)D(GOVEX(-2)) + \\
C(16)D(GOVEX(-3)) + C(17)D(UNEM(-1)) + C(18)D(UNEM(-2)) + C(19)D(UNEM(-3)) + C(20)RGDP(-1) + C(21)PRLR(-1) + C(22)INTR(-1) + \\
C(23)DEBT(-1) + C(24)GOVEX(-1) + C(25)UNEM(-1)
\end{align*}
\]

Dependent Variable: D(RGDP)
Method: Least Squares
Date: 01/04/18   Time: 11:44
Sample (adjusted): 1984 2014
Included observations: 27 after adjustments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>t-Statistic</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>0.608757</td>
<td>1.015470</td>
<td>0.599483</td>
<td>0.5677</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(RGDP(-1))</td>
<td>-0.710796</td>
<td>0.308045</td>
<td>-2.3074</td>
<td>0.0544</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(RGDP(-2))</td>
<td>-0.599629</td>
<td>0.212764</td>
<td>-2.8182</td>
<td>0.0258</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(RGDP(-3))</td>
<td>-0.607942</td>
<td>0.188907</td>
<td>-3.2182</td>
<td>0.0147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(PRLR(-1))</td>
<td>0.862557</td>
<td>0.600785</td>
<td>1.4357</td>
<td>0.1942</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(PRLR(-2))</td>
<td>1.031604</td>
<td>0.689720</td>
<td>1.4956</td>
<td>0.1784</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(PRLR(-3))</td>
<td>0.547393</td>
<td>0.826447</td>
<td>0.6626</td>
<td>0.5288</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(INTR(-1))</td>
<td>0.050430</td>
<td>0.082969</td>
<td>0.6078</td>
<td>0.5625</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(INTR(-2))</td>
<td>-0.074353</td>
<td>0.083348</td>
<td>-0.8921</td>
<td>0.4020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(INTR(-3))</td>
<td>-0.060771</td>
<td>0.050702</td>
<td>-1.1899</td>
<td>0.2729</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(DEBT(-1))</td>
<td>-0.130968</td>
<td>0.067679</td>
<td>-1.9352</td>
<td>0.0942</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(DEBT(-2))</td>
<td>0.017545</td>
<td>0.074512</td>
<td>0.2354</td>
<td>0.8206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(DEBT(-3))</td>
<td>-0.121328</td>
<td>0.084253</td>
<td>-1.4401</td>
<td>0.1930</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(GOVEX(-1))</td>
<td>-0.860256</td>
<td>0.720010</td>
<td>-1.1948</td>
<td>0.2711</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(GOVEX(-2))</td>
<td>1.219678</td>
<td>0.788024</td>
<td>1.5477</td>
<td>0.1656</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(GOVEX(-3))</td>
<td>0.072994</td>
<td>0.773931</td>
<td>0.0943</td>
<td>0.9275</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(UNEM(-1))</td>
<td>-0.622491</td>
<td>1.066551</td>
<td>-0.5836</td>
<td>0.5778</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(UNEM(-2))</td>
<td>-1.124995</td>
<td>0.857474</td>
<td>-1.3111</td>
<td>0.1308</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(UNEM(-3))</td>
<td>-0.730014</td>
<td>0.760623</td>
<td>-0.9715</td>
<td>0.3636</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECT(-1)</td>
<td>0.344406</td>
<td>0.586977</td>
<td>0.5839</td>
<td>0.5775</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| R-squared   | 0.847414    | Mean dependent var | 0.084074 |
| Adjusted R-squared | 0.433252 | S.D. dependent var | 6.159727 |
| S.E. of regression | 4.637206 | Akaike info criterion | 6.037666 |
| Sum squared resid | 150.5258 | Schwarz criterion | 6.997535 |
| Log likelihood | -61.50836 | Hannan-Quinn criter. | 6.323078 |
| F-statistic | 2.046093   | Durbin-Watson stat | 2.120914 |
| Prob(F-statistic) | 0.168971 |                  |        |
### Wald Test:

#### Equation: Untitled

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test Statistic</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Probability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F-statistic</td>
<td>1.438797</td>
<td>(6, 8)</td>
<td>0.3088</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square</td>
<td>8.632782</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.1953</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Null Hypothesis: \( C(5) = C(6) = C(7) = C(8) = C(9) = C(10) = 0 \)

Null Hypothesis Summary:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Normalized Restriction (= 0)</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Std. Err.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C(5)</td>
<td>1.269169</td>
<td>0.550425</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C(6)</td>
<td>0.995058</td>
<td>0.681561</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C(7)</td>
<td>0.408650</td>
<td>0.775746</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C(8)</td>
<td>0.096026</td>
<td>0.075803</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C(9)</td>
<td>-0.051991</td>
<td>0.083344</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C(10)</td>
<td>-0.056365</td>
<td>0.050976</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Restrictions are linear in coefficients.

### Wald Test:

#### Equation: Untitled

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test Statistic</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Probability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F-statistic</td>
<td>2.052361</td>
<td>(6, 8)</td>
<td>0.1708</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square</td>
<td>12.31417</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.0553</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Null Hypothesis: \( C(11) = C(12) = C(13) = C(14) = C(15) = C(16) = 0 \)

Null Hypothesis Summary:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Normalized Restriction (= 0)</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Std. Err.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C(11)</td>
<td>-0.151244</td>
<td>0.066616</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C(12)</td>
<td>0.046223</td>
<td>0.054030</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C(13)</td>
<td>-0.123547</td>
<td>0.080445</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C(14)</td>
<td>-0.980123</td>
<td>0.668829</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C(15)</td>
<td>1.216358</td>
<td>0.785679</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C(16)</td>
<td>0.033424</td>
<td>0.760139</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Restrictions are linear in coefficients.
### Heteroskedasticity Test: Breusch-Pagan-Godfrey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test Equation: Dependent Variable: RESID^2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Method: Least Squares</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date: 01/04/18 Time: 11:17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sample: 1984-2014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Included observations: 27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>t-Statistic</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>-22.25415</td>
<td>19.98648</td>
<td>-1.113460</td>
<td>0.3814</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(RGDP(-1))</td>
<td>-1.908199</td>
<td>0.570285</td>
<td>-3.345043</td>
<td>0.0789</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(RGDP(-2))</td>
<td>-1.197854</td>
<td>0.404353</td>
<td>-2.962397</td>
<td>0.0976</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(RGDP(-3))</td>
<td>-0.563630</td>
<td>0.181421</td>
<td>-3.106751</td>
<td>0.0899</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(PRLR(-1))</td>
<td>3.521138</td>
<td>1.003551</td>
<td>3.508680</td>
<td>0.0725</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(PRLR(-2))</td>
<td>3.19769</td>
<td>0.586402</td>
<td>5.320188</td>
<td>0.0336</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(PRLR(-3))</td>
<td>1.356300</td>
<td>0.436534</td>
<td>3.108256</td>
<td>0.0898</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(INTR(-1))</td>
<td>-0.573110</td>
<td>0.142139</td>
<td>-4.032038</td>
<td>0.0564</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(INTR(-2))</td>
<td>-0.527731</td>
<td>0.107588</td>
<td>-4.905105</td>
<td>0.0391</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(INTR(-3))</td>
<td>-0.206756</td>
<td>0.051302</td>
<td>-4.030132</td>
<td>0.0264</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(DEBT(-1))</td>
<td>-0.352556</td>
<td>0.086904</td>
<td>-4.058868</td>
<td>0.0577</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(DEBT(-2))</td>
<td>-0.091728</td>
<td>0.069916</td>
<td>-1.31983</td>
<td>0.3199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(DEBT(-3))</td>
<td>-0.162498</td>
<td>0.057531</td>
<td>-2.824543</td>
<td>0.1058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(GOVEX(-1))</td>
<td>-2.347169</td>
<td>0.643480</td>
<td>-2.433863</td>
<td>0.1354</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(GOVEX(-2))</td>
<td>0.590011</td>
<td>0.823987</td>
<td>0.716044</td>
<td>0.5483</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(GOVEX(-3))</td>
<td>-0.576667</td>
<td>0.299156</td>
<td>-1.934338</td>
<td>0.1017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(UNEM(-1))</td>
<td>-3.683806</td>
<td>0.730091</td>
<td>-5.045678</td>
<td>0.0037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(UNEM(-2))</td>
<td>-2.514611</td>
<td>0.474854</td>
<td>-5.294594</td>
<td>0.0339</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(UNEM(-3))</td>
<td>1.744619</td>
<td>0.312777</td>
<td>5.588560</td>
<td>0.0036</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RGDP(-1)</td>
<td>2.482985</td>
<td>1.094084</td>
<td>2.269464</td>
<td>0.1513</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRLR(-1)</td>
<td>-1.351728</td>
<td>1.943621</td>
<td>-0.695499</td>
<td>0.5078</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INTR(-1)</td>
<td>0.893655</td>
<td>0.194150</td>
<td>4.602912</td>
<td>0.0441</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEBT(-1)</td>
<td>0.202874</td>
<td>0.166766</td>
<td>1.216515</td>
<td>0.3479</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GOVEX(-1)</td>
<td>2.174975</td>
<td>1.122497</td>
<td>1.937622</td>
<td>0.1923</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNEM(-1)</td>
<td>0.486235</td>
<td>0.802280</td>
<td>0.606067</td>
<td>0.6061</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| R-squared       | 0.993999 | Mean dependent var | 3.959844 |
| Adjusted R-squared | 0.921984 | S.D. dependent var | 5.112641 |
| S.E. of regression | 1.428031 | Akaike info criterion | 2.799632 |
| Sum squared resid | 4.078545 | Schwarz criterion | 3.999481 |
| Log likelihood   | -12.79304 | Hannan-Quinn criter. | 3.156410 |
| F-statistic      | 13.80267 | Durbin-Watson stat | 2.249873 |
| Prob(F-statistic) | 0.069685 |                           |          |
CHANGING NIGERIANS ATTITUDE TO LOCALLY MADE GOODS: AN ISSUE FOR ECONOMIC RECOVERY

'Iliya Bawa, ²Paul, Vincent & ³Idika Kalu
¹Faculty of Administration, International University Bamenda (IUB), Cameroon
²Department of Entrepreneurship Studies, Faculty of Administration, Nasarawa State University, Keffi
³HQTRS, Domestic Sales, Petroleum Product Marketing Company, NNPC Towers, FCT, Abuja

Introduction

This study tends to assess consumer buying behavior. The closure of many manufacturing companies in Nigeria is obviously traceable to low patronage of locally made goods. As a result of this, the study identified some perceptual variable affecting the buyers behaviour such as product quality, product package and price; and how they influenced the attitude of consumers. Data were collected from 119 respondents in Kaduna State, Nasarawa State, Plateau State and Abuja the Federal Capital Territory of Nigeria. The analysis of the data was conducted through the use of statistical package for the social science (SPSS) version 20.0. Thus, the hypotheses testing showed that there is positive and significant relationship between purchase decision and other variables such as product quality, and product package. It was found out that, the increase in these variables lead to increase in consumer purchase decision. The relationship between the study price and consumer purchase decision was found to be negative. The decrease in this study price leads to increase in consumer purchaser decision. It was recommended that a well-organized campaign should be carried out to convince the public about the quality of locally made goods. Efforts should be made to minimize or ban importation of some foreign goods so as to reduce emphasis on consumers’ longing for them, and local manufacturers should
improve on the quality of their products by using quality raw materials and modern techniques so as to reduce price.

**Background to the Study**

Every human being, whether as an individual or organization spends a considerable portion of his or her daily life in the consumption of one item or another. Consumer buying behavior refers to the buying behavior of final consumers – individuals and households who buy goods and services for personal consumption (Kotler and Armstrong, 2001). Brassington and Pettitt (2003) are of the view that consumer behavior is that process that consumer go through in deciding what to purchase, including problem recognition, information searching, evaluation of alternatives, making the decision and post-purchase evaluation. Since the last quarter of 2015, the Nigerian Naira has fallen by nearly 20 percent against the US Dollars. Additionally, global oil prices have fallen by over 70 percent. What this means is that Nigeria, an oil-rich nation that is “dependent on oil and gas for 95 percent of its export earnings, 35 percent of government revenue” must see this ‘made in Nigeria’ drive as one of its options to wiggle out from the impending economic downturn caused by the decline in oil prices.

