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**“Level of Economic Development & National
Policies in Mexico & Nigeria (1970-2018): A
Comparative Analysis of Growth & Institutions”**

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RESUMEN

Esta investigación cubre los factores más probables para la explicación de las diferencias de niveles de crecimiento y desarrollo entre los países de México y Nigeria, todo esto usando las metodologías particulares y las aproximaciones estándares del Premio Nobel de Economía, Amartya Sen, y del Profesor de la Universidad de Oxford, Paul Collier, al comparar la métrica del desarrollo humano, las teorías económicas pertinentes, la naturaleza política de los actores, la infraestructura, la historia de la colonización en estos países, la deuda externa, los conflictos sociales, la violencia, y su impacto en los diferentes sectores económicos. Este estudio se enfoca en hacer recomendaciones de política pública para el mejor establecimiento de tasas de interés, de la inversión extranjera directa, de la deuda externa, del gasto gubernamental tanto en políticas sociales de bienestar, de salud y de educación, así como también en proveer de recomendaciones para disminuir la violencia y el conflicto, y todo esto haciendo un análisis de lo que ya está establecido, pero también pudiendo hacer nuevas sugerencias. Las herramientas metodológicas incluyen la técnica de la regresión econométrica, utilizando el software SPSS para analizar variables de aproximación a nuestros objetos de investigación, como lo son la información de la inversión extranjera directa, la tasa de interés, la deuda pública, el gasto gubernamental, y el ingreso, entre otros. También, a través de la compilación de políticas implementadas en ambos países en estas variables desde 1970 hasta 2018, se analiza la relación y la efectividad de las políticas de bienestar con los métodos estadísticos. Los resultados de la regresión econométrica muestran que el incremento en la deuda externa, el gasto gubernamental (tanto en salud, educación y bienestar en general), y la inversión extranjera directa, todos estos factores tienen un efecto positivo y significativo en el producto nacional bruto (PNB) en México, mientras que el ingreso y la tasa de interés tiene un efecto negativo. Por otro lado, en Nigeria, todas las variables bajo estudio tienen un efecto positivo en el PNB, con excepción de la tasa de interés en el segmento del crecimiento económico. Con la técnica de utilización de variables “dummy” en la regresión econométrica, se observa que ciertas políticas tienen un impacto positivo en la reducción del desempleo y en la mejor provisión de servicios tanto de salud como de nutrición en ambos países, y utilizando detección estadística de cambio estructural, se encuentran también efectos cambiantes en las políticas sociales, particularmente la de educación. Las recomendaciones finales provenientes de esta investigación, son entre otras, infieren que se compren bonos, como los del PIDIREGAS de tipo doméstico, o el PRONAFIDE para

proyectos de inversión, esto para disminuir el valor de la deuda externa en Nigeria. Para el bienestar, se sugiere constituir un programa parecido al de PROGRESA en México para Nigeria, y también un programa de préstamos a la población, y todo esto haciéndolo de una manera transparente en ambos países. Se sugiere también renovar la infraestructura productiva en Nigeria. En relación al ingreso y al desempleo en México, se sugiere incrementar el poder de compra para los ciudadanos, y que el gobierno termine con sus esquemas de devaluación de moneda, que promueva la transferencia de conocimiento entre compañías locales e internacionales, que se fortalezcan las redes de negocios, que se promuevan los productos nacionales, y que se impulse la innovación en las empresas. Entonces también, al fortalecer estas partes de la política de crecimiento, se estará ayudando a que la aglomeración y el sistema de transporte sea eficiente, y todo esto para ampliar los mercados, tanto su capacidad como su alcance. Para Nigeria, también se sugiere mejorar de manera sustantiva el sistema de electricidad, y el restablecimiento de plantas productivas de manufactura controladas por el gobierno. Por último, para resolver los problemas de violencia, se recomienda para Nigeria el mejorar el acceso a los ciudadanos a una casa digna, y en lugar de solamente proveer un sistema ineficiente de asistencia proveyendo casas, trabajar en un subsidio efectivo en este rubro, y claro está, el reorientar a la sociedad con mensajes claros en el castigo público en casos de corrupción que tanto laceran al pueblo.

ABSTRACT

The research investigates the factors responsible for the differences in development and growth levels between Mexico and Nigeria by using Amartya Sen and Collier Paul's development approaches and comparing human development indicators, economic theories, political nature, infrastructures, history of colonization, external debt, conflicts, violence, and economic sectors. The study aims to make policy recommendations for interest rates, FDI, external debt, government spending (on welfare, health and education), and violence by detecting the effective existing policies and recommending new ones. The methodology comprises regression analysis on SPSS to analyze variables such as FDI, interest rate, external debt, government spending, and income. Also, through compilation of policies implemented on these variables from 1970-2018 and statistical calculations to analyze their effectiveness. The regression results showed that rising external debt, government expenditure (on health, education and welfare), and FDI had a positive effect on GNI in Mexico while income and interest rate had a negative effect but in Nigeria, all the variables had a positive effect on GNI except interest rate in the growth category. By using dummy variables in a regression analysis, certain policies were found to have a positive impact on reducing unemployment and improving health and nutrition in both countries and by applying structural change detection, effective education policies were determined accordingly. The final recommendations among many others entail buying bonds, PIDIREGAS domestic loans and PRONAFIDE projects to lower stocks of external debt in Nigeria. For welfare, constitutionalizing Progresa program and an online cashflow platform for transparency in both countries, and renewal of infrastructure in Nigeria. Concerning income and employment in Mexico; to increase purchasing power in Mexico, the government should end devaluation, promote knowledge transfer between local and foreign companies, business networking, promote product and process innovation. Then, agglomeration and the improvement of transport systems to widen markets and create new job opportunities. For Nigeria, overhauling the electricity system and re-establishing government-owned manufacturing plants. To resolve violence, the recommended solutions include improving the existing housing assistance system by replacing it with subsidized housing, reorienting the society, and punishing corruption publicly.

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CHAPTER 1 MAIN INTRODUCTION

Mexico and Nigeria: Commonalities and Disparities

The comparative approach allows us to focus on commonalities and disparities of communities, cities or countries, to learn from the experience of all places, learn from initiatives that had been applied correctly, or also, traps to be avoided. In this regard, countries such as Ireland, Switzerland, and Norway in particular, amongst others have set a benchmark for other countries in the world with their high rankings in the Human Development Index. From this perspective, I will use some theoretical frameworks set by a well-established comparative development school, such as those indicated by Nobel Laureate Amartya Sen, Professor Paul Collier of the University of Oxford, where the comparative style of research is enhanced by the editors of the Human Development Report and the United Nations since the year 1990.

Many comparative studies have been carried out intercontinentally among Latin American, Western and Asian countries, due to the growing concern over the years about the growing inequality among nations on these continents in spite of globalization – widespread awareness, dispersal of information, goods and services— It is also common to find studies comparing countries within the Latin American continent and the African continent but scarcely has any study been done to compare a Latin American country such as Mexico and a Sub-Saharan African country such as Nigeria, but it is necessary because there are lessons to be learned from one type of country to the other. The rationale behind using a comparative approach is the same as the fundamental basis of economic development as a science (Todaro and Smith (Sen, 2001; Perkins, Radelet, & Lindauer, 2013; Todaro & Smith, 2015), in which the overall ideology is that every individual should share equal realities of existence in all ramifications regardless of region, ethnicity, and race since each individual has similar basic needs.

Mexico and Nigeria do not only share a historical commonality of colonization, conflicts, and ongoing violence, they also share identical economic backgrounds and similar patterns of resource richness. Yet, some predictions have been made in the early 80s about such countries where some developing countries such as Mexico will grow into the upper middle-income level, while Sub-Saharan countries such as Nigeria will remain stuck in the third world status. However, this prediction is not far from the truth today (Rapley, 2007, p. 206), therefore there should be a research effort where underdeveloped

countries can learn from the experiences of countries that have made some progress into the upper middle-income class.

In this study, the disparity between Mexico and Nigeria will be the focus by discussing in detail the causes of the differences between the level of economic growth and development of both countries, to measure the difference between both countries and the factors behind the difference. About 80 percent of the five billion people in the world that were previously perceived as poor by the United Nations, live in countries that are developing at a remarkable rate, countries such as Mexico. However, on the other hand, development in certain countries, including Nigeria, is being set back or hindered by traps (Collier, 2007; Todaro & Smith, 2015) such as the conflict trap, the natural resources trap, or being landlocked by bad neighbors, which means that there are enough resources in the country to develop, but a series of factors that can indeed be changed impede proper development. As already stated, these factors hinder development and, in some cases, reverse the level of development that has been achieved (Collier, 2007).

Development is not only achieved by getting a high gross domestic product, technological advancement, and social modernization of a country, but mostly, it is achieved through the abundance of opportunities. This perception of freedoms or opportunities is extensively described by Nobel laureate Amartya Sen (2001) in his *Development as Freedom*. One of the negative consequences of lack of development is poverty, which is understood as capability deprivation. Having proper capabilities is to have real opportunities and good access to basic needs and social arrangements such as good infrastructure, and not having limitations such as low individual income, high rate of unemployment, malnutrition, and social exclusion. In addition, having the right to participate in political discussions and decisions that affect social arrangements is very important. An enhanced way to consider growth is not only through GDP measures, but also about human development as such, in the style of what Human Development Reports have been doing comparatively in the past 30 years (UNDP, 1991)

There are some contrasts in regards to development indicators of Mexico and Nigeria; despite the huge population of 200 million people in Nigeria in 2018, the GDP was only US \$397.19 billion whereas, with a population of approximately 127 million people in Mexico, the GDP was almost US \$1.22 trillion in 2018 (World Bank Group, 2020; 2020b). According to HDI reports for Mexico in 2018, life expectancy at birth is 75.0, expected years of schooling is 14.6, mean years of schooling is 8.6, Gross National

Income (GNI) per capita is \$19 476 (2017 PPP) and the overall HDI value is 0.776. For Nigeria, life expectancy at birth is 54.3, expected years of schooling is 9.7, mean years of schooling is 6.5 and GNI per capita is \$ 929, the overall HDI value is 0.534. The unemployment rate in Mexico has been falling over the years though there are some fluctuations, as at 2018 according to world bank data, the rate is 3.8% but in the case of Nigeria, unemployment has risen steadily over the years up to 25.7% in 2018 (NBS, Nigerian Gross Domestic Product Report (Q2 2018), 2018). These figures show clearly that Nigeria has not attained the level of development as Mexico, even though Nigeria had the same or maybe more necessary natural resources and human capital to achieve it.