Attitude of Nigerians towards made in Nigeria goods is such that even second hand foreign goods are regarded better off than first class made in Nigerian goods. If this trend continues at this rate, most domestic enterprise will be shut down, hence affecting our economic development as employment will rise, therefore consumer attitude towards made in Nigeria goods has to be given considerable thought.

Some of these foreign products are being smuggled into the country without much difficulties, one can easily inferred that increase in importation of goods is as a result of what it enjoys over the locally made ones. If they are not being bought more than locally made one, there is bound to be a decrease in its trend as years roll by. This situation deserves attention and solution.

**Statement of the Problem**

From the first quarter of the year 2016, Nigeria has continued to witnessed several economic challenges, such as severe fall in oil revenue, low investment flows, job losses, high cost of living, and increased in importation of goods as a result of what it enjoys over the locally made ones. These problems have not been pleasant for local manufacturers because they witnessed low patronage.
Objectives of the Study
The main objective of this study is to study how to change consumer buying behaviour to favour made in Nigeria goods. The study has the following specific objectives:

1. To identify the relationship between product quality, product package and price with regard to consumer behavior.
2. To identify the perception status of product quality, product package and price with regard to consumer behavior.
3. To proffer appropriate recommendations that will be beneficial to local manufacturers and consumers.

Identification of Variables
The following variables have been identified:-
The dependent variable is consumer purchase decision.
The independent variables are; product quality, product package and price.

Research Hypotheses

\( H_0_1 \): There is no positive relationship between product quality and purchase decision
\( H_0_2 \): There is no positive relationship between product package and purchase decision
\( H_0_3 \): There is no positive relationship between price and purchase decision.

Literature Review
The Concept of Consumer Behavior
Every human being, whether as an individual or organization spends a considerable portion of his or her daily life in the consumption of one item or another. This is because human needs and wants are very diverse and insatiable. While the aim of marketing is to meet and satisfies specific consumer needs and wants, the field of consumer behaviour studies how individuals, groups, or organisation select, buy, use and dispose of goods, services ideas and experience to satisfy their needs and desires. Consumer behaviour refers to the buying behaviour of final consumer, individuals and households who buy goods and services for personal consumption (Kotler and Armstrong, 2001).

While the marketer is immediately interested in understanding the behaviour of the buyer, he should also be concerned about the satisfaction (or lack of it) of the ultimate consumer or user (Nwokoye, 2004). This means that consumer behaviour involves the
psychological process that consumer go through in recognizing needs, finding ways to solve these needs, making purchase decision (e.g whether or not to purchase a product and, if so, which brand and where), interpret information, make plans and implement these plans (e.g by engaging in comparison shopping or actually purchasing a product. It is the action a person takes in purchasing and using products and services, including the mental and social process that precede and follow these actions.

The Concept of Attitudes
Etzel, Walker and Stanton (2001) defined an attitude as a learned predisposition to respond to an object or class of objects in a consistently favourable or unfavourable way. Thus in marketing terms consumers can develop attitudes to any kind of product or service, or indeed to any aspect of the marketing mix, and these attitudes will affect behavior. All of this implies that attitudes play an important part in influencing consumer judgment, whether through perception, evaluation, information processing or decision-making (Brassington and Pettitt, 2003).

It is this last link between attitude and behavior that is of most interest to marketers. Fishbein (1975) developed a model, a further evaluation of his earlier 1967 work, based on the proposition that in order to predict a specific behavior, such as a brand purchase, it is important to measure the individual’s attitude towards performing that behavior, rather than just the attitude towards the product in question.

Etzel et al., (2001) observed that changing attitudes can be difficult or impossible. When change is accomplished, it normally takes a long time and a lot of money. When faced with unfavourable attitudes, and recognizing how difficult changing them will be, marketers frequently alter the product to conform to the attitudes. In the same view Brassington and Pettitt (2003) also observed that it is possible, but very difficult to change attitudes, particularly when they are well established and deeply ingrained. They noted that negative feelings about a specific product or brand are more amenable to change through skillful marketing. Therefore, marketers need to understand how individuals think and why they respond in particular ways, if they are going to develop marketing mechanisms and create loyal customers.

The Concept of Quality and Satisfaction
According to Zeithsmal, Valarie and Mary (2000), quality in simple terms refers to some attributes of what is offered, provided, produced whereas satisfaction or dissatisfaction refers to a customer's reaction to that offer. In this sense they are
separate, quality is something that an organisation is responsible for, whereas satisfaction is in the customer's domain, an experience. However, these two concepts are clearly related in that customer response, satisfaction or dissatisfaction might be used as a means of assessing whether quality has been delivered. They argued that customer satisfaction is a short-term transaction measure, whereas service quality is an attitude formed by long-term, overall evaluation of performance. Hayes (1998) argued that quality lies in the eyes of the beholder. These definitions equate quality with maximum satisfaction. This subjective, demand-oriented perspective recognizes that different customers have different wants and needs. As manufacturing based approach is supply-based, and concerned, primarily with engineering and manufacturing practices. This approach focuses on conformance to internally developed specifications, which are often driven by productivity and cost-containment goals.

**Product Package**
Product packaging or design is obviously an important factor that escort the product perceived value. Generally, there are two thoughts about packaging. One is to prepare the product packaging very simply while the other is to prepare a colourful impression which is used for product on sight attraction. Product packaging has strong influence on consumer perceived value, resulting in intention to purchase (Ann, 2008). Accordingly, packaging and communication have in depth relation with consumer goods consumption. Khalid et al (2006) suggest that consumer attraction obtained through emotions is often extracted by product’s packaging or design and consumer goods; therefore designers must considers emotions in packaging. Another aspect of changing the packaging design is the display of information such as the nutritional value and health chains. Such information on the packaging design could influence consumers purchasing behaviour. A clear introduction of the nutritional value and health chains on the packaging is a vital factor that could enable consumer to evaluate nutritional content packaged products. (Silayoi and Speece, 2004).

**The Price**
According to Zeitham (1988) as cited by Brassington and Pettitt (2003) from the buyer perspective, price represents the value they attach to whatever is being exchanged. Up to the point of purchase, the marketer has been making promises to the potential buyer about what the product or service is and what it can do for that customer. The customer is going to weigh up those promises against the price and decide whether it is worth paying. In assessing price the customer is looking specifically at the expected benefits of the products.
The Baruvi model explained that a quality product can be viewed as exceptional, perfection, consistency, fitness for purpose, value for money and transformative can lead to buying decision. A product package can have a significant impact on perception of the overall quality of the product which in turn affect purchase decision, and perceived price is an important determinant of customer buying decision.

**Empirical Studies**

Kuo Y. et al., (2009) investigated “the relationships among perceived value, service quality, customer satisfaction and post purchase intention in mobile service”. The variables were tested to check the relationship of above four. Service quality greatly impact on perceived value and customer satisfaction. When a mobile service quality gives an excellent service so the purchasing intention automatically increases. It positively affects the satisfaction level of consumers. As high perceived value higher will be the satisfaction level. The consumer purchase behavior has a direct link with the perceive product quality or service. The service quality is actually the difference between the actual and desired state of the consumer. While the perceived customer value can easily be evaluated from the quality, money, benefits and other social factors.

Chen and Dubinsky (2003) deemed “conceptual model of perceived customer value in e-commerce”. They considered seven variables for their work. It includes purchase intention, perceived customer value, product price, perceived product quality, perceived risk, e-retailer reputation, valence of experience. Regression test was used to check the customer value. Several proposition was given about the customer value and their support regarding the empirical study was been checked. Multi colinearity does not seem to be the major concerns. The customer makes an overall assessment of the utilization of the product that is based on certain perceptions regarding what type of value a customer got and what he had paid to get those values.
Fuchen and Ying Chang (2008) studied “Airline brand equity, brand preference, and purchase intentions the moderating effects of switching costs”. They worked on four variables included brand equity, brand preference, purchase intentions, and switching costs. They found on the brand of equity the moderating effect of the switching cost does not exist. Brand preferences also don’t exist. While on the path of equity there is involvement of the moderating effect and it exist strongly. Brand equity is important for every industry. It is the primary capital as it’s built in the long span of time. Customer can be attracted or strong attachment can be built only with the help or presence of strong brand having strong equity. As the brand name of a product appears on the package it enables the customer to see beyond the horizon. To visualize what type of benefits the brand is offering them. Bukenya and Wright (2007) studied “the determinants of consumer attitudes and purchase intentions with Regard to Genetically modified Tomatoes”. They discussed fifteen variables included Race, Female, Young Age, Middle age, medium education, high education, medium income, high income, primary shopper, knowledge, attitude, Risk, label, perception, price. The analysis is drawn on the consumer held at different grocery stores in Alabama. The result showed up expanded preferences towards the tomatoes. They investigated that the price was being showed by the variable of price differences between the mutant and non-mutant tomatoes. People will prefer to buy mutant tomatoes if the prices between mutant and non-mutant tomatoes will increase. Now the person having high income and good or selective at shopping will consider the expensive. Many factors have been neglected like consumer behavior and belief among others, because of the larger effect of the socio-economic criteria.

However, there is no available record of a study indicating the perceptual variables of product quality, product package and product price and how they influenced the attitude of Nigerians consumers. This study hope to see how to change the attitude of Nigerians toward locally made goods using the identified variables.

Research Methodology
The research was based on quantitative approach. Questionnaire were administered. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20.0, was used to analyze the data of the research. Descriptive analysis was used to present the background information of respondents and the perception status of the scales. Cronbach Alpha was used to measure the internal consistency of the items in the questionnaire. While Pearson Correlation was used to test the hypotheses.
Three states in Nigeria including FCT were chosen (Kaduna State, Nasarawa State, Plateau State and Abuja the FCT) to be the target population of this study. However, due to time and cost constraints, snowball non-probability sampling technique was adopted. The distribution of the questionnaire was on the bases of respondents willing to participate in the study. The researchers asked the respondents if they are willing to answer the questionnaire before the distribution. 119 valid questionnaire administered were collected for the purpose of this research.

**Data Analysis**

The analysis of the data was conducted through the use of statistical package for the social science (SPSS) version 20.0. Descriptive analysis was used to present characteristics of the respondents. Reliability analysis was used to find the internal consistency between the items of the scales based on Cronbach's Alpha. Pearson correlation was used to test the hypotheses of the research and to identify the direction of the relationship between the variable and the significance of the relationship.

**Testing of Hypotheses**

**Relationship Test**

In order to measure the internal consistency of the items of the scales, the researchers conducted reliability test to find the suitability of the measurement. Cronbach's Alpha was used as a benchmark for the test. The more Cronbach's Alpha close to 1, the more reliable was the measurements. The value of Cronbach's Alpha was greater than 0.6, the internal consistency is weak. 0.7 or greater was considered. 0.8 or greater was considered good. Table 1 shows the reliability test of the measurements:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha</th>
<th>Status</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Purchase decision</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.939</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product quality</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.910</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product package</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.851</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.898</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 1 Reliability Test**

All the scales are having good internal consistency.

**Hypotheses Testing**

Three research questions were meant to find the relationship between purchase decision (dependent variable) and product quality, product package and price (independent variables). The following subsections tested the hypotheses by using pearson correlation.
Pearson Correlation
The value of pearson correlation is range – 1 and + 1. + 1 represents perfect positive relationship between the variables. -1 represents perfect negative relationship.

Table 2 shows the correlation between the variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Pearson correlation</th>
<th>Purchase decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Product Quality</td>
<td>.312**</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>119</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>119</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product package</td>
<td>.290**</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>119</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price</td>
<td>-.093</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.319</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>119</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Table 2: Correlation between Variables
The relationship between product quality and purchase decision is positive at correlation of 0.312. The relationship between product package and purchase decision is positive at correlation of 0.290. The relationship between price and purchase decision is negative at correlation of -.093.

Results of Hypotheses Testing
The hypotheses testing are based on the finding of table 2. Table 2 shows the correlation between the variables. Therefore, the hypotheses testing can be presented as follows:-

Hypotheses 1:
The first hypotheses of this research was:-

Ho1: There is no positive relationship between product quality and purchase decision based on table 2, the relationship between product quality and purchase decision is positive and it is significant. The relationship is positive due to the positive sign in front of the coefficient and it is significant at correlation of 0.312 and this correlation is significant at the level 0.01 while the 2 tailed value of the relationship is 0.000.
Therefore, the first hypothesis of this research is rejected. The positive correlation indicates that any increase in product quality will lead to increase in customer purchase decision.

**Hypotheses 2**
The second hypotheses of this research was meant to find the relationship between product package and purchase decision. It was stated as follows:-

**H_0_2:** There is no positive relationship between product package and purchase decision.

Based on table 2, the relationship is positive due to the positive sign in front of the coefficient. The relationship is also significant because the correlation is significant at the level of 0.01 and the 2 tailed value of this relationship is 0.000. Therefore, the second hypothesis is rejected. The correlation of 0.290 implies that any improvement in product package will influenced or leads to increase in purchase decision.

**Hypotheses 3**
The third hypothesis of this research was meant to find the relationship between price and purchase decision.

**H_0_3:** There is no positive relationship between price and purchase decision and is negative due to the negative sign in front of the coefficient. The relationship is insignificant because the correlation of -0.093 is significant at the 0.01 level. However, the 2 tailed value of the relationship is 0.319. Therefore, the third hypothesis is accepted. The correlation of -0.093 indicate that the decrease of price lead to increase in purchase decision.

Price is big issue for customers and they associate high price with superior services. Monroe (1989) found that the price has great influence on customer it has the capability of attracting or repelling them.

**Research Finding**
The overall mean score value of consumer purchase decision was 3.39 with moderate agreement of almost all the items of statement. The overall mean score value of product quality by the respondents was found to be 3.53 with agreement of all the items of statement. The overall mean score value of product package was found to be 3.22 with moderate agreement on items of statement. The overall mean score value of study price by respondent was 3.08 with moderate agreement on all items of statement.
The hypotheses testing showed that there is positive and significant relationship between purchase decision and other variable such as product quality, and product package with correlation of 0.312 and 0.290 respectively. The increase in this variables lead to increase in consumer purchase decision. The relationship between study price and consumer purchase decision was found to be negative and insignificant with correlation of 0.093. The decrease in study price leads to increase in consumer purchase decision.

The Results
The results of this research have practical implication for manufacturers. The results suggest that a focus on designing and managing optimal products can create positive emotions thereby lead to purchase decision. To effectively react to the needs, wants and values of purchases is vital, especially in an increasingly competitive global market place. Positioning and segmentation decisions have to be made. On a global level, companies should inform consumers about the high quality and hand crafting of locally made products and emphasize a unique, quality product. Consumer education can transpire in the form of advertising that stresses quality and or labels, packaging and supplementary facts that offer comprehensive information on genuine local made products. From a market positioning perspective, monitoring the evaluative criteria of consumers can help marketers to recognize and focus on the specific locally made products dimensions, with special reference to product quality, product package and price.

Conclusion
In conclusion, the major driver of the economic reform Agenda should be the availability of credit in monetary and trade terms to fuel export of made-in-Nigeria goods. It is funny how most goods or product used today in Nigeria are imported from foreign lands, including African countries. The sad part is that most of these goods are substandard. In fact, even foreign manufacturing companies are aware that Nigeria is actually a dumping ground for substandard goods. This is so because the country’s manufacturing sector has not been developed to be able to adequately meet the demand of the enormous Nigeria populace. Hence, some marketers, driven purely by insatiable greed, are cashing on this lacuna to specially ask foreign manufacturers, especially those in China to produce substandard goods at a cheaper cost price and export some to Nigeria to make double the profit. While some high quality made in Nigeria goods are not even patronized by some foreign companies and multinationals operating in the country. Rather they prefer to patronize the foreign ones.
Recommendations

i. The government should see this 'made in Nigeria drive' as one of its options to wiggle out from the impending economic downturn. To make these policies sustainable, a combined effort of both legislative and executive policies must work to ensure that domestic goods should be promoted through a flexible system of discounts, sales and other government-backed incentives.

ii. Furthermore, the Standard Organisation of Nigeria (SON) should push for quality control of Nigeria-made goods to increase customer satisfaction.

iii. In developing nations export-driven economies are not fiscally sustainable, on the technical side, the federal government through collaborative effort spearheaded by the ministry of transport must intensify its effort to create transport networks that connect consumers all across the country to locally manufactured products.

iv. Our local manufacturers should try as much as possible to improve on the quality of their products by using high quality raw materials and use of modern techniques or techniques so as to reduce price.

v. A well organized campaign should be carried out by Manufacturers Association of Nigeria (MAN) to convince the public about the quality of locally made goods.

vi. Effort should be made to minimize or ban importation of some foreign goods so as to reduce emphasize consumers laid on them.

vii. Development cannot be imported, neither can financial stability for Nigeria's economy. Accordingly, as we tighten our collective pursestrings to achieve fiscal responsibility in these times, we must also alter our social perspectives and implement the government policies that will not only protect, but also amplify the calls for bringing back made in Nigeria goods and services.
References


ACHIEVEMENT OF SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOAL 11 AND THE QUESTION OF ENVIRONMENTAL JUSTICE IN NIGERIA: THE OGNONI EXPERIENCE

Dr. John Kalama & Dr. Jacob Ogedi
Department of Political Science
Federal University Otuoke Bayelsa State

Introduction

The activities of transnational oil companies often threaten the environment and human existence in most third world countries hence, this study examined the achievement of sustainable development goal 11 and the question of environmental justice in Nigeria: The Ogoni experience. The study combined the frustration aggression theory and the relative deprivation theory to buttress the fact that the activities of transnational oil companies in Ogoni land and the Niger Delta region of Nigeria adversely affected the lives and living standard of the people. In terms of methodology and scope, the study was based on the descriptive qualitative method while emphasis was placed on the Niger Delta and Ogoni land in particular. Data for the study were sourced from secondary sources while the analysis was based on content analysis. Findings in the study revealed that the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) assessment report on Ogoni land and other regional and global policy actions and reports that will promote sustainable development and also guarantee environmental justice in the Niger Delta region have not been effectively implemented by the Nigerian government and the transnational oil companies hence, the high rate of infant mortality and conflicts in Nigeria's Niger Delta region.
Delta region. Thus, to ensure environmental justice and the effective implementation of the sustainable development goal eleven (11) in Nigeria, there is urgent need for the Nigerian government through its national assembly to re-examine and review all policies, legislations, environmental reports relating to the environment, oil and gas exploration in Nigeria with a view to addressing the socio-economic, political and environmental challenges confronting Ogoni land and other oil producing communities in Nigeria.

**Background to the Study**

The fundamental objective of sustainable development goal 11 is to make cities and human settlements inclusive safe resilient and sustainable while its principles further projected that by 2030, countries should ensure enhanced inclusive and sustainable urbanization and capacity for participatory, integrated and sustainable human settlement planning and management in all states/countries. Despite these principles and projections, it is pertinent to state unequivocally that most cities and communities are no longer safe for human habitation due to the activities of transnational oil companies. In the case of Ogoni land and Niger Delta as a whole, the story is pathetic because over nine years ago the United Nations Environmental Programme (UNEP) assessment report on Ogoni land was released yet the Nigerian government, Shell Petroleum Development Company and other transnational oil companies in the affected area are yet to fully implement the report and carry out the necessary clean up of the impacted communities.

The activities of multinational oil companies in the Niger Delta is characterized with the production and emission of dangerous chemicals and industrial waste that are inimical to man and the environment hence, the adverse effect of gas flaring on the environment and people explains why life expectancy and fertility is low in the Niger Delta region. The non-challant posture of the Nigerian government and policy makers caused the relationship between the multinational oil companies and their host communities to degenerate from nonviolence to arms struggle via the 1998 Kaiama declaration where Niger Delta youths from over 500 communities and 40 clans representing, 25 representative organizations met on 11th December 1998 and agreed to take their destiny in their own hands. The result was the proliferation of militia groups and camps throughout the Niger Delta region. This no doubt led to the militarization of the entire Niger Delta region from 1998-2017. In the case of Ogoni land, environmental pollution coupled with the marginalization and exclusion of the people in the oil and gas sector led to the formation of Movement for the Survival of
The Ogoni People (MOSOP) in 1988, with Dr. Garrick Leton, a former federal minister as president and writer Kenule Sarowiwa, as publicity secretary. In the light of the above, the level of ecological damage done to the environment in Ogoni land and Niger Delta region coupled with the efforts made to address the issues forms the major thrust of this paper.

**Theoretical Framework and Conceptual Analysis**

This paper combined the frustration aggression theory and the relative deprivation theory to explain the fact that environmental pollution arising from the activities of multinational oil companies adversely affected the land and people of the Niger Delta region and Ogoni land in particular. The original formulation of the frustration aggression theory by Dollard et al. (1939) focused on the limited interference with an expected attainment of a desired goal on hostile (emotional) aggression hence, implying that when people find it difficult to achieve their goals and targets in any given system or society, they are bound to react otherwise by demonstrating aggressive traits and tendencies. Recent events have shown that the frustration aggression theory is intended to suggest to scholars and researchers of human nature that when he sees aggression he should turn a suspicious eye on possibilities that the organism or group is confronted with frustration; and that when he views interference with individual or group habits, he should be on the lookout for, among other things, aggression (Green, 1941).

The frustration-aggression theory states that aggression is caused by frustration and when people are prevented from reaching their targets, they become frustrated. This frustration according to frustration-aggression theorists can then turn into aggression when something triggers it (Berkowitz, 1980: p.46). Aggression in this context is usually directed towards the cause of the frustration but where this is not possible, the aggression may be displaced or directed to others hence, the Niger Delta people have for so long craved to enjoy the proceeds of the oil deposit in their lands but unfortunately what they get in return is pollution, gas flaring, and environmental disaster caused by activities of oil companies. It is on record that the frustration that emanated from the insensitivity of the Nigerian state and oil companies eventually turned the Niger Delta region into a complex operating environment, characterized by intra and inter-ethnic conflicts between the oil producing communities and the oil companies, armed groups and the oil companies and the Nigerian security forces. This clearly shows that when people perceive that they are been alienated, oppressed and prevented from achieving a goal, their frustration is likely to turn into aggression like...
the case in Nigeria’s Niger Delta region. In the same vein, relative deprivation as applied in the study is the experience of being deprived or denied of something to which one believes oneself to be entitled to have (Walker and Smith, 2001). Relative deprivation therefore refer to the discontent people feel when they compare their positions to those of similar situation and find out that they have been less than their peers hence, it is a condition that is measured by comparing one group’s situation to the situations of those who are more advantaged. Beyertz, 1999 and Schaefer, 2008 described relative deprivation as “the conscious experience of a negative discrepancy between legitimate expectations and present actualities. In their words: It is used in the social sciences for describing feelings or measures of economic, political, or social deprivation that are relative rather than absolute. The concept of relative deprivation has important consequences for both behavior and attitudes, including feelings of stress, political attitudes and participation in collective action...

Within the context of this study, one can conclude that the activities and unregulated practices of multinational oil companies in Niger Delta Region explains why the conflict in the region escalated between 1995-2008 hence, prompting the federal government of Nigeria under former President Umaru Musa Yar’Adua to issue the amnesty proclamation for Niger Delta youths who were engaged in armed struggle against the Nigerian state in June 2009.

**Conceptual Analysis**

This aspect of the study examined the views of scholars on the subject matter. Ikporukpo (2011) noted that in spite of the availability of various resources, it is the exploitation of petroleum that has made the Niger Delta the must economically significant region in Nigeria. In his words:

> “The resource together with its politics, has also won the area international significance. Since 1956, when oil was first discovered in commercial quantities at Oloibiri in the central part of the delta, there have been considerable new discoveries with a consequent rapid growth in production.”

He added that environmental justice involves the distribution of environmental costs fairly among people and areas and where possible between the present and future generations. According to him, where some areas or people are disproportionately exposed to an environmental diseconomy from an activity which benefits all areas and
people, environmental injustice exist. He gave the principles of environmental justice as; equality, equity and compensation. Ishiyama, (2003), corroborated the above position and added that environmental justice also includes fairness in participation of groups and areas in environmental decision making. While commenting on activities of oil prospecting companies in the Niger Delta, Ikporukpo (2011) stated thus; the exploration for and exploitation of oil in the Delta region necessitated the provision of seismic routes, exploration roads, carnivals and associated facilities, which affect the biota and fauna. In his words; Furthermore, spills and the flaring of gas found in association with oil have environmental implications. All stakeholders recognize that oil exploration and exploitation have implications for the environment. Ken Sarowiwa (1992) stated clearly that multinational oil companies in Nigeria do not respect international standards in their operations. According to him:

“Shell must bear full responsibility for the genocide of the Ogoni which is ongoing even now. The record of the company in environmental issues in Nigeria has been most appalling. When Chevron began to prospect for oil in Ogoni twelve years ago in 1980, it had the example of Shell to go by. The most notorious action of both companies has been the flaring of gas sometimes in the middle of the villages... or very close to human habitation... next to the flaring gas comes the frequency of oil spills.”