To identify the reason for these disparities, the scope of this study will be centered around the policies concerning the factors that affect development, such as the policies on welfare, education, conflict and violence, health, employment, and income, as indicated in the studies and writings of the authors mentioned above. In addition, once those factors of development are properly screened, then a quantitative evaluation of the variables that directly affect growth will be carried out, such as foreign direct investment, external debt, interest rates, level of income and level of government spending, and all of that to properly assess their effects on Gross National Income of both countries. These variables are used with perhaps different perspectives, such as in different economic theories (e.g. Keynesian theory, neoclassical theory, neoliberal theory or ideology, endogenous growth model), yet our focus will be to compare the level of development in Mexico in Nigeria to present to the reader important lessons of what things have been done correctly in the evolution of development in those countries in recent years.

Living Conditions in Mexico and Nigeria; Regional Characteristics

There are disparities of conditions between Mexico and Nigeria that occur in a multidimensional form. Regarding household living conditions, the documented data across regions in Nigeria as at 2015 from the survey carried out showed that 77.5% of the north central population dwell in the houses they own, 71% live in houses with 3 or more rooms, 77% live in houses with cement flooring material and only 4% with tiles, 32% live in houses with walls of cement or concrete blocks. In the other regions of Nigeria where there is a higher level of urbanization and the presence of tertiary activities and industrialization, the percentage of house ownership as a form of higher development

status, is unexpectedly lower. Ironically, house ownership is highest in the northern regions of the country, where poverty is more prevalent; in the Northwest, 77.7% of the population live in relative poverty, 76.3% in the Northeast and 67.5% in the North central (Dodo, 2012).

On the other hand, the living conditions for Mexico are different, and information is available on the official data platform of the government to make comparisons. For instance, there is data available for Mexico for the year 2013 (INEGI, 2021). Apparently, quality housing is related to the region in Mexico, where northern states are more affluent. The information show that the region with the highest rate of homeowners (with no ongoing mortgage payment) is the North at 48% and the Northeast has the lowest rate at 18%. The central region has the highest population living in a house with one room at 38%, the northeast has the highest population living in a house with three rooms at 50%, while the west has the least population living in a house with three rooms at 18%.

Politics, Governance and State of Infrastructure in Mexico and Nigeria

Mexico and Nigeria have a similar political history regarding the nature of their political actors and the number of years each political party remains in power, their style of governance, level of competence, and even intentions. This section presents a concise description and comparison of the political nature and the achievements of the government in terms of infrastructure that are obtainable in both countries.

Mexico as a country has had a fair share of turbulence politically and malpractices by those at the helm of government and top positions in several regimes. The Institutional Revolutionary Party (PRI) which is similar in nature to the People's Democratic Party (PDP) in Nigeria, dominated the politics of Mexico for several years and played a hegemonic role through the concentration of power among a small group of leaders who came into power through the revolution and whose source of power comes from political connections and different regional interest groups that have direct linkage to the workers and peasants, these leaders continually practiced "clientelism" and perpetrated corruption.

Several criticisms have been made about government performance in Mexico, an example is the administration of President Felipe Calderon (from Partido Acción National party) and its failure to create sufficient jobs, substantial growth record and control over

violence down to the regime of President Peña Nieto whose administration marked the end of PRI's political potency and influence in Mexico due to rampant misconducts of PRI's representatives, as already mentioned, and loss of trust by the people. The widespread criticism of these prior administrations eventually led to the emergence of Andrés Manuel López Obrador (AMLO) in 2018.

The political scene in Nigeria bears a resemblance to that of Mexico but made worse by ethnical divisions. The People's Democratic Party (PDP) gained popularity as an emancipator after the withdrawal of the oppressive military regime in Nigeria but its officials turned around to use the newly won democratic system to perpetrate clientelism, nepotism, money laundering, and corruption at different levels of government. Power revolves around the elites who have mostly ruled Nigeria in the past during the military era between 1966 and 1998, a military era which was besieged with several coup d'état; a total of eight administrations ruled Nigeria with some lasting for only six months to two years, the political instability gave no chance to proper establishment and execution of policies. The mysterious death of the brutal dictator, General Sani Abacha, marked the end of the military era in Nigeria and the PDP party came to power as a democratic government headed by Olusegun Obasanjo as the president who was once a military ruler.

During his administration, Obasanjo employed neoliberal tactics to overturn the excessive debt burden by privatizing public enterprises and setting up successful programs such as the NEEDS program in which the government executed banking reforms, and introduced the Global System for Mobile Communications (GSM) spurning the existence of telecommunication companies such as MTN in Nigeria, and thereby enabling more people to have access to telephone communication system and the eventual replacement by mobile phones. Unemployment rate fell significantly during this administration due to the influx of foreign multinationals, and to the multiplier effect of the newly introduced GSM telecommunications system and privatization. However, the administration was criticized for excessive corruption; large funds were siphoned by political actors in the legislative arm, by the executive arm, and even by the vice president at the time, Atiku Abubakar.¹ Subsequently, the Yar'Adua/Jonathan administration which began in 2007, reversed the privatization of the refineries done by the Obasanjo administration, among others, thereby discouraging investors. As a result, economic growth fell and

¹ The vice president was banned from the US based on allegations of corruption in 2007.

unemployment rate climbed higher during this period, worse still, corruption worsened when Goodluck Jonathan succeeded Yar'adua in 2010.

Although President Jonathan set out to reform electricity sector, after privatizing the power generating companies (GenCo) and distribution companies (DisCo), the supply of electricity remained poor. Consumption remained arbitrarily unmetered hence people continued paying more than they should. Also, besides paying for their electricity, consumers oftentimes needed to collectively purchase transformers and other electrical wiring materials and meters causing additional burden to consumers. For instance, records from the Bureau of Public Enterprises (BPE) show that the government sold stakes in six GenCo companies at an excessively high price of \$1.269 billion (equivalent to N460.7 billion), while 10 DisCo companies (besides the Kaduna Electricity company that was sold later) were sold at \$1.256bn (almost the equivalent of N455.9bn). The government, however, sold 60 percent shares but reserved 40 percent. Besides, the N1 million paid by each DisCo as license application fee to the Nigerian Electricity Regulatory Commission (NERC), they also paid \$75,000 (about N27.1 million) as the main license fee which had only a 10-year validity. In total, the 11 DisCo companies paid N298.3 million as license fees to NERC along with the application fees which amounted to N11 million in total (Sunday & Mc-Leva, 2019). According to the performance agreements, the privatized GenCos were mandated to generate additional 5,000 megawatts (MW) of electricity to the national grid by the end of five years (by 2018). These excessive charges are no doubt responsible for the decision of the investors to concentrate on short-term profit-making rather than to provide high quality services.

Dissatisfied with President Goodluck's administration and the PDP party, the masses threw their support behind Muhammadu Buhari from All Progressive Congress party (APC) who had a reputation of being tough on corruption, earning him victory in the 2015 election and ending the 16 years reign of PDP party. But by the end of 2018, the condition of all the sectors in the economy had worsened, unemployment rate went through the roof, violence increased, and sadly, corruption survived and even flourished.

It is noteworthy that the pattern of a long-ruling party getting replaced by a candidate from another party occurred in the political chronology of Mexico as well. Likewise, the political power in Mexico and Nigeria is shared by traditional politicians with electoral or partisan backgrounds and technocrats, but in Mexico, the technocrats

have been occupying more top posts in the regimes notably from 1982 onwards (Lindau, 1996).

Regardless of the shortcomings and criticisms of the government in Mexico, compared to Nigeria, the economic performance, the state of public infrastructure and living conditions are better in Mexico. In Mexico, out of the 32,925,270 households reported by the National Household Survey 2016 —22,428,142 of them (68%) have a daily supply of water, only 7% of households (2,085,208) do not receive piped water but get water from other sources. In contrast, only 13.1% of the 22,000 households in Nigeria as reported by the General Household Survey 2015 have potable water. Boreholes are more common among the middle-income class in Nigeria while those below the middle-income class rely on wells, springs, lake, or river.

Households with available electricity is 99.5% in Mexico while in Nigeria, households with electricity in dwelling place in the same survey is 59.3% while 49.6% of households indicated that electricity outage (blackout) occurs every day. In Nigeria, power outages that occur more than three times a day is a continuous experience for an average household (a total of 19 hours daily) and the consumption rate is merely 150 kWh per annum (Rubino, 2017). In contrast, the Mexican government implemented the Common Information Model and Business Process Model which enables the CFE (an electricity distribution company) to employ the fault location isolation and restoration (FLISR) system in managing the medium voltage grid should a misevent of electrical fault affect more or up to 1,000 customers, the CFE can locate and disconnect the affected customers within 1–2 minutes if done automatically or manually in 3–5 minutes. Thereafter, they restore or reroute power to the disconnected portions of the affected grid and hence, reducing power outages to an average of 58.2 minutes as recorded in 2011 and 31.7 minutes in 2016 (Binz, et al., 2019). As at 2009, Mexico has electricity total installed capacity of 60.44GW (SENER, 2014)(SIE, 2014) while Nigeria's electricity attained an installed capacity of 16.384 GW as recent as 2020 (USAID, 2020).

Road infrastructure in Mexico is quite better than that of Nigeria. According to Oxford Business Group, the road and motorway network in Mexico spanned 582,175 km in December 2018. INEGI (2014) reported that in 2010 there were 138,444 km of state and federal paved roads. On the other hand, in a report released by the Government Infrastructure Concession Regulatory Commission, there are about 195,000 km of road network in Nigeria and 60,000 km of these roads were paved as of 2019. Also, major road

networks are aging, since they were constructed as far back as the 80s and early 90s, and only a few recent additional constructions have been completed. Worse still, poor maintenance and the use of low-quality materials for repairs are causing the deterioration of the existing roads, making travelling difficult or almost impossible especially during rainy season on secondary roads. Major roads are disconcertingly marked by potholes and convoluted eroded surfaces (Atlassian, 2019). Overall, infrastructure in both countries has developed very differently.