While the debate over the issue of environmental justice in the Niger Delta still rages on, scholars are of the opinion that oil exploration and exploitation can still go on without environmental degradation. Thus, the general view point of the communities and the non-governmental organizations (NGOs) is that whereas the Niger Delta region bears the environmental brunt of oil production in Nigeria, other parts of the country benefits more from the activity. However, Soremekun and Obi 1993 cited in Ikporukpo (2011) stated clearly that at the very root of oil politics in Niger Delta is the question of an equitable distribution of the benefits from oil exploitation. In their words; two aspects of this issue may be identified. These are distribution between the oil producing Niger Delta region and other parts of the country and that between the urban and the rural areas of the Niger Delta.

It is therefore pertinent to note that since the United Church of Christ Commission for Racial Justice (1987) report on toxic waste and race in the U.S.A, which popularized
the idea of environmental justice, the concept has been subjected to a multiplicity of interpretations. For instance, concepts like environmental civil rights (Hartely, 1995), environmental ethics (Singer, 1988, Thero, 1995), environmental racism (Fisher, 1995, Hartely, 1995, Bullard, 2013), toxic colonialism (Bullard, 2003), and even environmental blackmail (Bullard, 1990) have been applied. The following concepts were also examined:

**Ogoni land:** The Ogoni Kingdom is one of many indigenous people in the South-south region of Nigeria. They number about 1.5 million people and live in a 404 square-mile (1,050km²) homeland which they also refer to as Ogoni or Ogoni land. According to Ben Ikari (2016) Ogoni land is divided into six kingdoms, Namely; Babbe, Gokana, Ken-khana, Nyo-khana, Eleme and Tai. The major occupation of the people is fishing and farming. It is important to note that through non-violent protest, Ken Sarowiwa and the Movement for the Survival of Ogoni People (MOSOP) was able to internationalize the Ogoni struggle via a written petition to the United Nations General Assembly which send a fact finding team to Ogoni land between 1990-1993 when the Ogoni Bill of Rights was presented to the general public. However, Ogoni land in this study refers to the four Local Government Areas of Khana, Gokana, Eleme, and Tai respectively.

**Niger Delta Region (NDR):** The Niger Delta Region is made up of an intricate network of distributaries and creeks, which empty into the Atlantic ocean at the Southeastern coast of Nigeria and its bother lands and offshore zone are the centers of petroleum production in Nigeria According to Ikporukpo (2001) the Niger Delta Region is the largest area of wetland in Africa and is indeed one of the world’s largest. In his words: with a land area of about 70,000km² and population of about 7 million, the region accounts for about 7.5% of the country’s landmass. He added that the region has the following ecological zones: the coast in land, the Sandy barrier island, Mangrove swamp forest zone, Fresh water swamp zone and the low land rain forest zone. The diverse ecological setting in the region provides varied opportunities for resource use and development. According to Ikporukpo (2011) the fish, soil and forest resources have been the basis of human livelihood and development hence, fishing is the main occupation in the coastal sandy barrier and mangrove swamp zones. Preboyce (2005) argued that the term Niger Delta has been over politicized and extended beyond the cove delta for selfish and political reasons. In his words: states in the actual Niger Delta region include the present day Rivers State, Bayelsa State, Delta State and parts of Ondo, Akwa Ibom and Cross Rivers States respectively. Within the context of
this study, the Niger Delta region refers to the nine (9) states listed in the Niger Delta Development Commission Act 2000. The states are Abia State, Bayelsa State, Cross River State, Delta State, Ondo State, Edo State, Imo State, Akwa Ibom and Rivers States respectively.

**Sustainable Development Goal 11:** this goal is titled “make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable” According to its principles and projections, by 2030 states are expected to enhance inclusive and sustainable urbanization and capacity for participatory, integrated and sustainable human settlement planning and management in all countries. Within the context of this study, cities and human settlements means Ogoni land which is currently experiencing pollution and environmental degradation arising from the activities of transnational oil companies.

**Highlights of Sustainable Development Goal 11**
Make Cities and Human Settlements Inclusive, Safe, Resilient and Sustainable

**Target**

1. By 2030, ensure access for all to adequate, safe and affordable housing and basic services and upgrade slums
2. By 2030, provide access to safe, affordable, accessible and sustainable transport systems for all, improving road safety, notably by expanding public transport, with special attention to the needs of those in vulnerable situations, women, children, persons with disabilities and older persons
3. By 2030, enhance inclusive and sustainable urbanization and capacity for participatory, integrated and sustainable human settlement planning and management in all countries
4. Strengthen efforts to protect and safeguard the world’s cultural and natural heritage By 2030, significantly reduce the number of deaths and the number of people affected and substantially decrease the direct economic losses relative to global gross domestic product caused by disasters, including water-related disasters, with a focus on protecting the poor and people in vulnerable situations
5. By 2030, reduce the adverse per capita environmental impact of cities, including by paying special attention to air quality and municipal and other waste management
6. By 2030, provide universal access to safe, inclusive and accessible, green and public spaces, in particular for women and children, older persons and persons with disabilities.

7. Support positive economic, social and environmental links between urban, peri-urban and rural areas by strengthening national and regional development planning.

8. By 2020, substantially increase the number of cities and human settlements adopting and implementing integrated policies and plans towards inclusion, resource efficiency, mitigation and adaptation to climate change, resilience to disasters, and develop and implement, in line with the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030, holistic disaster risk management at all levels.

9. Support least developed countries, including through financial and technical assistance, in building sustainable and resilient buildings utilizing local materials.

Analysis showing Cases of Environmental Degradation and Pollution in Niger Delta and Ogoni Land

This section of the paper examined the works and opinions of scholars including materials derived from secondary sources hence, tables, graphs and pictures will be presented and analyzed descriptively through content analysis which Babbie (1981) described as a form of descriptive research method. While x-raying the United Nations Environmental Programme (UNEP) Assessment report on Ogoni land and expressing the need for a general cleanup of the Niger Delta environment, Ledum Mitee (2011) in a report captioned “oil spills in Ogoni: The big cover-up by Shell”, published in the News watch Magazine stated that the Ogoni people are disappointed that the federal government of Nigeria was not taking urgent action on the UNEP report. In his words: “people are dying every day as a result of that pollution and the government is saying it is going to study the report. When a similar incident happened in the Gulf of Mexico in the United States in 2010, President Barack Obama was there at least two or three times, and liaised with the British Petroleum Company to beat its management into compliance with the regulations. While affirming that fact that environmental pollution abound in the Niger Delta region, Ikporukpo (2011) noted that the degree of pollution has been scandalously high in the Niger Delta region because of negligence by the oil companies hence, citing Sarowiwa 1992, he added that “the pollution is a machination by the oil companies to exterminate the people of the Niger Delta region, especially the Ogoni. In other words, it is an “ecological war’ of environmental...
strangulation”. Holding the oil companies accountable for environmental pollution in the Niger Delta region Sarowiwa 1992:81 cited in Ikporukpo (2011) stated thus:

Shell must bear full responsibility for the genocide of the Ogoni, which is going on even now. The record of the company in environmental issues in Nigeria has been most appalling. When Chevron began to prospect for oil in Ogoni twelve years ago in 1980, it had the example of Shell to go by. The most notorious action of both companies has been the flaring of gas sometimes in the middle of villages... or very close to human habitation.... next to the flaring of gas comes the frequency of oil spills. The activities of oil companies with respect to gas flaring in the Niger Delta are clearly expressed in the table below.

Table 1: Showing Flaring of Natural Gas in Major Oil Producing Countries (% of Gross Production in 1991)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COUNTRY</th>
<th>% FLARED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holland</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Britain</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EX USSR</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>OPEC COUNTRIES</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>76.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libya</td>
<td>21.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iran</td>
<td>19.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Algeria</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opec Total</td>
<td>18.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World Total</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Adapted from Defining an Environmental Development Strategy for the Niger Delta (vol.1, World Bank Report, 1995:59).

The dangers inherent in the activities of oil multinational corporations in the Niger Delta region was re-echoed by the Nigerian government in its national development plan document which stated that:

Oil spillage, environmental pollution and other related hazard have begin to constitute very serious danger to the safety and security of life and property of the inhabitants of oil producing areas. There has also been serious disruption of economic life in some cases especially in erstwhile agricultural and fishing areas as a direct
result of oil production activities. Problems caused include massive destruction of fishes through oil poisoning abandonment of farm land where oil production is being undertaken, loss of soil fertility especially in areas affected by oil spillage, etc. (Federal Republic of Nigeria 1981: 129).

The table below further illustrates the dangers caused by the activities of transnational oil companies in the Niger Delta.

Table 2: Showing Oil Company Activities and their impact on the Environment of Niger Delta

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities/Event</th>
<th>Activities/Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exploration including geological survey, and geophysical investigations</td>
<td>- Destruction of forest land, vegetation and farm land as well as human settlements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Noise pollution and vibration from seismic shooting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Adverse effects on animals and human</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Population (onshore) and on fisheries (new/offshore).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Disturbances/destruction of flora and fauna habitats.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Dislocation of economic activity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Tension on social environment as a result of disagreement arising from compensation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product/process</td>
<td>- Water pollution from long term effects of produced water (with high salinity).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Air pollution from gas and processing evaporation and flaring.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Production of heat that kills vegetation of the area-suppresses the growth and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Flowering of plants and reduces agricultural productivities and wild life concentration in the area.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drilling</td>
<td>- Accumulation of toxic materials, oil pollution in the sea, beaches or land.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Destruction of fisheries production.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Destruction of breeding ground for marine fisheries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Alteration of the taste of fish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Killing of bottom dwellers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Pollution of underground water (waste pots).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Adverse health effects on humans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Social tension arising from compensation disagreements, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Refining

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Impact</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Oil Spillage</td>
<td>Destruction of farm land, fishery and aquatic resources and mangrove ecosystem;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Water pollution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Social tension as a result of disagreement over compensation.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tanker loading location

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Impact</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Water pollution from ballast and tank washing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Deck drainage, spillage during loading operation.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Storage depot

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Impact</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Land pollution from effluent water and solid and solid waste of chemical cans, drums etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Destruction of farm land for the establishment of storage depots.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Water pollution from effluent water.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Air pollution from gaseous fumes during loading.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Transportation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Impact</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Disruption of sea-bed by dredging for pipeline installation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Sedimentation along pipeline routes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Water pollution from consequences of leaks from fracturing or breaking pipes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Air pollution by transport tankers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Destruction of environmentally sensitive area.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Erosion and floating of the area exposed to activity.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Marketing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Impact</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pollution of immediate environments from retail routs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- High hazard potential where located near residential building.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Adapted from Okoli, AL Chukwuma (2013:pp.75-77).

Citing Ibeanu and Luckham, (2006) Okoli (2013) argued that apart from the issue of environmental abuse, the activities of oil multinationals have brought untold degree of impoverishment and livelihood crisis to the people of Niger Delta. He maintained that rather than bring prosperity to the region, oil exploration from the data above have caused large scale environmental degradation, destroyed rural livelihoods, and aggravated poverty as reflected in the table below.
The above data clearly indicate that the impoverishment of the people of the Niger Delta has been worsened by social and political deprivation and marginalization hence, according to a report by the foundation for partnership initiatives in the Niger Delta (PIND) cited in Okoli 2013:

“The population of the Niger Delta region is young with nearly two-thirds of its population estimated at 29 million below 30 years of age. Despite vast oil resources, the Delta region is characterized by extremely high poverty levels. 70 percent of youths in the region live below the poverty line. The youth (15-24 years) unemployment rate is 40 percent, far exceeding the national average youth unemployment rate is 14 percent. Youth un-and under-employment has ultimately become both a driver of conflict and a formidable obstacle for peace and regional development” (PIND, 2011:3).

This clearly affirms that there has been high incidence of state violence and corporate irresponsibility on the part of the Nigerian state and her unholy allies, the oil multinationals. According to Okoli (2013). “All these have gone with far reaching consequences on the land and people of the Niger Delta.” The figures and pictures below further revealed cases of environmental injustice in Ogoni land and the Niger Delta region in general.

### Table 3: The Niger Delta Human Poverty index for 2005

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/No</th>
<th>STATE</th>
<th>Probability Birth of Not Surviving to Age 40</th>
<th>Adult literacy Rate</th>
<th>Unweighed Average</th>
<th>HPI-I</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Abia</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>29.169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Akwa-Ibom</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>35.5</td>
<td>30.649</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Bayelsa</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>33.826</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Cross River</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>29.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Delta</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>22.355</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Edo</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>23.399</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Imo</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>28.949</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Ondo</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>42.5</td>
<td>35.442</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Rivers</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>30.5</td>
<td>26.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Niger Delta</td>
<td>25.556</td>
<td>25.889</td>
<td>33.4</td>
<td>28.847</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Adapted from Okoli, AL Chukwuma (2013:pp.72)
14 diseases including Onchocerciasis (fever blindness). In his words; “The other epidemics like Cholera, Tripanomiasis (skin diseases), Diarrhea (dysentery and with blood) Typhoid, Food poisoning, Tuberculoses etc are largely as a result of oil exploratory and pollution in the region.” It is therefore pertinent to add that the activities of oil companies in Ogoni land and the Niger Delta region have socio-economic and political implications on the environment and the people hence, concerted efforts should be made by all the stake holders to address the issues as highlighted in this paper.

Concluding Remarks and Recommendations
This study has attempted to highlight the problems associated with oil exploration and exploitation in Ogoni land and the Niger Delta in general. As Adeyemo (2008), put it, “oil pollution causes serious damages to life and property as well as to soil and vegetation, and in the seas and rivers, a lot of damage is done to marine lives and organisms. Where rivers are source of drinking, such river becomes unfit and unsafe
for drinking and consequently put lives of inhabitants to danger. Gurr (1994), posits that when people (minorities) are excluded and alienated from the socio-economic and political sphere, the tendency for compliance and obedience to societal rules and norms will be very insignificant (low). Thus, the analysis has shown that the Ogoni people and the entire Niger Delta Region still suffer from environmental and economic threats to their survival; this explains why militancy has continued despite the proclamation and implementation of the amnesty policy. Also from the study, it shows that delay in the implementation of the United Nations Environmental Programme (UNEP) Assessment report on Ogoni land and coupled with the unethical practices of oil companies has helped to promote distrusts, insecurity and violence in the Niger Delta region which has frustrated and trapped the youths into criminality. However, to achieve sustainable peace and development in the Niger Delta region, greater collaboration between the federal government of Nigeria, the multinational oil companies and all stakeholders is required in the fight against environmental degradation, population and the general clean up Ogoni land as specified in the UNEP report.

Considering the neglect of other sectors of the economy which resulted to the strain and over dependence on oil, the Nigerian government should as a matter of urgency diversify Nigeria's economy in order to embrace agriculture and other sectors which will in turn eradicate poverty and ensure sustainable growth and development in the oil rich region. There is also need to review and re-examine laws and policies that give undue advantage to multinational oil companies in order to ensure equality, justice and fairness. In this regard, the national assembly (House of Representatives and Senate) should facilitate and give accelerated hearing to the Petroleum Industry Bill and others that will ensure environmental justice, peace, sustainable growth and development in the Niger Delta region. In addition, the issue of environmental justice should be given priority attention by regulatory agencies in Nigeria hence, transnational oil companies in the oil and gas sector in Nigeria should be compelled to pay adequate and appropriate compensation and repair of damaged oil installation facilities in Ogoni land and the Niger Delta in general.

In the same vein, in order to check the negative implications of oil exploration and pollution to human environment and health, there is need to also consider the use of biological remediation to detoxify and restore damaged ecosystem since pollution and other related issues can never be divorced from exploration and production of crude oil. Above all, the task of making our cities and human settlements inclusive, safe,
resilient and sustainable must not be left in the hands of the government alone hence, the private sector and other stakeholders must adhere strictly to survey and town planning rules and designs if we must transform our communities into cities and also make our environments and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable.

References


Introduction

This study examined the recurrent conflicts between herdsmen and farmers in Nigeria in general and the middle belt region in particular with a view to establishing the historical trajectory, causes, dynamics and consequences of the conflict in this part of Nigeria that has been turned into a theatre of war by these two groups. The paper adopts Frustration-Aggression Theory as the theoretical framework upon which the study is anchored and it discovered that beyond resource scarcity, expansive use of land for non-agricultural reasons, land ownership system, ethno-religious intolerance, quest for cost minimization, unregulated transhumance activities of herdsmen, security threats from Boko Haram attacks, lack of effective institutional mechanism of conflict mediation and prevention among others are some of the causes of agro-pastoral conflicts in the region. The paper recommended Ranching across the states in Nigeria as a panacea for this perennial problem.

Background to the Study

Conflict is an inevitable phenomenon of every human society and conflict over resources is not unnatural in societies as it determines the means of livelihood and survival of humans. The evolutions of human society itself attests to the fact that every
individual and group in society has experienced one form of conflict or the other, especially over resources which serve as the hub of their survival; as social relations are not devoid of conflicts which usually lead to changes in social relations, adjustment and adaptation is also inevitable. These conflicts are usually induced by scarcity of environmental resources and escalated by the feelings of neglect, marginalization and outright deprivation by a group; of the utilization of these resources. Conflict over resources is the inevitable consequence of many factors such as resource scarcity, resource abundance (Collier and Hoeffer: 1998), miss-management and uneven distribution of resources. Natural resources have been proved to be the major driver of conflict, security risk, violence and civil wars (Moritz, 2010) and the attention of the world has been on the lethal role that environmental resources play in conflict situation. The reason for this is based on the pivotal role environmental resources play in the local and national economy of any state, society or group irrespective of its level of modernity as can be witnessed in the middle belt region of Nigeria.

Natural or environmental resources are the bulk of renewable and non-renewable stocks of material that exist in the natural environment that are both scarce and economically useful in production and consumption either in their raw state or after a minimal amount of processing (WTO, 2010). These renewable resources serve as the main input in production process for both herdsmen and farmers in every clime or regions of the world. While farmers depend on land and usable water for the cultivation of edible and cash crops, herdsmen also equally rely on water, safer climate and arable land for the survival and productivity of their herds for existence. Incidentally, arable land and water are prime renewable resources found abundantly all year round in the middle belt region of Nigeria that plays a vital role in the production process of both herdsmen and farmers in this region and it also creates a volatile situation that poses a great security risk to Nigeria.

**Conceptual Clarification**

**Conflict**

Conflict is usually the product of the existence of incompatible goals, interest and pursuits in which the actors involved may employ the use of violence or not. It usually occurs when the interest of a group is articulated, aggregated and put forward in opposition to the goal or targets of another group.
Environmental Scarcity

Environmental or resource scarcity is relative decline in the availability (Ru ben, 2008), usability and access to renewable resources which are required by man for immediate consumption and production. This scarcity may be induced by many factors such as changes in agro-pastoral relations, climate change, drought, freshwater scarcity among others. According to Shettima and Tar (2008) it is the interaction between two or more independent resource users in this case, between crop farmers and pastoralist over common environmental resources which includes land, pasture, crop residues and livestock passages and water points (boreholes, wells, streams (etc).

Theoretical Framework

The origin of Frustration and Aggression theory can be linked to the publication of Dollard, Doob, Miller, Mowrer and Sears (1939) and Zillmann (1979) in which they presented what is now popularly called the frustration-aggression hypothesis (F-A) Dollard, Doob, Miller, Mowrer and Sears (1939). According to them, the central thesis of Frustration and aggression theory is that aggression is always a function of frustration and the occurrences of aggressive behavior always presuppose the existence of frustration. They further defined aggression as any behavior which is intended to injure, cause harm, pain to the individual to whom it is directed. According to Zillmann (1979), the major tenets of the theory are; a. frustration instigates behaviour that may or may not be hostile or aggressive; And any hostile or aggressive behaviour that occurs is caused by frustration.

The theoretical significance of this theory is its ability to concisely explain the reasons for violent conflict between the farmers and herdsmen. Environmental conflict from the perspective of this theory is a product of the frustration of herdsmen as a result of severe ecological changes and Boko Haram incessant attacks in their home state with the resultant effects such as the death of many cattle which are their most treasured possession, cattle rustling and migration to the south. All of which makes the herdsmen put on aggressive behaviour which is a derivative of the previous frustration they have encountered as a result of grazing in the face of adverse weather condition, scarcity of environmental resources and security threats from Boko Haram attacks.

Therefore, the destruction of farm crops, properties, houses and massive death toll that perpetually fill up the front-page of the national dailies are the product of aggression that evolves from frustration and sense of deep loss on the side of the herdsmen.
Nature of the Relationship between Herdsmen and Farmers
The relationship between herdsmen and farmers is dynamic, transforming and always evolving from one form to another. Historically, it is not uncommon for scholars to conceive the relationship between these two groups of resource users to be initially symbiotic, Host-Client or Host-Stranger in nature (Bassett 1986; Tonah, 2006; Moritz, 2010; Azeez, Micheal and Ufo, 2015).

This symbiotic relationship usually promotes interdependence and reciprocity as demonstrated by Mboror Herders and Gbaya farmers in the Adamawa province of Cameroon (Moritz, 2008) in which gifts and items were exchanged among members of these groups for many years of coexistence. Blench (2010) also analysed this relationship as an economic exchange of dairy product for grains, access to local markets and the provision of manure on arable land while the cattle consume crop residues. However, this relationship turned sour as a result of the scarcity of environmental resources which often brings farmers and herdsmen into competition for the available resources and resultant conflicts which often lead to violence.

Causes of Herdsmen Farmers Conflict in Northern Nigeria
Environmental Scarcity: Conflicts between herdsmen and farmers have existed since the beginning of agriculture and have increased or decreased in intensity and frequency depending on economic, environmental and other factors. Environmental security scholar Thomas Homer-Dixon has emphasized the role of resource scarcity and competition as the primary, though not the only cause of the conflict between herdsmen and farmers (Homer-Dixon, 1999; Blench, 1984). Resources scarcity is induced by many factors and is not without consequences. This type of scarcity is essentially a decline in the availability of or access to natural resources. It is usually induced by climatic and environmental factors such as climate change, acute drought, environmental degradation, fresh water depletion, desertification, erosion, extreme heat, loss of wetland.

Scarcity of land, water and foliage which stems from unfavourable weather and climatic condition which reduces the availability of these resources is what usually changes the pattern of grazing by herdsmen and social relations with farmers. As growing pressure on natural resources caused by human population increase, growth in the population of herd (Bruesers, Nederlof and van Rheenen, 1998), due to improved conditions of the cattle often compel the pastoralist to seek for more pastures beyond their limited range (Bello, 2013). The relationship between the pastoralist and farmers
becomes competitive (Homer-Dixon, 1999) over access to and utility of lands and water for cultivation of the part of farmers and herding for the pastoralist. Intertwined with this the existence of a weak or absent institutional mechanism to mediate conflict between two groups of land users before it escalate into violence in most of the affected local areas in Nigeria.

**Population Explosion**

Another major cause of the violence is population explosion of both humans and livestock which is based on the hypothesis of Thomas Malthus in his 1798 work on eco-scarcity and population pressure entitled ‘an essay on the principle of population’ in which he proposed that population and resources are initially in equilibrium, but while populations grow exponentially, food production increases only linearly. According to him, population will grow (exponentially) faster than food production which would grow at arithmetic progression and population growth will reduce the availability of natural resources because population grow faster than food supply, and poor people will impoverish the soil and natural resources by overuse and this will induce competition and conflict over means of existence (Malthus,1789).

Expansive Use of Land for Non-agricultural Purposes: The expansive use of land and water for non-agricultural uses also often reduce the resource base available to pastoralist and farmers. In response to this, it is not uncommon to see herdsmen grazing along the street, and sedentary farmers cultivating on grazing route (Ingawa, Ega and Erhabor, 1999) which often stimulate conflict from crop damages by herds, destruction of farm properties (Bello, 2013) and escalation into violence (Moritz,2010).

Unfavourable Ecological Changes: Scarcity of water, land and harsh weather in the North Eastern and Western part of Nigeria is a major factor that necessitates the migration of pastoralist to the middle-belt where the ecology is more favourable to their herding business because of a more favourable weather and access to water which is necessitated by existence of river Niger and Benue. Pastoral migration from one geographical location to another in search of a more favourable climate and resources is often referred to as Transhumance which according to Centre for Democracy and Development (2015, pp 14) is a system of animal production characterized by seasonal and cyclical migration between complementary ecological areas as a means of adapting to unfavourable conditions.
Unregulated Transhumance: Despite the many advantages of Transhumance, this system of animal production usually brings the herders and their retinue of cattle herds into contact and competition over land, water and grazing route which usually end up in non-violent and violent conflict with dwellers (Shettima and Tsar, 2008) who are predominantly sedentary farmers and fishermen and are always bent on asserting their exclusive right to land tenure and land inheritance (Okoli and Atelhe, 2014). Furthermore, the conflict is now being intensified with the transformation of the old pattern of transhumance from being the temporary abode of herders in a particular region for a limited and defined period of time to staying permanently for a long period of time (Azeez, Micheal and Ufo, 2015).