History of Colonization and the Onset of External Debt in Mexico and Nigeria

To throw more light on the similar background of both countries, this section contains concise details of the similar background of ravaging by colonizers that both countries endured and this serves as a guide to understanding the present state of both countries and concurrently detect why there is a difference in the levels of progress both countries have achieved. In the first paragraphs we discussed how Mexico developed to a more stable financial economy but not without downturns. As we proceed, we described how Nigeria under the same disadvantaged conditions evolved into an economy that became dependent on financial support and rescue.

The present conditions of the state of living in Mexico cannot be separated from the history of economic setbacks caused by the colonial rule of Spain (1521-1812). As narrated by Moreno-Brid and Ros (2009), during the colonial reign of Spain in the 18th century, Mexico bore the burden of funding military and administrative costs through heavy taxation of the Mexican silver to the extent of financing even the deficits of Spain.

The tax regime in Mexico was highly extractive, such that it surpassed that of the Anglo-American colonies by about tenfold and accounted for 40% of total taxes collected in the viceroyalty. By 1800, the amount of taxes paid to Spain exceeded those paid by the Spaniards themselves. In the 1780s and 1790s, the vice-regal administration devised additional means of extracting revenue through loans, donations, and forced contributions. Wealthy colonial corporations, including the church, played a crucial role in extorting the people to collect these funds on behalf of the colonial authorities. Consequently, a substantial amount of funds was extracted and sent to Spain during the late 18th century and early 19th century, resulting in a significant setback and impeding Mexico's growth.

Furthermore, extensive laws and regulations governing business and the state under the Spanish Crown's system were extremely unfair. These laws strictly prohibited trade with countries other than Spain, and the issuance of import and export licenses for trade with Spain was solely delegated to a board located in Seville, which was controlled by Spanish merchants. Excessive controls were placed on local trade at an almost proportionate level as on foreign trade and even to a higher degree on production. Tax exemptions and trading privileges were not fairly obtainable, local businesses were monopolized. In fact, products that could be fabricated in Spain were banned from production in Mexico and whatever was produced in Mexico was under tight control.

However, the post-independence era in Mexico can be described as a series of cycles, constantly changing between periods of stagnation or decline and periods of economic prosperity and transformation. The stagnation periods were caused mostly by prolonged political instability stemming from continual conflict between liberals and conservatives which spanned over fifty years, including civil wars and international conflicts that culminated in widespread social chaos and a lack of efficient civil administration. As a consequence, the potential benefits of independence were undermined, hindering the ability of both the state and the private sector to revive the mining industry and enhance transportation infrastructure due to limited resources.

In the 20th century, Mexico's policy framework was shaped by debates between liberals, who advocated for free trade, and protectionists, who favored industrialization by implementing import restrictions and closing the domestic market to foreign goods. At the end of the nineteenth century, liberals gained control and the result led to enormous economic growth but created an immense level of inequality among Mexicans because the benefits did not spread out to many Mexicans. A few people, most of which were foreign investors were much wealthier while the majority of Mexicans lived in extreme poverty which eventually erupted into the famous 1910 revolution. Owing to the revolution and subsequent political changes, a new constitution was drafted that imposed significant restrictions on foreign investors. The inflow of FDI reduced as a result and because of political instability, economic problems, confiscation, and nationalization.

Afterward, the Mexican petroleum sector was nationalized by President Lázaro Cárdenas, in a process known as the *Expropiación Petrolera* such that petroleum reserves, facilities, and foreign oil companies in Mexico were sequestered by the Mexican

government on March 18, 1938, in compliance with Article 27 of the 1917 Constitution of Mexico.

After World War II, there was a revival of regulations regarding foreign direct investment, leading to the complete exclusion of foreign investors from certain economic sectors. Restrictions were also placed on foreign ownership of Mexican assets. During the 1960s and the late 1970s, Mexico experienced a notable rise in foreign direct investment. This period marked a significant economic growth phase for Mexico, which was referred to as the "Economic Miracle" (Clayton, et al., 1992). Mexico's debts in 1973 were mainly concessional loan and were generally low but the situation turned around for the worse in the 1980s. In August 1982, the Mexican government declared its inability to meet its debt obligations and initiated a deferment (in the form of a moratorium) on debt payments to private creditors for a minimum of three months. This situation compelled the Mexican government to seek emergency assistance from the International Monetary Fund and financial institutions in the United States. By September of the same year, Mexico nationalized its banks and introduced rigorous exchange controls—a restriction on currency movement out of Mexico.

However, Mexico was not only the first country to enter a debt crisis but was commendably a pacesetter in resolving it (regardless of other minor crises, such as the Tequila Crisis of 1994). As a result of the 1973 oil price surge, major OPEC countries experienced a substantial influx of cash, which they predominantly deposited in leading U.S. banks. Mexico demanded for these funds to expand PEMEX oil production upon the discovery of Cantrell Field but the price of oil fell dramatically in 1982 and the interest rates were increased to control inflation in USA to which Mexico was at the time, deeply indebted. In less than ten years, the value of outstanding loans grew exponentially by a factor of ten. However, during this period of extensive borrowing, a commensurate rate of investment as a proportion of GDP did not increase significantly. As a result, Mexico lacked adequate capacity to boost exports and generate foreign exchange for debt repayment without leading to a decline in living standards. Furthermore, the situation in Mexico was exacerbated by fiscal deficits and inflationary pressures.

In late September 1982, the annual World Bank–IMF scheduled meetings with the objective of formulating a strategy to rescue the banking system. However, this initiative resulted in a situation known as a lost decade (or even longer) of development in Latin America and Africa. Following significant debt reduction in the late 1980s and early

1990s, capital inflows have predominantly taken the shape of long-term equity investments rather than debt. (Todaro & Smith, 2015). After all, Mexico seems to be in a commendable financial path, even though there were rough conditions after its colonization.

The history of colonization of Nigeria, on the other hand, extends from the era when the presence of the British Empire became established on African soil, but the official year was in 1884. African colonies, including Nigeria, were incorporated into the British imperial expansion, which focused on the exploitation of valuable raw materials, minerals, and essential foodstuffs for Western industrial development. During this period, Britain maintained its economic dominance over African colonies, including Nigeria, through military might, strategic alliances, and collaboration with indigenous rulers. The primary objective for Britain was to create markets for its manufactured goods in West Africa and to expand trade in palm oil. The pursuit of securing control over the oil and ivory trade necessitated the colonization of the region. Between the 1890s and 1930s, the British government invested in the construction of railroads and roads, introduced the pound sterling as the universally accepted medium of exchange, promoted the export of raw materials such as grains and metals, and made efforts to stimulate demand for manufactured goods in Nigeria.

During the colonial administration in Nigeria, there was a specific emphasis on developing the agricultural sector, driven by the aggravated hostilities of the Second World War (1939-45). As a result, the Federal Departments of Agriculture in Nigeria played an increasingly significant role in producing food for both the military and civilians within the country and the British Empire. Noteworthy projects carried out during this period among others included the establishment of the West African Institute for Oil Palm Research (WAIFOR) in Benin, research focused on cocoa at Moor Plantation, Owena, and Onigambari, the cultivation of 'Alien Cotton' in the south, and rice farming in provinces such as Sokoto, Niger, Ilorin, Abeokuta Colony, and Ondo. During that period, wheat cultivation was also undertaken in the northern provinces, alongside the expansion of export-oriented crops like cocoa, oil palm, and groundnut. The agricultural sector experienced progress through the introduction of improved farming tools and the development of farm buildings. Horticultural activities were intensified, and the establishment of a marketing section within the Federal Department of Agriculture further contributed to these advancements. Additionally, land settlement schemes were implemented, and investigations into potential irrigation methods in northern Nigeria were launched (Effoduh,

2014). Collectively, these strategies played a vital role in the growth and development of Nigeria's agricultural assets at the time.

Under British colonial rule, disparities among social classes, regions, and communities in Nigeria were further heightened through various mechanisms. Exclusive trade licenses were granted solely to established firms, solidifying the competitive advantage of foreign companies. General price controls were imposed, resulting in agricultural commodity prices being deliberately set below the global market rate, while wages remained restricted. Consequently, Nigerian consumers encountered shortages of imported goods. These difficulties were compounded by the effects of the Great Depression and later worsened by World War II, leading to reduced British investments, imports, and government expenditure in Nigeria. As a result, the struggle for independence gained momentum between 1930 and 1944, as the declining net barter terms of trade negatively impacted the real incomes of many participants in Nigeria's monetary economy.

During the war period, labor unions experienced significant growth due to the oppressive policies of the colonial government. A notable example of labor unrest was a strike in mid-1945, involving 43,000 workers, which lasted over forty days. The success of this strike led aspiring Nigerian entrepreneurs and union leaders to become politically active, using their grievances to fuel nationalist movements. Educated individuals, who primarily found economic opportunities in private business and professions, started demanding increased participation in the colonial government. Ultimately, Nigeria achieved independence in 1960.

In 1958, Shell-BP discovered oil near the Warri fields in Nigeria, marking a pivotal moment that shifted the country's focus toward the oil sector. This led to the neglect of other industries, resulting in the "Dutch disease" economic phenomenon. The appreciation of the real effective exchange rate in the 1970s caused a decline in the competitiveness of non-oil tradable goods, particularly agricultural exports. Despite increased oil revenue, the government failed to reinforce public finances and strategize for sustainable economic policies. Excessive borrowing left Nigeria vulnerable to the oil price collapse in the early 1980s. Public investments prioritized costly infrastructure projects with uncertain returns, while the manufacturing sector suffered due to protectionist policies and government controls (Effoduh, 2014).

Between 1979 and 1983, the dollars Nigeria was earning from oil exports and other exports could hardly pay the interest on external debts. According to the finance minister

in 1980, Olu Falae, the financial challenge in this era were not loans, but rather, they were debts. Similarly in Mexico during the same period of time, it became impossible to finance current imports. In Nigeria at this time, the constant importation of machines, medicines, books and wheat to make bread required payments in dollars to foreign suppliers that exceeded the national foreign exchange earning of Nigeria by four times, and that was an unbearable situation. The situation worsened because of the government's decision to issue excessive import licenses, such that, by the end of four years, Nigeria had imported goods without provision for payment. The private Nigerian companies which imported the goods, paid a high volume of Nigerian currency, naira, to their banks to be remitted to their customers abroad but the Central Bank of Nigeria did not have sufficient reserve of dollars as earnings to exchange, which ultimately produced a crisis.