Land Ownership System
The mysticism and inclination to land ownership in Nigeria is also a major cause of the conflict. In Nigeria, the indigene – settler syndrome is always a factor necessitating conflict over land use especially when there exist a deliberate deprivation or perceived marginalization of one group in the allocation and utility of land and access to water. As a result of transhumance, pastoralist from North Eastern and Western Nigeria who migrate to the middle-belt in search of forage and water inevitably become host and settler and are often seen as strangers, settlers or foreigner despite being Nigerians. The attendant effects of this is that in case of any further deprivation of resources by the indigenes, the pastoralist often transfer aggression on the indigene for their previous losses and flee while the indigene respond by employing every means of evacuating ‘these troublesome stranger’ from their land.

Ethno-Religious Intolerance: Another major reason for the conflicts between farmers and pastoralist is the ethno-religious dynamics of the social relations between these groups of resources users. The ethnic dimension comes to play in the conflict between two broad ethnic groups, the pastoralists who are majorly of the Fulani extraction with an entirely different set of practices and way of life of the sedentary farmers who are made up of a variety of ethnic groups (Blench 1984; Shetimma and Tar, 2008). Language barrier and religious intolerance are also a major colouration to the conflict. The indigenes of these North Central state are predominantly Christians while the settlers are of the Islamic religion. Hence, this often leads to escalation of conflict between pastoralist and farmers because of the ethno-religious alignment of the herdsmen and farmers.
Boko Haram Attack and Coerced Migration of Herdsmen: Incessant attacks and the conquest of some of the North Eastern and Western states by the Boko-Haram sects since the evolution of their attacks on villages and selected location has forced down pastoralist some of who have lost valuable properties, relatives and herds to migrate downwards to the more peaceful and safer North- central for the safety of their herds and in order to prevent cattle ranching which is now a common practice in the Northern Nigeria. This uneasy relocation usually stirs up aggression, hostile behaviour and displacement of aggression on the host communities for the occurrence of further loss of herds by the pastoralist or in retaliation to any perceived deprivation or denial of access to land, forage and water.

Cost Minimization
The calculated attempt of the pastoralist to minimise cost by bringing their herds downward to the south where there are ready access to pasture and market has over the years generated serious disturbance for the host communities. The causes of this grievance range from environmental and water pollution by herds that pollute and contaminate streams and rivers which some local farming communities in the south depend on and refusal to regulate this unwanted defecation in residential areas.

Dearth of or absence of effective Institutional Mechanism of Conflict Mediation
Institutional failure and the failure of conflict mediation mechanisms is also one of the major causes of this conflict. Community leaders in some localities help to resolve dispute between herdsmen and farmers before they transform and escalate into conflict and widespread violent. However, most of these community leaders lack the necessary skills to manage escalated conflicts and to worsen the situation is the indifferent disposition of the Nigerian government under President Muhammed Buhari towards responding to the many calls from local communities, farmers, civil society, ethnic and religious groups among other to address the recent attacks by herdsmen and put a lasting end to the menace. The failure of the government in mediating such conflicts and setting up judicial commissions cannot be underestimated because it pushes communities to the laws into their own hands (Olayoku, 2014).

Consequences of Herdsmen Farmers Conflict
Loss of life and Human Insecurity: One of the major consequences of the perennial conflict, attacks and counter-attacks between herdsmen and farmers in Northern
Nigeria is massive death toll of many innocent lives and actors involved in the conflict. Olayoku (2012) noted that between the year 2006 and 2014, Nigerian Watch database recorded 615 violent deaths related to cattle in the year 2006, 22 deaths were recorded after the herdsmen farmers conflict in 2006, 54 in 2007, 31 in 2008, 83 in 2009, 39 fatalities in 2010 and a massive increase in death toll in 2011 which puts the figure at 116, 128 deaths in 2012, 115 deaths in 2013 and a total of 27 deaths was recorded in 2014. Similarly in the year 2013, Sunday Trust recorded a total of 300 deaths between January 1 and May 20 in the North Central states of Taraba, Nasarawa, Plateau, Nasarawa, Kogi and Benue states respectively.

The Institute of Economics and Peace (2015, pp 43) which rated the Fulani militant as the fourth most deadly terrorist group in the world as at 2014 Global Terrorism Index report records the dramatic increase in the attacks by Fulani Militants from 2010 to 2013 with 80 deaths recorded to a skyrocketing increase in the death toll to 1,229 in 2014 alone. Unlike deaths from Boko Haram which are mainly in the North, majority of the deaths accruable from herdsmen farmers conflict occurred majorly in the North Central and some of the North Western, Eastern and some Southern states in Nigeria.

On the 25th of April, 2016, seven villages in Ukpabi-Nimbo town a border town in Uzo Uwani in Enugu State were attacked by over 500 heavily armed Fulani herdsmen who killed over 48 villagers and left many injured (Ikenwa and Adeyemi, 2016). Also, between February 8 and July 17, 604 farmers and locals were killed in Agatu, Guma, Logo and Tarkaa local government area of Benue state. Recently, 11 villagers were killed and two villages burnt down because of what (Binniyat, 2016) calls vengeance mission of the herdsmen on Godogodo chiefdom in Jema’a local government area in Southern part of Kaduna state. Also, in Plateau state, a first class traditional ruler, Sir Lazarus Agai, his driver and police men were killed on the way from his farm on 17th of October, 2016 (Bakam and Owuamanam, 2016).

Loss of Cattles and Farm Crops: Another severe consequence of this conflict is loss of cattle to conflict and bandits as many herds are lost during the conflict to angry farmers and bandits who take advantage of the conflicts to steal cattle from the pastoralists. On the side of farmers it is not uncommon to read about the destruction of crops on the farms and harvested products by the angry mobs of pastoralist. The negative effect of this is huge loss on both sides for these two actors as a result of loss of income and capital. Destruction of Properties: Another effect of this conflict is destruction of farm properties and farm irrigation equipments, farming tools, houses and cars by angry
herders who usually carry out organized violence as retaliatory act on the farming communities.

Threat to National Unity: The persistent attack by the herdsmen has called the attention of Nigerians to the threat it poses to Nigerian unity. Nigerian being a very ethnic conscious country that is polarised along ethno-religious lines is a very fragile and delicate union of culturally diverse ethnic groups. There is need to quickly address the forces that spreads division while at the same time promoting the forces of unity. In line with this conception, the Honourable Speaker of the House of Representatives, Yakubu Dogara on the 26th of April, 2016 clamour for "deliberate and proactive actions to end the incessant farmers and herdsmen clashes spreading across the country, noting that if not properly checked could divide Nigeria" (Ovuakporie and Agbakwuru, 2016).

Displacement: Another lethal effect of this conflict is the displacement of people from their homes and community for safety reasons. This has become the persistent effect of the clash between herdsmen and farmers in North Central Nigeria. Djadi (2016) reported that about 20,000 people are thought to have fled the wave of attacks which some locals say is the worst massacre by mainly Muslim Fulani herdsmen since 2010 when 400-500 died near Jos, in Plateau state, North Central Nigeria.

Herdsmen Farmers Conflict, the way forward between Grazing Reserves and Ranching, the form and intensity of natural resource or environmental conflicts vary widely by place and over time within any location and different communities with their members respond to conflict differently (FAO, 2003, pp 9). Thus, this suggests that every community possesses certain mechanisms and strategies of resolving or managing natural resource conflicts since this conflict are already a part of their daily life. However, depending on many factors, response to environmental conflicts may be violent or peaceful, formal or informal, participatory or restrictive, equitable or not (pp, 10). Some of the widely adopted measures towards addressing this conflict before and after they escalate are dialogue, negotiation, mediation, arbitration, adjudication and expulsion. For instance, Fasona et al. (2006) avers that in Sepeteri and Ikoyi-Ile communities of Oyo state, agro-pasturalist conflicts which can be traced to the colonial era have often been resolved through dialogue as narrated by the community leader (Fasona et al, 2016).
Contrary to this, after series of violence unleashed on Ekiti state in South Western Nigeria, the state government under the leadership of Governor Ayodele Fayose embarked on the restriction of grazing activities in Ekiti state with the passage of anti-grazing bill into law. The anti-grazing law which titled “Prohibition of Cattle and Other Ruminants Grazing in Ekiti, 2016,” bans grazing after 6pm in the evening and before 7am in the morning were passed into law on in Ekiti State and it also says that any herdsman caught with firearms and any weapons whatsoever during grazing shall be charged with terrorism (Oladimeji, 2016). This was against the backdrop of recurrent herdsman attacks on the farming community which has led to loss of lives.

The National Debate on Ranching, Grazing and Reserve Route

A bill entitled "A Bill for an Act to provide for the Establishment, Preservation and Control of National Grazing Reserves and Livestock Routes and the Creation of National Grazing Reserve Commission and for purposes connected therewith” sponsored by Mrs. Zainab Kure a first time senator representing Niger South senatorial district was presented to the Nigerian Senate. A similar bill was also presented to the house of representative in which the sponsors and other backers of bill - legislators from northern Nigeria are seeking that power be granted to a federal commission to acquire lands from all the state governments in Nigeria and the Minster of the Federal Capital Territory to establish grazing routes and reserves for Fulani herders (Okeke, 2014). The central argument in favour of the bill is the need to have access to sufficient pasture for cattle which are not readily available in the required quantity in the home state of these herdsmen as a result of environmental degradation, acute drought, overgrazing among other. According to these proponents, this bill will help to prevent the conflict that usually occurs as a result of the southward movement or migration of herdsmen and their herds in search for pastures and water.

On the other hand, the opponents of these bills opined that rather than the claim of the proponent, the actual hidden agenda of the sponsor and other northerners in favour of the bill is to formalize and advance the expansionist agenda of Uthman Dan Fodio and the Northern hegemonic quest to dominate the politico-economic sphere of the Nigerian state. Similarly, the adoption of the grazing bill will lead to the furtherance of agro-pastoralist conflict in Nigeria because the migration of the herdsmen to other parts of Nigeria coupled with their refusal to keep to the rules of the host communities, intolerance and preference for the use of violence rather than conflict is one of the major reasons for the many bloodshed from environmental conflict all over Nigeria. Therefore, if allowed to legally have access to lands in all states of the federation for
grazing, there is speculation that the Fulani herders will further expand into the farms and home of the host community which could even lead to more bloody conflict.

The plural nature of the Nigeria state with its ethno-religious composition and porosity of the polity which has been heated up by the centrifugal forces of ethnicity, tribalism, nepotism, indigene-settler syndrome, marginalization and deprivation which often propel conflict and violence is also a basis for fear, because it is not uncommon that most of the violent conflicts in Nigeria are offshoot of ethno-religious intolerance, spill over from environmental conflict and the quest to seek retribution from marginalization in the political and economic sector of the state. What this holds for the Nigerian state is the likelihood of a more violent conflict which might lead to Civil war as a result of the ethno-religious alignment of the actors in conflict to diverse ethnic groups and religion. Another argument against the grazing and reserve bill questions the moral justification of the bill with respect to Nigerians in the Western, North central and Eastern part of Nigeria who would be deprived of their lands and inheritance to another tribe who still retains the right to land in their respective home state.

**Ranching**
As a result of the outright opposition of the bill for the establishment of grazing and reserve route in all the states in Nigeria, the government has shifted grounds to the consideration of ranching which has worked successfully in the United States of America and Europe. It is a pragmatic and modernized approach in livestock rearing and development which will help to achieve the tripartite target of producing healthy and productive livestock while at the same time leading to the preservation of arable land for cultivation and lastly ensure peaceful coexistence among communities.

The federal government recent recourse to ranching rather than the ill-fated grazing route and reserve which met with stiff opposition is because of the perceived security threat posed by the presence of herdsmen, especially in the middle belt region and the southern parts of the country (Magnus, 2016) and the perceived advantages of ranching over grazing route and reserve across all the states in Nigeria. The Nigerian minister of agriculture and the minister of state for agriculture have in many conferences and discussion explain the reasons for government's retreat on grazing reserves and route and the recourse to ranching. The minister of agriculture and rural development, Chief Audu Oge who disclosed this new direction while declaring a stakeholders meeting open in Abuja said Nigeria must embrace modern ways of
livestock development. Stating emphatically that "Nigeria is taking this bold step by clearly breaking away from the traditional livestock rearing practices and we have to embrace modern methods involving private sector development in animal production, processing and marketing where direct interests of pastoralists, investors, development partners and small-holder positions along the livestock value chain is incorporated" (Magnus, 2016). The minister has also attributed the low yield and productivity of livestock production in Nigeria to the adoption of primitive, traditional and unscientific method of rearing livestock. On the other hand, the herdsman under the platform of Miyetti Allah cattle breeders association of Nigeria have rejected the proposal of the government to establish cattle ranches but insisted on having grazing reserves and routes (Fabiyi and Otunuga, 2016).

Conclusion
This paper explores the causes and consequences of the conflicts between herdsmen and farmers in Nigeria. It discovers that the major causes of the conflict are climate change which is the prime cause of environmental scarcity, population explosion, expansive use of land for non-agricultural reasons, unregulated transhumance, ethno-religious intolerance, land ownership system, security threat induced by Boko Haram attacks, lack of effective conflict mediation institution among others. It also argues in favour of ranching as opposed to the proposed grazing reserves and routes across the states of the federation and the capital territory, Abuja.

References


Fasona, M; Fabusoro, E; Sodiya, C; Adedayo, V; Olorunfemi, F; Elias, P. O; Oyedepo, J; & Oloukoi, G, (2016). Some dimensions of farmers’-pastoralists’ conflicts in the Nigerian Savanna, *Journal of Global Initiatives: Policy, Pedagogy, Perspective, 10* (2) 87-108


IJAH International Journal of Arts and Humanities 3 (1), pp 66-84.


Introduction

The Federal Government of Nigeria launched an economic plan tagged the Economic Recovery and Growth Plan (ERGP) in 2016. The ERGP is a medium term economic framework meant to stimulate the recessionary Nigerian economy back to sustainable, accelerated development and restore economic growth in the medium term (2017 - 2020). Despite the robust provisions of the Plan, the presence of inherent and emerging risks poses significant uncertainty in many circles over the prospects of a successful implementation of the Plan. Premised on the theoretical framework of the Keynesian stimulus to economic revival, the paper employed introspective and retrospective methodology and inductively and deductively arrived at conclusions. This paper identifies the downside risks associated with each objective of the ERGP like impending elections in 2019, militancy in the Niger Delta area and policy inconsistency which had the potential to frustrate the achievement of the goals of the Plan. The paper concludes that the ERGP is a needed reform and the risks capable of frustrating it must be tackled. It is suggested that the Nigerian economy should be restructured, Monetary and fiscal policy sustainability should prevail, and the ERGP should be reviewed and updated annually. There should also be an organ responsible for ideological re-orientation of Nigerians particularly in the more restive areas like the Niger Delta area.
Over the past decades, successive Nigerian governments have launched various economic renewal or recovery plans aimed at boosting or reforming the economy. In 2007, the Umar Musa Yar’Ádua administration launched the 7-point Agenda and subsequently, the Vision 20-20-20. The Goodluck Jonathan administration launched the National Industrial Revolution Plan and the Nigeria Integrated Infrastructure Master Plan in 2014. In a similar fashion, the Muhammadu Buhari administration launched yet another economic plan tagged Economic Recovery and Growth Plan (ERGP). The ERGP was launched soon after Nigeria slumped into economic recession in the second half of 2016 (PWC, 2017).

The concern of the government of Nigeria to pull the country out of recession and place her on the path of sustainable growth sounds familiar as all the previous governments in Nigeria had done similarly. There is however this premonition that the factors which frustrated the many past plans by various governments seems not to be clearly identified and strategies of tackling them discovered. Despite the comprehensiveness of the ERGP document, only a casual attention is paid to potential risks that are capable of derailing any prospect of success from the plan. In the 140 -page - ERGP document, the downside risks is contained in just 23 lines occupying less than half a page; yet, they are capable of frustrating whatever policy measures that may be applied to revive the comatose macroeconomic variables. This economic omission or commission has created uncertainty in many circles over the prospects of a successful implementation, particularly in the absence of clear strategies for tackling the possible downside risks casually mentioned in the plan.

The major objective of this paper is to highlight the macroeconomic downside risks capable of frustrating the realisation of the goals and objectives of the ERGP, and recommend a possible way of avoiding the doom. In pursuit of this, we divide this paper into 5 sections. After this introduction, section 2 provides clarification to key concepts, treats the necessity of the ERGP and presents the theoretical framework of the paper. Section 3 deals with the methodology of the research. Section 4 presents a downside risks analysis and section 5 concludes and presents suggestions.

**Literature Review**

This section treats the key concepts in this paper, the necessity of ERGP and the theoretical framework.
Conceptual Clarification

The basic concepts central to appreciation of the subject matter in this paper are Economic Recovery Growth Plan (ERGP), economic recession and Macroeconomic downside risks.

Economic Recovery and Growth Plan (ERGP)

The ERGP is an economic plan - an amalgamation of the anticipated annual budgets from 2017 through to 2020. In this case, it is a medium term expenditure framework. The medium term development plan was launched in 2016 after identification of negative socio-economic indices in virtually all areas of national welfare of Nigerians. The plan is expected to pull out the economy from the recession and place her on sustainable growth path. The plan has clearly identified objectives and set out targets (FGN, 2017).

The ERGP is unique and different from the past plans of the various governments. We have 4 year budget implemented on the ERGP; The 2017, is just like an extension of the 2016; is more like a re-calibration of adjustments in terms of real value (adjusting for inflation only) The ERGP is an overarching plan, hence to produce subsequent budgets like 2018 budget would not be difficult because there is now a framework. Business entities can now evaluate the existing framework and plan and make decisions depending on what would happen in terms of taxes and tariffs. This is good for both private and public sector planning.

Economic Recession

There exist two definitions of economic recession in the literature. First, economic recession is “a significant decline in economic activity spread across the economy, lasting more than a few months, normally visible in a real gross domestic product (GDP), real income, employment, industrial production and wholesale-retail sales.” (Central Bank of Nigeria, 2017a). The challenge with this definition is that it is too general and not definite on the timeframe which the decline in economic activities would last before it could be termed a recession. The issue is that “lasting for few months...” is relative and subjective, and hence a limitation to a general understanding what a recession is across nations.

The second definition perceives economics recession as a negative real GDP growth rate for two consecutive quarters of a financial year, say first and second quarters (The National Bureau of Statistics (NBS), 2017). The shortcoming of indefinite time span for
identification of a recession is hereby resolved, as the second definition clearly spells out that decline in economic activities must be general in a nation for at least two consecutive quarters of a year. However, the challenge of this second definition is that economic recession is identified as an event and not a process whose symptoms would surface at a time. The point is that economic recession had definitely existed before its identification for two consecutive quarters of a year would be recognized. This definition seems to compromise the idea of an existing underground phenomenon that manifest at two consecutive quarters of a year; thus symptoms are identified as causes. This compromise is crucial as it forms the basis of a serious problem when an economy's GDP growth rate increases consecutively after a recession was identified and declared conquered; but the socio-economic conditions of the country remains deplorably unchanged. Thus highlighting that what was identified as recession probably was its symptoms and not the subject matter itself.

From the foregoing, we can at least describe a recession (even if unable to define it) and by this identify the presence of the phenomenon in Nigeria. We can therefore assert that a recession already exists in a country when a national decline in GDP growth rate and many other socio-economic indicators prevail over at least two consecutive quarters of a financial year. On this basis, we observed that Nigeria was already in an economic recession in 2016. According to CBN (2017b), in the first and second quarters of that year, economic growth indices were -0.36% and -1.5% respectively. Although, the growth rate for the fourth quarter of 2016 was 0.8%, recession had already established itself and the country was by now possessed with negative macroeconomic indices typical of a country in recession.

**Macroeconomic Downside Risks**

Economic risks referred to threats that are capable of diverting the expected positive trend of variables that affect the welfare of a people directly or indirectly. The variables become macroeconomic risks if they are perceived to possess widespread capacity or could assume national dimension (http://www.investopedia.com).

Generally, macroeconomic risks could be upside risks or downside risks. The macroeconomics upside risk is the chance that an asset or investment will increase in value beyond expectations. It is an example of positive risk – a realization beyond planned expectation. Many Economists perceive the idea of positive risks as controversial arguing that risks should always negative. Nevertheless, the concept of upside risks serves a number of useful purposes. For example, it can be a red flag that a...
particular fund or investment manager is taking excessive risks. Upside risks is also used to model the potential of investments. For example, with a high upside risks expectation, policy makers may take excessive risks and go for massive external borrowings to fund projects in an attempt to exit recession. Nonetheless, the concept of upside risks is not the central issue in this paper.

Macroeconomic downside risks on the other hand is an estimation of an economic variable or sector's potential to suffer a decline in value if the market or socio-economic conditions change, or the amount of loss that could be sustained as a result of the decline. A downside macroeconomic risk explains a worst case scenario for an investment or indicates how much the investor or a nation stands to lose. It could be the financial risks associated with losses. That is, it is the risks of the actual return being below the expected return, or the uncertainty about the magnitude of that difference (Prague, 2005).

Analysts use varieties of fundamental metrics to estimate macroeconomic downside risks. A very common downside risks measure is retrogressive deviation, which is also known as semi-deviation. This measure is a variation of standard deviation in that it measures the deviation of only bad volatility. It measures how large the deviation in losses is. In general, many investments that have a greater potential for downside risks also have an increased potential for positive rewards. Investors often compare the potential risks associated with a particular investment to its possible rewards. Downside risks are in contrast to upside potential, which is the likelihood that a security’s value will increase. In this paper, the downside risks is not calculated since the treatise is on existing socio-economic facts and the forecasted possible variables are based on a priori expectations.

**Necessity of ERGP**

The need for measures that would revive macroeconomic variables and stimulate growth that is stunted and retrogressive became paramount by 2016 when the Nigerian economy was declared recessive. The causes of the recession can be classified into remote and immediate causes. While the remote causes hanged on the structure of the Nigerian economy, the immediate causes identify with the undesirable socio-economic variables that characterized the Nigerian economy.

The structural defect of the Nigerian economy is the heavy dependence on the oil revenue. The revenue from here drives every sector of the economy. It is interesting to
note that while the ERGP seeks to correct this by diversification of the revenue base of the country, it is this same oil money that is expected to finance the ERGP and drive the country out of the recession. It is still this same fluctuating oil money/price that will build the infrastructure and be used to stabilise the current market price. The future therefore looks bleak and requires economic circumspection; otherwise the audacious plans of the ERGP may be hampered.

The immediate causes could be viewed as stimulants as well as symptoms of the same recession. In other word, the immediate causes are viciously intertwined. As the oil price slumped from an average of 83.4 $pb between 2011 – 2015 to 44 $pb in 2016, the production per day slumped from 1.86 mbpd in 2015 to 1.47 in 2016. Thus declining oil prices and declining productivity compounded the trade balance of Nigeria which declined from an average of 26.8$bn to -0.5 in 2016; the country was indeed in recession making ERGP inevitable. Other leading macroeconomic indicators that turned negative by 2016 were; (i) budget balance (% of GDP) moved from -1.2 in 2015 to -3.0 in 2016, (ii) Nigerian stock market return (%) slide from 6.57 in 2015 to -6.17 in 2016 and average corporate profitability growth (%) went drastically down from 19.74 in 2015 to -17.4 in 2016. Whatever remained of the purchasing power of the recessive Nigerian was eroded away by an inflation that galloped from 10.69 in 2015 to 18.55 in 2016 and has since remained above 15% in 2017 [CBN (2017), Nwaoba (2017), Think Tank (2017)].

The undesirable indices were the consequences of many factors like excessive delay and inadequate policy decisions, policy inconsistency and political interference in monetary policy environment. These eroded investor's confidence and dwindled capital inflows. Strangely, while this lowered aggregate demand, the government increased different types of taxes and eventually out rightly ban essential foodstuff like rice without considering the gestation period of the crop. While this was going on, oil subsidies were removed thus igniting inflation. These policy conflicts and their consequences watered the ground for the germination of economic recession, which necessitated the launching of ERGP.