As the crisis grew as a result of the shortage in payments caused by scarce dollars, shipping companies demanded payment and threatened not to ship more goods. The letter of credit had a minimum validity of three months to six months but the debts lingered for up to nine months to one year without payment. Therefore, creditors sought the intervention of the IMF, which managed the international financial system at the time. Even though Nigeria could print naira, dollars had to be earned, therefore IMF advanced money in dollars on behalf of Nigeria to the creditors.

As already mentioned, there was an excessive expansion of public expenditure. To describe this expansion in figures, it moved from an average of 13 percent of GDP during the early '70s to 25 percent in the late '70s. The fiscal balance changed from a small surplus to a large deficit, averaging 2½ percent of GDP per year. The monetary financing of these deficits contributed to rapid growth in broad money and a sharp acceleration in inflation. The first huge amount of loan (US\$1 billion loan referred to as "Jumbo Loan") was obtained from the international capital market in 1978. The real effective appreciation of the naira that followed the surge in oil prices toward the end of 1973 eroded Nigeria's competitiveness, and the growth of real GDP slowed down remarkably. A buoyant oil sector sustained an average external current account surplus of 1½ percent of GDP during this period, while gross international reserves averaged the equivalent of about seven months of imports. Therefore, the Nigerian government was occupied with controlling the very unstable financial scenario at that time but that was only the beginning of the downward spiral of Nigeria's economic condition.

By the year 1980, Nigeria had accumulated an external debt of roughly US \$4.1 billion, equivalent to approximately 5 percent of its GDP. During this period, the debt-service ratio remained relatively low, with a modest value of 3.7 percent, yet it climbed to US \$8.9 billion (14.6% of GDP) and remained high throughout the year, reaching US\$33.4 billion (119.9% of GDP) in 1990 (World Bank, 2013). Much increase in the debt stock during the latter period was attributed to the state of the economy as there was a devaluation of the naira due to poor exchange rate policies and a decline in the global commodity market (Adamu & Rasiah, 2016).

In conclusion, both for Mexico and Nigeria, it is safe to say colonized countries, such as these two, seem to show a trend of self-destruction owing to the imposed and inherited political system, which was not natural nor appropriate to the natural setting and structure of these regions.

Conflict and Violence in Mexico and Nigeria

This section discusses further the similar situations and challenges that both countries have faced in the recent past, in this case, the problem of violence in both countries which is mostly drug violence in Mexico starting from 1982 and majorly ethnic conflict, political and religious conflict in Nigeria. In low-income countries, fractionalization emerges as divisions based on ethnicity, language, or other social factors. These divisions can be linked to civil unrest and even violent conflicts, causing developing nations to shift their focus from developmental matters to political stability and conflict resolution. As a result, significant resources and efforts are directed toward addressing these issues rather than promoting development. The most infamous conflicts in Nigeria started in 1960, when the civil war resulted in massive government expenditure to procure war equipment, but that caused money supply to increase by 30.0 and 42.5 percent, in 1970 and 1971 respectively, thereby causing undesired inflation. The aftermath of the war was the loss of infrastructures, depletion of public and private properties, the unfortunate loss of livelihood, undesired loss of human capital, resultant disabled persons and orphans, and the surge of the rate of crime and lawlessness. Several religious conflicts, inter and intra-tribal conflicts had happened ever since the war, for instance, in the towns such as Modakeke and Ife conflict, the conflict between Yoruba and Hausa beef sellers in Alhausa

in Lagos state, which made the news internationally, but none of them compared to the Islamic terrorism perpetrated by Boko Haram, which is still a problem nowadays.

Boko Haram is an Islamic group in Northern Nigeria that kill and kidnap people demanding that Nigeria becomes an Islamic state. They are notorious for invading girls' schools and kidnapping them. For instance, the Northeast Nigeria Recovery and Peace Building Assessment (RPBA) team reported in 2016 that the economic cost of the conflict in the region cost \$9 billion in 2016. Besides other atrocities, 95 percent of the houses in Borno state were destroyed because of all these violent atrocities, so millions of people have been displaced and they face food shortages because of the collapse of agriculture in those regions. Trade routes have been closed, and that have caused cattle traders, herdsmen, butchers, and laborers to become unemployed. Hence, what this terrorist group produced was only chaos and underdevelopment.

There are other conflicts related with religious and regional conflicts, such as herdsmen from the north as well who go in search of green pastures to feed their cows in the middle belt and southern states wreak havoc on farms and killed people in farming rural areas. Also, recurring conflicts usually initiated by herdsmen on farmers in the middle belt of Nigeria has led to a loss of US \$13.7 billion annually in what would have been a gain in a scenario of peace in Benue, Kaduna, Nasarawa, and Plateau. The states' revenue losses were up to US \$2.3 million in 2010 including an average of 47% loss in taxes. Reductions in farmer-pastoralist conflicts are worth up to 2.7% of Nigeria's officially reported GDP annually (Mercy Corps, 2015).

Prior to the insurgence of Boko Haram and herdsmen killings, the Niger Delta militant groups had been fighting against the government. They burst oil pipelines to siphon petroleum, attack oil refinery companies such as Shell in Nigeria, and kidnap expatriates who work for the oil companies for money or kill them, and in some instances, they force the government to give them benefits from the expanse crude oil reserve on their land, because they have been marginalized and have endured environmental dislocation for years due to soil contamination as a consequence of oil exploitation activities, the pollution of water bodies that produce fishes, and the total depletion of the soil fertility of the soil. Consequently, many of the people live in abject poverty amidst immense wealth enjoyed by oil workers and expatriates, and that exacerbates the feeling of anger among the indigenes.

The results of the sufferings of this ethnic group are violent acts and activities of the Niger Delta militants that have been urging government intervention. It has been estimated that the economic cost of the militants' activities in Nigeria is close to 3.5 billion USD annually. Also, profits in excess of 1 billion USD are said to be made from the illegal business of oil bunkering annually (Odunniyi, 2003). The government finally had to resort to an amnesty agreement to end the excessive loss of revenue. As part of the amnesty agreed on in 2009, each former militant is entitled to 65,000 naira (\$206) a month with job training. Militants were offered cash stipends under the condition that they cease oil pipeline attacks and kidnappings in the volatile region. In 2017, an extra 35 billion naira (\$111 million) was allocated in the budget for an amnesty program aimed at the militants. (Iaccino L. , 2017).

Just like Nigeria, Mexico also has a history of coup d'état and civil war in the early 20th century which resulted in the death of about 500,000 Mexicans (Scheina, 2003) and led to the creation of Partido Revolución Institucional. During the late 1960s and 1970s, a war was waged against leftists with Marxist/Leninist leanings, resulting in the indiscriminate shooting of students at Tlatelolco, a public square near the Foreign Ministry. In 1994, a group called the EZLN, supported by foreign allies, sought autonomy over forest lands in the state of Chiapas and aimed to replace the government, coinciding with Mexico's entry into the North American Free Trade Agreement. Although civil unrest has diminished, the country now grapples with the challenge of violence perpetrated by drug cartels. In 2018, the economic impact of drug-related violence in Mexico totaled 5.16 trillion pesos (US\$268 billion). This figure represented a 10 percent increase compared to the previous year and accounted for approximately 24 percent of the country's GDP (IEP, 2018). In order to mitigate the effects of violence, Mexico allocates 0.81 percent of its GDP to domestic security and the justice system, which is half the average expenditure of 33 OECD countries. The economic repercussions of violence translate to 41,181 pesos per person, surpassing the average monthly salary of a Mexican worker by more than fivefold. However, the individual economic impact of violence varies significantly across states, ranging from 10,808 pesos in Yucatán to 83,167 pesos in Colima (IEP, 2018).

It is important to understand that violence in Nigeria unlike Mexico is primarily driven by political or drug-related factors rather than religious motives, depending on the period under consideration. The Mexican drug war is fueled by the availability of quick

money, with lower-class individuals often joining criminal organizations due to the lack of access to formal education and well-paid employment opportunities. In 2012, it was estimated that Mexican cartels directly employed over 450,000 people, while the livelihoods of an additional 3.2 million people depended on various aspects of the drug trade. This can be attributed to the government's failure in providing legal avenues for the creation of well-paying jobs. In the period from 2004 to 2008, the percentage of the population earning less than half of the median income increased from 17% to 21%, and the proportion of people living in extreme or moderate poverty rose from 35% to 46% (52 million individuals) between 2006 and 2010 (CONEVAL, 2013).

The Economic Sectors of Mexico and Nigeria

As mentioned in the introduction part of this chapter, Mexico and Nigeria have similar economic backgrounds. To expatiate on these similarities, the details of the economic sector of both countries are presented in this section. The economic sectors presented are the primary, secondary and tertiary sectors including the types of production, industrial and commercial activities that exist under each sector for both countries.

The primary sector in Mexico encompasses agriculture and the extraction of various minerals such as gold, silver, copper, lead, zinc, natural gas, and petroleum. Mexico holds the distinction of being the world's seventh-largest agricultural power, contributing significantly to the production of important commodities including coffee, sugar, corn, oranges, avocados, and limes (Satander, 2021). Mexico's food industry is further strengthened by significant endeavors like cattle ranching and fishing. In Mexico, the state-owned oil company, *Petróleos Mexicanos* (PEMEX), operates six refineries—Salamanca, Tula, Nuevo León, Minatitlán, Dos Bocas, and Santa Cruz—which play a vital role in the country's petroleum production.

The secondary sector in Mexico, which is the one that boosts production, include aerospace, automobile, medical device manufacturing, electronics, apparel and textile, jewelry production, bags and shoes, and beverages such as beer and wine. Although automobile production in Mexico is popularly known for assembling vehicles, it is growing beyond assembling to designing, developing, and manufacturing and this indicates a progressive rise of the manufacturing sector in Mexico.

The tertiary sector in Mexico comprises services provided in form of the hi-tech, information and software, medical services, tourism, commerce, real estate services, transportation, courier services, storage, educational services, finance and insurance, professional services, scientific & technological, health & social, lodging, catering, media, business support, entertainment, corporate management, leisure. The service sector constituted 60.14% of GDP and employed 61.07% of the workforce in 2018. Apparently, after reviewing these three sectors in Mexico, it is accurate to say Nigeria has comparable economic sectors.

Nigeria's economic sector comprises of the primary sector that involves activities that are majorly carried out by the rural communities such as crop production, forestry, livestock, and fishing. Others are mining and quarrying such as the extraction of crude oil, iron ore, gold, zinc, and coal. In 2019, a large reserve of Lithium was discovered in Nigeria and this has put the country in the spotlight for battery manufacturers. The Nigerian government has, however, decided to use this natural endowment to attract jobs into the country rather than offer it up for mining.

The secondary sector in Nigeria serves as a focal point for foreign investment and encompasses diverse manufacturing and production activities. These include the manufacturing of cement, building materials, food and beverages, tobacco, chemicals and fertilizers, wood and textiles, apparel and footwear, pulp, paper and paper products, chemical and pharmaceutical products, non-metallic products, plastic and rubber products, electrical and electronic goods, basic metal, iron and steel, motor vehicles and assembly, as well as construction and other manufacturing sectors. Additionally, as of 2018, Nigeria had five refineries, with four of them being owned and managed by the Nigerian government through the Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation (NNPC), while one is operated by Niger Delta Petroleum Resources (NDPR). Notably, in the second quarter of 2018, the growth of the non-oil sector played a significant role, with the service sector recording its strongest positive growth since 2016 (NBS, 2020).

The tertiary sector in Nigeria entails an evolving technological and scientific platforms, finance and insurance, information and communication, accommodation and food services, transportation and storage, arts, entertainment and recreation sector, real estate services, health, and social services. The tertiary sector in Nigeria has been receiving a growing infusion of technological techniques (Internet of Things) in delivering services

and goods by a tech-savvy population of youths who bring ideas from various destinations of migration and foreign education.

From the above in this section, it can be concluded that the service sector in Mexico has evolved more technologically than the service sector in Nigeria, especially because of the presence of outsourcing companies that originated from the United States and have acted as a vehicle for the transfer of knowledge related to the mode of operation, techniques, and ideas, all these besides the presence of machinery and equipment. This is not the case in Nigeria although the economic activities under each sector are similar, also in the sense that the energy sector has been satisfying the demands of Western countries for oil. On the other hand, Nigeria has been growing at a slower pace in technology in the service sector when compared with countries like Mexico. Overall, there are more commonalities in the types of commercial and production activities but disparities abound in terms of capital-intensive production, techniques, and human capital. Therefore, these are the issues that need to be addressed through this research.

Comparison of Mexico and Nigeria Using Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics of the variables in this study (i.e. GNI, external debt, level of government spending, income, interest rate and FDI) are shown on Table (1.1), and it shows clearly that for all the growth-related variables, Mexico has higher figures and hence, performance.

For Mexico:

Table 1.1 contains the data for Mexico, and it shows a summary of the maximum and minimum values for the variables in the growth analysis in the research.

Table 1.1 Maximum and minimum values of the variables for Mexico

Variable	Min	Max
GNI	34.89744	1283.058
EXD	7.097272	453.1578
LGS	1.847696	108.0934
INC	2.132663	6.999235
INT	9.6925	18.645
FDI	0.178385	50.79144

Source: Created by Data Compiled by Author from Various Sources; World Bank, UNESCO, INEGI.

The table shows the mean value of the Gross National Income of Mexico within 49 years from 1970 – 2018 was 524.27 million pesos. Note that the minimum and maximum values are the natural log values of the currency in US dollars.

For Nigeria:

The descriptive statistics data for Nigeria shows a summary of the values for the variables in the growth analysis in the research.

Table 1.2 Maximum and Minimum Values of the Variables for Nigeria

Variable	Min	Max
GNI	8.516814	528.4338
LGS	.1175856	100.019
INT	7.875	34.4125
EXD	.8366806	50.45183
FDI	-.73887	8.841062
INC	14.45218	202.3609

Source: Created by Data Compiled by Author from Central Bank of Nigeria, Statistical Bulletins & Website.

The table shows the mean value of Gross National Income of Nigeria within 49 years from 1970 – 2018 was 142.70 million naira. The minimum and maximum values are the natural log values of the currency in US dollars.

Justification of the Study

A less crucial point of justification is that not many comparative studies on Latin America and African countries are available even though these two regions are more comparable than their western counterparts. A more crucial point of justification is the disparity between Mexico and Nigeria despite their similar backgrounds which are a history of colonization, external debt, and an ongoing issue of violence. Regardless, Mexico has managed to progress rapidly despite these setbacks to a higher level of growth. The reasons for such differing pace of progress therefore need to be identified. Regardless, there are lessons that can be learned from both countries in various aspects of problems that will be expatriated under the problem statement.

Mexico shares some commonalities with Nigeria in terms of social, and economic problems, and a history of colonization and exploitation, and on the other hand, the two countries both have a large reserve of crude oil. Furthermore, Mexico and Nigeria both adopted neoliberal policies around the same period and have both struggled with the

problem of violence over the years. Despite these similarities in circumstances, Mexico has managed to emerge as a fast-growing country with a significant level of production, GDP and was rated as the second most competitive economy in Latin America and the Caribbean in 2018 by the Global Competitiveness Report in 2019 while Nigeria was not ranked among the first five countries in the Sub-Saharan region, the category that has the least level of competitiveness. Besides, Mexico's GDP has been 67.5% higher than that of Nigeria in 2018, and on average, between 1970-2018, it has been higher by 70.7%. In terms of development, Mexico ranks higher due to better infrastructure such as accessible roads, availability of electricity and generally in household living conditions. Therefore, it is important to identify the causes of this divergent progression between the two countries.

To explain further the similar backgrounds of both countries, the history of colonization and extraction must be highlighted. Historically, Mexico was economically plundered by the Spaniards who extracted resources through mining, tearing apart ecosystems, cultures and pre-existing socio-territorial units (Machado Aráoz, 2015) a hegemonic and a highly extractive tax regime ruled in Mexico using strong politicians and the church, trade with any country other than Spain was made illegal, trade licenses were reserved for Spanish merchants reinforcing monopolies and local trade was restricted (Moreno-Brid & Ros, 2009). In those ways, Mexico was deeply exploited, setting it behind in the race of growth and development beginning from this era.

Significant economic problems began in Mexico when excessive funds were released to expand PEMEX oil production in the 1980s causing inflation, during that period, Mexico borrowed funds from the United States as its interest rates went up and the price of oil crashed, plunging Mexico into huge debts and eventually, Mexico adopted IMF policies. The same trend of events makes up the history of Nigeria, British rule focused on extracting resources through military power, and with the collaboration of indigenous rulers, trade licenses were reserved for foreign firms, and prices of agricultural commodities were lowered below the world market rate causing a wage ceiling & economic hardship. British rule exacerbated differences of class, region, and community in Nigeria. A huge oil boom came with the government borrowing heavily and spending on wasteful projects & corruption. Eventually, in the 1980s, Nigeria implemented Structural Adjustment Program as required by IMF just like Mexico.

Regardless of these similar backgrounds, Mexico has attained the level of Upper Middle-Income Class in the world bank ranking, achieved industrialization, overcome

huge external debts, created, and implemented policies that are reversing the negative factors hindering economic growth and development. Therefore, it is necessary to analyze the impact of specific Mexican policies over the years from the period of economic hardship in the 1970s until the years of crisis in the 1980s, 1994, 1998, and until the years of economic growth up until 2018 to identify the causes of the crisis, the effective policies and the erroneous policies to guide the formulation of policies in Nigeria and to improve policies of Mexico as well. In addition, policies that have proven successful in Nigeria in some respects will be identified from the analysis to be recommended to Mexico for issues that have defied solutions.

The recommendations and findings of the research are expected to show the pathway toward raising the standard of living and national prosperity which will in turn lead to a reduction in the level of violence and crime in both countries and an improved quality of life for every individual, self-esteem, and inclusion. Moreover, this research has the prospect of verifying the validity of theories that encourage foreign direct investment such as David Ricardo's theory of Comparative Advantage and Adam's Smith Theory of Absolute Advantage in Mexico and Nigeria, for instance, the presence of maquiladoras in Mexico have not yielded optimal improvements in the standard of living of the masses and income generated from Maquiladoras by laborers remain low. Besides, the rapid development of Artificial Intelligence to carry out the tasks of cheap labor sought by multinational companies in the nearest future might nullify the comparative advantage of cheap labor and this should be a cause for concern. Therefore, by examining the policies that have and have not placed Mexicans and Nigerians in a better position of advantage in the past and to survive or excel in the futuristic era in this research, the result of findings will guide the modification of previous policies and recommendations that will set both nations on the path of progress.

Moreover, the research is designed to encapsulate all the most crucial development indices; education, employment, feeding, health, welfare and violence, and growth factors such as foreign direct investment, interest rate, external debt, and government spending in a succinct, point-blank approach such that any government administration can use it as a roadmap in achieving set goals of governance. The body of work within this research will serve as a policy evaluation report and the results of the analysis and recommendation are excellent for formulating better and more effective policies.

Research Questions

Concerning all the economic and social problems discussed above and the disparity in the conditions of both countries, it is necessary to ask this general question: Have the policies that were implemented in the years of economic crisis and the period of growth in Mexico and Nigeria between 1970 - 2018 have been effective or ineffective? The following are the other research questions:

1. What are the impacts of the growth-related variables on GNI in Mexico and Nigeria?
2. Which of the economic and development policies indicate a desired positive change and which of them are interchangeably recommendable between both countries?
3. What are the constraints that can cause hindrances should the two countries adopt the above-mentioned policies from one another?
4. What are the newly recommendable policies and ways to improve the existing policies for the purpose of increasing the level of growth and development?

Objectives of the Study

The general objective of this study is to analyze the effects of policies on the level of economic growth and development in Nigeria and Mexico from the period of economic crisis to the period of growth between (1970-2018).

The specific objectives are:

- I. To determine the impact of the growth-related variables on GNI from 1970-2018 in Mexico and Nigeria.
- II. To distinguish the policies that indicate a desired positive impact on the level of growth and development in Mexico and Nigeria and to recommend them interchangeably between the two countries.
- III. To identify and highlight the constraints that can cause hindrances to the performance of the adopted policies in both countries.
- IV. To recommend new policies or modify existing policies for the purpose of tackling persistent problems.

Hypothesis of the Study

The hypothesis of study in this research is based mainly on the general objective of the research and the specific objectives. Therefore, a guiding hypothesis for this purpose is stated as follows in the form of a null and alternative hypothesis:

H₀: The economic variables and development policies implemented in Mexico and Nigeria from 1970 to 2018 have not driven up the level of growth and development in Nigeria and thus are not recommendable for either country.

H_A: The economic variables and development policies implemented in Mexico and Nigeria from 1970 to 2018 have driven up the level of growth and development and growth in Nigeria and thus are recommendable for either country.