Theoretical Framework
This study hangs on the prescriptions of the Keynesian school of economic thought to recession, specifically the Keynesian economic stimulus. The Keynesian economics entails influencing an economy’s total output by influencing aggregate demand or total spending, especially during recessions. The essential element is the idea that the
The Nigerian Economy: Recession, Recovery And Growth Plan

macro economy can be in disequilibrium or recession for a considerable time until government intervention would assist stimulate growth and overcome the lack of aggregate demand to reduce unemployment and all the negative socio-economic macroeconomic indices. The government intervention expected to kick-start the comatose macroeconomic variables is referred to as Keynesian stimulus. A Keynesian stimulus happens when policy-makers deliberately seek to stimulate one or more of the components of aggregate demand to boost output, jobs and incomes, and thereby pull an economy out of recession (Foster, 2009).

Keynesians economics dissects an economic recession as when an economy gets stuck at high levels of unemployment with negative output that is persistently below its potential. This is the scenario experienced since the first quarter of 2016 when the GDP growth rate turned negative at -0.36% and then dipped further to -1.5% by the second quarter of the same year. The oil production fell short of the national potentials from 1.86mb/d to 1.47mb/d between 2015 and 2016. Inflation romped up from an already high 10.86% to 18.55% in 2016 and remained high despite all efforts at 15.2% in 2017 (FGN, 2017). Business and consumer confidence became very low resulting to the Keynesian paradox of thrift where high rates of savings would worsen the recession. In this situation, the weaker demand for made in Nigeria goods and services, would further cause job losses and can cause negative multiplier and accelerator effects particularly on the few surviving manufacturers and service businesses.

So a Keynesian stimulus is designed to actively manage the level of and rate of growth of aggregate demand. An example would be to inject extra government investment into infrastructure projects and finance this through a higher level of government borrowing. Keynesians believe that the positive effect on national income and jobs would help to reduce the risks of a higher budget deficit 'crowding out' activity in the private sector. Another example would be tax cuts targeted at lower-income consumers which tend to have a higher marginal propensity to spend any gains in income.

The Keynesian stimulus package or policy instruments are centred on the government boosting aggregate demand by increasing expenditure. This can be achieved through reduced taxation to keep per capital income high, higher borrowing and higher spending, increase safety nets for the very poor and unemployed, injection of the massive recovered loot into infrastructure development, and control inflation and stabilise price. Some fiscal stimulus to demand is inevitable in a recession. There
should exist a systemic social welfare nets which increases government debt during recessions. When unemployment is rising, the government automatically provides more in welfare assistance and in a recession, the revenue from taxation also diminishes (Cogan, Cwik, Taylor & Wieland, 2009).

The relevance of the Keynesian stimulus lies in the undesirable socio-economic indices that bedevilled the Nigerian economy as captured by CBN (2017). The average GDP growth rate of 4.72% between 2011 - 2015 falls to -1.5 in 2016. Labour productivity growth also slumped from 0.58 within the same period to -4.2% in 2016 and to -1.8 in the first quarter of 2017. The Nigerian oil production also fall from average of 1.86 (mbpd) to 1.57 in the second quarter of 2017. Other indices like inflation galloped from 10.69 in 2015 to 18.55 in 2016 and have never gone below 14% since then (CBN, Tink Tank, 2017). Generally, the socio-economic indices became negative hence making Keynesian economics basic to the Nigerian experience and the Keynesian stimulus inevitable in Nigeria’s attempt at recovery from the recession and its stubborn undesirable socio-economic indices that have refused to go away.

It is important to note that Keynesian Economists, after the pattern John Keynes do not incorporate the socio-economic and socio-political variables into policy formulation on the basis of ceteris paribus; but they were and are still very central to the policy implementation (Foster, 2009). This brings to the forefront why the Keynesian stimulus sometimes fails to yield expected results. In Africa and in countries like Nigeria, these factors like communal and tribal militancy, nepotism, bribery and corruption, as well as youthful restiveness cannot be ignored in Keynesian economics if expected results are to be achieved. These ignored variables constituted the macroeconomics downside risks which the paper seeks to draw the attention of the relevant authorities to avoid a fiasco of ERGP.

Methodology
This research adopted the introspective and retrospective diary design. The introspective methodology is a process of observing and reflecting on one’s thoughts, feelings, motives and reasoning processes with a view to determining the ways in which these processes and states determine behaviour (Hayes, 1986). ERGP is the expression of the economic thought of the government, hence the suitability of this method. We complimented the introspective method with retrospective diary approach. The retrospective diary study highlights issues which are normally hidden or largely inaccessible to a casual observer using induction and deduction reasoning for logical analysis and conclusion. (Danziger, 1980).
Downside Risks Analysis
This section treats the risks that have been casually mentioned in the ERGP document and emphasis that they are capable of frustrating whatever Keynesian stimulus that may be applied to revive the comatose macroeconomic variables. For a proper understanding of these, the study reviews the objectives of the ERGP first.

Objectives and Targets of the ERGP
The ERGP has a three-fold objective. Firstly, the ERGP aims to restore growth, macroeconomic stability and engender economic diversification. In achieving this objective, the Plan intends to drive fiscal stimulus (through increased government spending), ensure monetary stability, improve the balance of trade and focus on key sectors that would drive and enable growth [such as agriculture and Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises (MSMEs), manufacturing and services]. The Plan also seeks to achieve the above by, inter alia, leveraging on information technology.

Secondly, the Plan aims to invest in the Nigerian people by continuing to provide support for the economically-disadvantaged, create jobs, improve accessibility and affordability to quality healthcare across the country; and guarantee improved human capital (through access to basic quality education for all).

Finally, the ERGP aims to significantly increase investment in infrastructure through robust Public Private Partnership arrangements, simplify and improve the legal and regulatory framework for doing business in Nigeria and promote digital-led growth through the expansion of broad band coverage.

In order to easily pursue these objectives, the plan set out ten specific targets over the plan period. These targets however can be classified into four groups of (1) oil, (2) FOREX and taxation (3) agriculture and (4) unemployment related targets. By the cumulative effect of these targets, it is expected that GDP will expand by 2.19% in 2017, averaging 4.62% between 2018 and 2019 annually before hitting 7% by 2020.

The oil related goals include increase in oil production from 1.4mbpd to 2.5mbpd. Also Nigeria shall be a net exporter of refined oil. It is also expected that the Nigeria shall achieve a large asset sale particularly in the oil industry. In a similar vein, the FOREX related goal stipulates a review of the FOREX market by direct government interventions through the CBN to achieve sustainable market determined exchange rate. By this and other means to manage the Inflation forecast of 15.74% in 2017 to
12.42% in 2018 and to an unspecified single digit by 2020. Also the tax related target aims at improving tax policy and implementation to raise revenue to N350 billion annually. It is hope this will be feasible via an overall increase in tax to GDP ratio to 15%. Finally, it is expected that unemployment be reduced from 13% (Q3 2016) to 11.23% by 2020. This would be achieved majorly by investment in agriculture to drive self sufficiency in tomato paste in 2017, rice in 2018 and wheat in 2020.

**Downside Risks Analysis**

There are 2 macro-structural risks the ERGP document faced. Though the plan calls itself a growth plan, it is obvious that the ERGP focuses more on growth out of recession than growth on a sustainable basis towards development. This has created a missing gap of an arid effect after the exodus out of recession. This is more so because the recession was calculated on the basis of GDP which may be improved simply by change in price of oil without any improvement in real production. The policy gap is the absence of how to manage an *after recession economy* which should serve as a spring board for sustainable economic growth. Unfortunately, this is not built into the ERGP and explains why the CBN is celebrating Nigeria’s exit from recession since August 2017 (CBN, 2017b), yet the country’s socio-economic indices and welfare are worsening.

Secondly, though the ERGP stipulates *investment in our people*, the plan is more monetary in nature as output is strictly measured for growth by GDP. Other key measurements of growth revolve round ascension in money supply and measurement of interest rates and inflation *at a single digit*. Apart from the fact that it is antithetical to grow money supply and drastically reduce inflation and interest rates to single digits in the short term, investing in an abject poverty stricken population languishing in a recessive economy requires safety nets and transfer earnings which essentially have been ignored by the document.

Apart from these structural risks, the objective of attaining 7% GDP growth by 2020 is faced with a downside risk of increasing commodity prices in the plan period. Generally, if commodity prices improve in the plan period, this would boost earnings of the massive population in the agricultural sector, propel aggregate demand and also provide funds for investment. The diversification policy is apt and the government zeal in this regard is commendable. The result of massive investment in crop production like rice is attestable already. The real challenge is the sustainability of the programmes and policies which changes with every new administration. The risk of
policy volatility is eminent. This is especially likely because the diversification into agriculture is planted on un-modernised, non-mechanical and manual communal farm system. The growth component expected from agricultural stands to be unrealised and thus the objective frustrated.

The objective of single digit inflation may be achieved especially with the accelerated activity in the agricultural sector which is attested by non-oil exports of products like yam. The old pattern of financing agriculture should be discarded to value-chain based approach as recommended by Kyarem & Onov (2017). The Nigerian inflation manifests more on foodstuff and hence an effective consistent financing policy would gradually stifle the rising inflation. The risk of losing out in the sector to rising foodstuff prices hang on the un-modernised, non-mechanical and manual communal farm system. This is compounded by a system that lacks basic infrastructures and hence the persistence of seasonal supply and scarcity. This frustrates inflation targeting and control.

The objective of increasing oil production to 2.5mbpd is very freak yet it is very central to the success of ERGP. Over 70% of the revenue to pursue the objectives of the ERGP itself depends on the revenue expected from the export of oil. There is however a precarious relationship between the FGN and Niger Delta constituents. The future looks bleak especially considering the previous inabilities of the government to keep their end of the bargain with pressure groups. There are also the ideological shifts in the militant camp towards more violence in the region. There are nationalities that are turning violent in their agitation for self independence and more autonomy in the federation. The prevailing situation does not support consistent increased oil production in Nigeria.

The possibility of reduced unemployment within the plan period looks distant. Generally, such a prospect hangs on increased economic activities nationwide. The prevailing situation in Nigeria where organised labour unions down-tool frequently would doom provision of more job opportunities. Many unions like ASUU and Resident Doctor Union have down tooled for more than 30 days each within the last 6 months. Not only this, the prevailing high interest rates could starve economy of spending. Both aggregate demand and investible funds has shrike and hence render increased employment hopeless.
Finally, there is a political risk which precariously hangs over the macro economy of Nigeria. Electoral campaign in 2019 is situated in the middle of the lifespan of ERGP, but political campaigns and economic goals are normally not pursued together. Political campaign expenditures would likely steer objectives away from ERGP towards winning elections. Stakeholders might be gunning for positions which do not entail implementation of ERGP. There are other downside risks entertained in many circles which must not be wished away. Foreign exchange policies possess the ability to derail growth projections. CBN should watch out. Oil prices could crash if glut is upheld and that would frustrate the ERGP.

Conclusion and Suggestions
Though the needed economic reform in Nigeria is long overdue, the urgency and zeal upon which the government has launched and is pursuing the ERGP is commendable. It is good that the economic recession provided another opportunity to take a hard look at the structural deficiencies and develop a more sustainable pathway to economic development. Thus, the downside risks identified must be taken seriously and tackled. I prophesy that by government’s action or inaction, and by global economic manoeuvrings, the economic recession and many of the socio-political and economic debacles will disappear and even oil prices could rebound. However, if the structural deficiencies are not addressed, more ferocious recessions with more deadly consequences would revisit. To avoid the doom, the paper suggests the following:

1. The restructuring of the economy should be carried out thoroughly, especially diversification to agriculture. This would reduce overreliance on the oil sector which is the main cause of the recession. This will also diversify the revenue-base of the country and reduced pressure on restive areas like the Niger Delta.

2. Monetary and fiscal policy sustainability must prevail. The legislature should legalized economic policies and programmes, then monitor and evaluate the projects. This would ensure risks like electioneering does not distract the policy away from the goals of ERGP.

3. The ERGP should be reviewed and updated periodically. This should be done in partnership with relevant bodies like the budget office, the legislature, the private sector and relevant Non Governmental Organizations. By this, incidental epochs like the post recession period experienced in Nigeria would be address with the right approach. In this light the Plan would also be made to address growth out of recession as well as growth on a sustainable basis towards development.
4. There should be a campaign for national re-orientation and ideological re-alignment for all Nigerians especially in the more restive areas that are agitating for independence; this should go with more safety nets for the very poor generally.

References