Statement of Problem

The section of the problem statement presents the specific economic and social problems that have been selected for the focus of the research. The specific problems in this section are poverty, conflict trap, other traps and brain drain. The issue of poverty encapsulates all the discussions of policies on food, health, employment, and income. Trap problems are more closely related to the policies, and the analysis of variables related to growth while the topic of brain drain is featured in the analysis of variables related to education. In general, the problem statement summarizes and describes the reality of the situation in both countries regarding these issues.

Poverty

The issue of poverty is a prevalent condition and a constantly discussed topic in Mexico and Nigeria. According to CONEVAL, in 2012, about 53.3 million were recorded as poor people in Mexico (45.5% of the total population), compared to 52.8 million (46.1%) in 2010 that lived below the national poverty line based on the multidimensional approach of Mexico government. Between 2010 - 2012, the population living in extreme poverty dropped from 13.0 million people (11.3% of the total) to 11.5 million (9.8%) (CONEVAL, 2013). There is a declining poverty rate in Mexico but income inequality remains high (World Bank, 2019). In Nigeria, 53.5% of the population lived below the poverty line

(\$1.90) in 2009 (World Bank, 2018) while people living in extreme poverty 47.7% of the population with a high level of inequality (World Poverty Clock, 2020). From these statistics, it can be deduced that although poverty exists significantly in both countries, it is worse in Nigeria.

Lower Level of Industrialization & Competitiveness

A low level of industrialization and competitiveness is one of the economic problems plaguing especially Nigeria while in Mexico, this point only applies when compared to richer economies such as USA, a neighboring country to Mexico. It is necessary to identify why and how Nigeria fell behind in industrialization and competitiveness and how Mexico can improve in this aspect.

A series of external shock during the 1970's oil crisis including a sudden drop in oil price, decreased commodity price, rising real interest rate, withering public coffers and limitation of domestic markets truncated the growth of manufacturing in Nigeria thereby keeping the level of competitiveness low. Mexico has a higher level of competitiveness but the level of investment in research and development is not at an optimal level at 0.5% of the GDP, growth of innovative companies is above average but has slowed down in 2019 compared to 2018. The higher growth in innovative companies in Mexico compared to Nigeria could have emanated from embracing the idea of linking companies to universities for knowledge transfer. Regardless, the skillset of graduates in Mexico is 4.1 which is less than that of Switzerland.

Additionally, a better quality of road infrastructure, very high road connectivity – 90.3% and higher railroad density at 7.3 km/1000km², and more access to electricity has also contributed to higher competitiveness in Mexico although the electricity supply quality is only 12% of the output (Schwab, 2019). On the other hand, Nigeria ranks lower in the level of competitiveness due to factors such as lower quality of land administration at 7.2 out of 30 and intellectual property protection is 3.0 out of 7 points. In the aspect of infrastructure, road connectivity is 77.5%, quality of road infrastructure is worse; 2.5 out of 7 points, railroad density is 4.2 km/1000 km² and the supply of electricity is insufficient. These indicators show clearly that Nigeria is not facilitated for industrialization compared to Mexico.

Other factors that contribute to the lower level of industrialization and competitiveness in both countries and the condition being worse in Nigeria are a lower quality of education and inadequate human capital made worse by migration of highly skilled workers, low level of domestic demand, being landlocked by poor countries in the case of Nigeria and dependence on natural resources for revenue (natural resource trap). For these reasons, it is necessary to devise means of alleviating these problems.

Conflict Trap

Violence and crime are the results of a lack of economic growth, the size of the informal economy, poverty and inequality, and lastly, non-inclusive policies. The rate of crime and corruption in Mexico is one of the biggest problems for the companies doing business in the country (Sanchez & Jose, 2018); (GAN Integrity, 2020)). According to the Corruption Perceptions Index Report 2017, Mexico ranks 135 out of 180, while the least corrupt country –New Zealand is ranked 1. Violence and conflicts can derail the economic and development progress made in a country by jeopardizing businesses, trading activities and employment besides the destruction of infrastructures. Nigeria is similar to Mexico in this regard. Violence in Nigeria gained momentum since the year 2011 along with the problem of deeply institutionalized corruption. The corruption index from the same report in 2017 ranked Nigeria 148 out of 180, which indicates a worse situation than that of Mexico.

The problem of violence and conflict have caused significant derailment of progress in Nigeria, the country has been inundated with years of conflicts such as the civil war, Boko Haram insurgency which cost the Nigerian government up to US \$9 billion by the end of 2016. Conflicts between farmers and pastoralist in the middle belt of Nigeria has led to a loss of US \$ 13.7 billion (Mercy Corps, 2015). The Niger Delta militant group as a reaction to marginalization, has wreaked havoc on the oil industry for many years (Odunniyi, 2003). These specific forms of violence and perpetrators have defied resistance or solutions with the exception of the Niger militant group which reached a negotiation with the government, but the progress made due to the negotiations was rescinded by incessant corruption. Hence the group resumed the acts of violence and oil bunkering. This paints a picture of a twin problem, one feeds the other so that no lasting solution is gained.

Likewise, Mexico has faced challenges as a result of the ongoing issue of violence. In 2018, the economic repercussions of violence in Mexico amounted to 5.16 trillion pesos

(US\$268 billion), marking a ten percent increase compared to 2017 and constituting approximately 24 percent of the country's Gross Domestic Product. Mexico allocates 0.81 percent of its GDP toward domestic security and the justice system (IEP, 2019). A key driver behind the Mexican drug war is the tendency of predominantly lower-class individuals to seek quick financial gains by affiliating themselves with criminal organizations while the willingness of the active population in northern Nigeria is fueled by poverty and extremism of religion. Nevertheless, only the poor extremists take up arms and live in the Sambisa Forest where the covens of terrorists are camped.

The problem of violence is a major cause of setbacks to growth and development in Mexico and Nigeria. Violence has a high tendency to occur when poverty and corruption are prevalent as they are in Mexico and Nigeria. Hence, a concrete policy design is required for violence to be effectively curtailed and permanently prevented through the tackling of poverty and corruption.

Other Traps

Traps are inconspicuous conditions that are detrimental to the prosperity of a country or modus operandi through which a country generates revenue (Collier, 2007). To begin, let us compare USA to Mexico and Nigeria in terms of how revenue is generated in the countries to depict how Mexico and Nigeria have been trapped in a state of overdependence on natural resources which is one of the traps.

To start the comparison, let us look at the revenue source in the USA; the highest sources of receipt collected by the government in the US between 1977 – 2018 was the individual income taxes which comprised of 46.5% of the total revenue, on the average. In the case of Mexico, from 1977 – 2018, 31% of the budget revenue was comprised of revenue from the petroleum sector. Out of the total public revenue, 27.87% is generated from oil related sources, and the other part of revenue comprises tax revenues (income tax, unique rate corporate tax, tax on cash deposits, value added tax), excise tax, taxes on foreign trade (oil yields, on the activity of exploration and exploitation of hydrocarbons, new vehicle, export, taxes non-included in the precedent fractions and accessories). Tax on imports, exports, on sumptuous goods and services, substitute tax of the credit of the wage, accessories, tax on oil yields, and other taxes) and non-tax revenue (rights, royalties, fees). In Nigeria on the other hand, the oil revenue as the component of the total revenue

between 1970-2018 was 70% of the total, the other sources are goods and services tax (GST), income tax, corporation tax, union excise duties, non-tax revenues such as rents and royalties. In summary, a significant source of revenue for USA is individual income taxes while a significant part of Mexico's revenue is from oil. In the case of Nigeria, oil is the largest source of revenue.

The comparisons made above clearly show that among the three countries, Nigeria is dependent on crude oil the most. This heavy dependence on natural resources is dangerous for the economy due to the volatile price of crude oil and does not give room for the other sectors to generate revenue because of the high turnover made from oil among other disadvantages. This situation poses a problem to Mexico to a lesser degree but there is a need to completely emerge out of the vulnerability.

Traps are not limited to natural resources, being landlocked by bad neighbors (Collier, 2007) is another factor to be considered but it must be noted that Nigeria is not landlocked completely –there are ports in the South of the country but the neighboring countries are poor countries –Benin, Cameroon, Chad and Niger. Besides the lower size of market provided by these neighboring countries, they frustrate the protectionism policies implemented by the Nigerian government, worse still, they exacerbate and facilitate the smuggling of banned goods and illegal items or commodities, as well as the bane of insurgency and terrorist attacks that plague Nigeria. However, it is important to note that the issue of bad neighbors only applies in the case of Nigeria.

Furthermore, it is important to examine the ways in which Nigeria's neighboring and surrounding countries have impacted its progress. In August 2019, Nigeria implemented the closure of its land borders with these neighboring nations. While individuals were still able to traverse the borders, the movement of goods was restricted by the Nigerian government to combat the smuggling of controlled or prohibited items. However, the deep socio-economic connections among communities residing on both sides of the border, particularly the Bariba, Fulani, Egun, Hausa, and Yoruba/Nago facilitate easy crossing for smugglers. Familial ties, as well, further complicate matters by blurring the line of difference among nationalities. Typically, these border communities face marginalization from government development initiatives, leading to a lack of economic support and making smuggling an appealing means of generating income. Consequently, promoting domestic production within the country has become challenging.

The case of smuggling is exemplified by Benin, which serves as a significant route for second-hand cars entering Nigeria, despite the prohibition on importing vehicles older than 15 years. While only approximate figures are accessible, BIM e-solutions, a shipping company based in Luxembourg, disclosed that around 10,000 cars from Europe reach the port of Cotonou each month. Also, the Nigerian government imposed a tax of 70% on foreign rice since 2013 and to enforce this policy, importation is allowed only through the seaports with the goal to raise revenue while encouraging the local production of rice. However, this objective is constantly thwarted by smugglers who prefer to benefit from the cheapness of importing rice to Nigeria's neighbors.

To discuss further the issue of smuggling, more reports are available on smuggling from neighboring countries close enough to Nigeria. According to Ships and Ports, a Nigerian maritime website, in 2014, Benin reduced its tariffs on rice imports, decreasing them from 35% to 7%, while Cameroon completely eliminated tariffs that were previously set at 10%. Hence, during this period, Benin experienced a remarkable surge in imports from Thailand, the second-largest rice producer in the world. In normal circumstances, at its highest tariff rate, each of Benin's 11.5 million residents would have needed to consume at least 150kg (330lb) of rice solely from Thailand. Therefore, it is evident that a substantial quantity of the rice was making its way into Nigeria to compensate for the shortage in local production, to provide sufficient supply to the country's population of nearly 200 million people at that time.

Unfortunately, the issue of smuggling from neighboring countries does not end with cars and rice, a number of deficiencies and consequent occurrences further exacerbate the problem.

For instance, the Minister of Interior in Nigeria, Abba Moro, revealed information about entry point shortcomings of the Nigerian efforts to protect the borders. There exist more than 1,499 unauthorized (illegal) entry points and eighty-four legal and officially recognized routes into the country, highlighting the extensive porosity of these borders that facilitates illegal transnational arms trafficking. Specifically, in Adamawa State, a northern region, there are approximately twenty-five unlawful passages from neighboring countries that are exploited by terrorists and smugglers to bring small arms and light weapons (SALWs) into Nigeria. This has resulted in Nigeria harboring over 70 percent of the estimated 8 million illicit weapons in West Africa, with the origin of the influx of illicit arms being linked to the Libyan uprising, which will be further explored.

To give an account of how the Libyan uprising became an affliction on Nigeria, it is necessary to start with how weapons made their way out of Libya. During the Libyan uprising, the ousted dictator, Muhammad Gaddafi either ordered that the state armory be opened in February 2011, or it was looted by rebel forces and mercenaries, and most of these weapons were never recovered. Terrorist groups like AQIM have obtained advanced weaponry, including SAM-7 anti-aircraft and anti-tank missiles, which they have transported to the Sahel region. These weapons were acquired through deceptive means, such as posing as supporters of Gaddafi, or through indirect purchases from mercenaries who obtained them from Libyan depots. Weapons obtained by AQIM were subsequently transferred to other terrorist groups, including Ansar Dine, Boko Haram, and MUJAO. As a result, the proliferation of weapons in the Sahara-Sahel region bolstered Boko Haram's audacity. The presence of porous borders in Borno and Yobe States, which serve as strongholds for the group, facilitated the smuggling of arms into Nigeria through various means. These methods included concealing weapons in specially crafted skin or thatched bags attached to camels, donkeys, and cows, with the assistance of nomadic pastoralists or herders. Boko Haram members also colluded with cross-border merchants, who concealed arms within goods transported by heavy trucks, trailers, and lorries. Due to the large size of these goods, they received minimal or no scrutiny from security and border officials. Consequently, an abundance of weapons found their way into Nigeria, enabling the group to carry out massacres and acts of destruction.

Likewise, the ECOWAS agreement on the free movement of people, goods, and services has been exploited to facilitate cross-border trafficking of arms. This, combined with inadequate monitoring of cross-border trade in the region and the prevalence of endemic corruption in Nigeria, has led to instances where security agents have been involved in facilitating cross-border arms trafficking. Weapon trafficking was reported in neighboring countries such as Cameroon's far north region, and inflow of weapons from crisis-prone neighboring countries such as Central African Republic (CAR) and Sudan have been uncovered. Likewise, the Sahel and the Gulf of Guinea were reported to be one of the biggest threats to security in Nigeria.

In summary, the problems related to traps are specifically natural resources traps, being landlocked by bad neighbors among others as explained by Collier (2007) but in the context of this research, only natural resources trap (and conflict trap) applies to Mexico, and in some instances, the USA can be regarded as one in cases pertaining to sovereignty.

Brain Drain Through the Migration of Skilled Individuals

Yet another contributing factor to the low level of development is the migration of highly skilled individuals out of both countries and has caused the depletion of manpower required for growth and social development to take place at an optimal rate.

The issue of loss of intellectuals to more developed countries is well documented and discussed in both countries. In Mexico for instance, the Consejo Nacional de Población (CONAPO) estimates that for every 19 Mexicans living in Mexico who has earned a bachelor's degree or a higher degree, one lives in USA. Also in 2012, the number of Mexicans studying abroad was estimated at 4,559 for a master's or PhD degree abroad, 27.9% of them were studying in USA, a situation unfavorable to Mexico where average schooling years is 7.2. This problem is a result of a lack of proper infrastructure and funding critical to continue research at home (Todaro & Smith, 2015). In Nigeria, it is estimated that 2000 medical doctors leave the country yearly due to poor conditions of work, facilities and remuneration; physicians earn US \$260 924 per year while surgical specialist earns \$461 000 in Canada (Vogel, 2017) which outweighs an entry doctor's salary of \$5000 per year and consultant's salary of \$17000 per year in Nigeria (Abang, 2019). According to World Health Organization, Nigeria has a ratio of one doctor to six hundred patients, but new findings are showing a higher ratio of one to six thousand patients. These high rates of outflow of skilled labor is a critical problem creating an unfavorable environment for any efforts at development to be sustained.

Finally, bad governance has also been identified as a trap and a destructive force that can permeate every aspect of the economy has been the cause of setbacks in both countries through corruption and bad policy making. Levels of investment, healthcare systems, geographical endowments and natural resources, the quality of government institutions, and the selection of public policies all play significant roles in promoting economic growth (Perkins, Radelet, & Lindauer, 2013).

A country that has opportunities, even though it is infested with corruption can still grow if there are effective policies by the government (Collier, 2007). Although corruption can make public rules more flexible to bend in favor of some domestic and foreign business owners, the cumulative effect is devastating. Corruption also makes it impossible for policies to have the most optimal effect regardless of how innovative it is.

In summary, the problems that the research is focused on are the issue of poverty, lower level of industrialization compared to more developed economies, conflict and violence, skilled workforce abandoning the countries for greener pastures, corruption, and poor policymaking. It should be noted that the topic of trap covers the issue of conflict, over-reliance on natural resources (natural resources trap), being landlocked or surrounded by poorer or conflict prone neighbors and bad governance. In the conceptual review, the word trap and the several types are defined and discussed in detail.

CONCLUSION

This chapter provides background knowledge concerning the economic level of Mexico and Nigeria and the standard of living of the people by using data from Human Development Index from 2018 to compare levels of development and by using maps to describe living conditions in both countries and a detailed description of the state of infrastructures all of which indicates that development and economic level of Mexico is higher than that of Nigeria. Furthermore, a historical and brief political background was included to illustrate similar experiences of exploitation, colonialism, debt, IMF structural adjustment policies employed by both countries and in the 21st century, the political instability that plagued the two countries. The economic sectors of the countries as thoroughly illustrated in this chapter reveal yet another similarity in the economic structure of both countries. Additionally, the records of violence and conflict and its economic impact were presented in the chapter as well, all to justify the essence of finding out the reason why Mexico whilst bearing all the similarities with Nigeria has managed to grow faster over the years.

The chapter further captured the broad issues mentioned above under more a concise topic-justification of the study, and the problem statement attempts to showcase the possible factors or reasons for the gaps between both countries which are poverty, lower level of industrialization and competitiveness as a result of poor-quality education, being landlocked by poor countries, poor infrastructure, and the brain drain. The other problems are conflict and violence and bad governance, which includes corruption and poor policymaking. The research questions break down the target of the research and the objectives as well to create the action plans of the research while the hypothesis help to determine the answer to the general research question which is to determine if the policies

implemented in Mexico from 1970-2018 have increased economic growth and development and if they can be adopted in Nigeria or not.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The literature review consists of the conceptual, theoretical, and empirical review but is designed to present the subjects in this study to understand in full detail the reason for the disparity between Mexico and Nigeria. The conceptual review expatiates on the various contextual words in this paper and the relevant topics in this research which are level of income, education, and health (in connection to Harrod-Domar model which is discussed under theoretical review) while describing the interconnections or relationships between the variables and the previous writings made by renown authors on these topics.

The theoretical review consists of the explanations on the neoclassical theory, Keynesian model, Harrod-Domar model, endogenous theory, issues about neo-colonialism, and neo-liberalism theories as well. The authors mentioned in the empirical review have conducted research to evaluate the theories under the theoretical review specifically, neoliberalism and neoclassical theories under the topic of FDI, Keynesian theory under the topic of welfare, and their various results or findings and conclusions are presented under empirical review.

Conceptual Review

The conceptual review consists of the terms mentioned and that are relevant to this study. Likewise, the authors that have written on the topics and issues discussed in this research and most importantly, the perspectives and explanations of the authors on these issues such as development, policies, poverty, and its features, causes of underdevelopment. Finally, an extensive discussion on health, education, and income on a global level in comparison to their level of the variables in Mexico and Nigeria to describe their interrelatedness while buttressing with the previous writing by other authors and data from various institutions.

Approaches to Defining and Measuring Poverty in the Context of Development

Amartya Sen (2001) wrote extensively on development as such from the perspective of freedom and redefined poverty. In his definition, *Poverty* is regarded as the state of not having access to real opportunities, basic needs such as income, good nutrition, housing

and social arrangements (which refers to physical infrastructure and social amenities) and experiencing social exclusion. Having access to these elements is termed as capability in this context of development including the right to participate in political discussions and decision-making processes that affect these social arrangements and elements rather than focusing only on Gross Domestic Product, technological advancement, and social modernization of a country. He emphasized that the list of basic needs required by people for a convenient life varies for people in different communities. More so, the aspect of having self-esteem and dignity based on the ability to maintain a desired standard of life and be accepted socially is included in how development is perceived in his writing. This approach propounded by Sen is famously known as the capability approach though there are other approaches such as the basic needs approach.

According to the Basic Needs Approach proposed by Ejazul (1981), basic needs can be categorized into three sets. The first is the minimum requirements for individual and family consumption which encompasses adequate food, shelter, clothing, and essential household equipment and furniture. The second set includes community-based essential services such as sanitation, safe drinking water, healthcare, public transportation, and educational facilities. Lastly, the third set focuses on non-material basic needs, such as, self-reliance, self-determination, national and cultural identity, political freedom, and the participation of individuals in decision-making processes that impact them –the fulfillment of basic human rights and securing employment to achieve basic needs. In addition, this approach takes cognizance of the uniqueness of the needs of people in different locations and at different times or periods due to the variations in social customs, institutions, economic, climatic, and environmental conditions and the consequently varying levels of calories and housing types required. Therefore, a high priority is placed on meeting the specified needs of the people as a primary objective ahead of productivity.

Finally, the approach recognizes the interrelatedness, complementarity, and linkages among the sets of basic needs. For instance, meeting the need for proper nutrition, good sanitation, access to clean water, awareness of personal hygiene has a positive effect on health and therefore, less requirement for medical services, especially curative medicine.

The interrelatedness of the sets of basic needs and the importance of efficient policies can be deduced from Radelet et al. (2013) and Todaro & Smith (2015) in the case study of Botswana located in the south west of Africa in the desert with few arable lands

and completely landlocked but yet experienced rapid economic growth –the fastest growing economy in the world between 1970 and 1990– an achievement owing to the presence of diamonds, strong government policies and institutions such as saving and controlling inflation, open trade policies (a clear evidence foreign direct investment success), effective fiscal, monetary and exchange rate policies, a civil service based on merit, a few state owned companies, property and legal rights protection. Thus, the life expectancy and literacy rate increased, and infant mortality rate dropped.

Resources were prudently invested into building infrastructures, network of paved roads, a reliable electricity generation and distribution system, adequate stock of housing, schools, and hospitals. The country also has a free press and democratic system and provides broad based support programs to the agricultural sector. Despite this report of success in growth and performance, the health challenge the country could not provide protection against –HIV AIDS– caused a decline in the development of the country, ranking only 98th out of the 159 countries as published in the 2010 Human Development Index, 38 points lower than its GDP rank would imply, this shows that despite a high level of real per capita income, the human development of the country was disproportionately lower (Todaro & Smith, 2015).

Regardless of the case of Botswana, health and education levels are generally much higher in high-income countries; with higher income, people and governments can afford to expend more income on education and health, in turn, a higher rate of good health and education lead to achieving higher productivity and incomes. However, it has been observed that without conscientious efforts toward ensuring improvement in health and education, there is no certainty that the increased income will be sufficiently devoted to the children’s education and health. In many instances, household consumption decisions have an unpredicted low relationship with income and nutrition (the income elasticity of demand for calories, which represents the percentage change in calories consumed in response to a percentage change in family incomes), typically ranges from zero to approximately 0.5 among low-income individuals, particularly children. This is primarily because income is allocated to expenditures other than food, and even when it is used for food, it is primarily for achieving food diversity rather than increasing calorie intake.

If the relationship between income and nutrition is minimal, as suggested by some studies, then development strategies focused solely on raising the incomes of the poor, without considering how these additional resources are utilized within the family which

may not result in immediate improvements in health or overall successful development (Todaro & Smith, 2015).

The multidimensional approach is employed to assess poverty in Mexico mainly by the National Council for the Evaluation of Social Development Policy (CONEVAL) by considering various factors such as current per capita income, level of education, access to health services, housing quality and size, access to social security, access to basic services in the dwelling (water, sewer, electricity, food security), and access to food. Hence, poverty is defined as falling below the economic welfare line, set at 2,329 pesos (177 USD) per month in cities and 1,490 pesos (113 USD) per month in rural areas, accompanied by one or more social deprivations. Extreme Poverty –well below economic welfare with three or six social deprivations. An additional variable is the degree of social cohesion, made compulsory by law, though CONEVAL decided to measure that variable independently rather than account for it within the poverty measure itself (Wilson & Silva, 2013). The multidimensional approach was pioneered by Mexico in 2004 and was adopted by Nigeria in 2022.

Definition of Traps

Collier Paul (2007) wrote about the factors ‘traps’ that cause some African countries to remain undeveloped and emphasized that distinctive to the poorest countries is not only the political *conflict* but also the way the conflicts remain recurrent therefore causing a continuous pattern of violent internal oppositions to the government such as a civil war and coup d’état. These two forms of political conflict are damaging, repetitive in many cases and can trap a country in poverty. The additional negative effect of conflicts is that it destroys the current level of growth that has been achieved.

Resource wealth (*Natural resources trap*) has contributed to conflicts in resource-rich countries and the income generated is only able to take them to the level of middle - income but not beyond because the resource exports drive up the currency value of the country thereby causing other export activities (local services, agriculture) of the country to become uncompetitive. Manufacturing and services generate less valuable foreign exchange thereby cutting off opportunities for technical progress and productivity growth. Natural resources are volatile in that prices easily fluctuate and are difficult to manage which caused many resource-rich African countries to spend money on frivolous and

unrewarding arrangements or wasteful projects but during the fall of price of resources, it is public investments that get cut back (e.g. the Structural Adjustment Program in Nigeria). Abundant resources (big resources) diminish the necessity for taxation, thereby weakening political accountability. Countries with substantial resources do not rely heavily on taxation, which reduces citizen engagement in scrutinizing the allocation of public funds. This erosion of accountability has long been recognized, often explaining the higher likelihood of autocratic governance in resource-rich countries (Collier, 2007).

Being *Landlocked with bad neighbors* as explained by Collier Paul refers to the opposite of a situation in which neighboring countries with fast growth projects a positive effect on a country that shares a boundary or within the nearest distance with them. From statistics, globally, resource-scarce landlocked countries seem to take advantage of the growth of closer countries, referred to as a spillover effect—for the landlocked country with no resources, the spillover is 0.4 percent but for resource-rich landlocked countries the spillover is 0.7 percent. For example, Switzerland inclines its economies to serve the markets of its neighboring countries (Collier, 2007). Therefore, countries that are landlocked by poor countries with no growth bear additional costs for exportation to sell products in farther countries and import costs increase likewise.

To understand all the terms mentioned in the problem statement pertaining to the economic issues in Mexico and Nigeria, all the terms defined in this section help to clarify further the interpretation of the topics that were discussed.

Brain Drain into Richer Economies

Since 1960, more than fifty million individuals from developing nations have migrated to developed countries and this accelerated since the mid-1980s, with approximately three million people annually relocating to industrialized nations. Unfortunately, a significant portion of these migrants comprises highly educated and skilled individuals. This poses a severe setback for developing countries, this phenomenon, known as the "brain drain," not only results in the loss of valuable human capital but also imposes limitations on future economic advancement in these developing nations (Todaro & Smith, 2015).

According to the report of the World Economic Forum in 2019, more than 10 million former residents live in countries such as USA, Germany, and other more developed countries and a large percentage of them are the most educated individuals,

graduates, and other skilled workers. According to the United Nations Population Division's estimates in 2017, roughly 15 million Nigerians are in the diaspora and this number comprises the most talented and highly skilled individuals. The health sector is the most affected by the massive outflow of skills as well as experts in the computer science field.

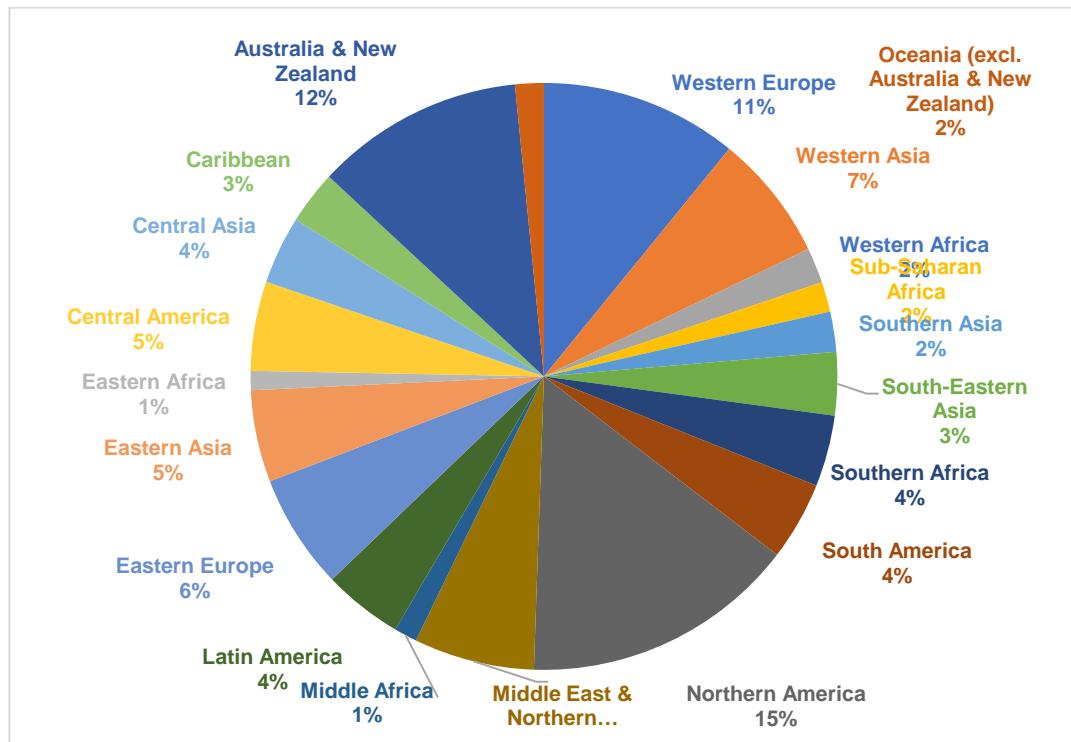
Distribution of Income in the World Regions of Mexico and Nigeria

The issues that have been discussed so far are all a part of the features that developing countries have in common and should all be considered in designing development policies. The details of the features were stated by Todaro & Smith (2015) and they are “lower levels of living & productivity, lower level of human capital, higher levels of inequality & absolute poverty, higher population growth rates, greater social fragmentation, larger rural population but rapid rural to urban migration, lower levels of industrialization, adverse geography, underdeveloped financial & other markets, lingering colonial impacts such as poor institutions and often external dependence”. These features can be found at varying degrees in Mexico and Nigeria, and as already mentioned, all indicators show that Nigeria has a higher level of these problems.

The level of income largely contributes to the low output in developing countries and the resulting disparity between developing and developed countries. Low income makes it more difficult to invest in education, health, infrastructure, human and physical capital required for industrialization including plants and equipment therefore leading to low productivity and economic stagnation as observed in Mexico and especially in Nigeria.

The share of global income in 2018 for world regions are as follows; Northern America (15%), Western Europe (11%), Australia & New Zealand (12%), Eastern Europe (6%), West Asia (7%) Latin America (4%), Sub-Saharan Africa (2%). Nigeria belongs to Sub-Saharan Africa region while Mexico belongs to Latin America, and the distribution of income according to these percentages shows Mexico does not rank high enough while Nigeria falls into the lowest category. While a high population is common among the most impoverished countries, it is not a high determinant factor of prosperity or poverty, the more influential determinant is the level of human capital –the availability of individuals with the required skills for productivity.

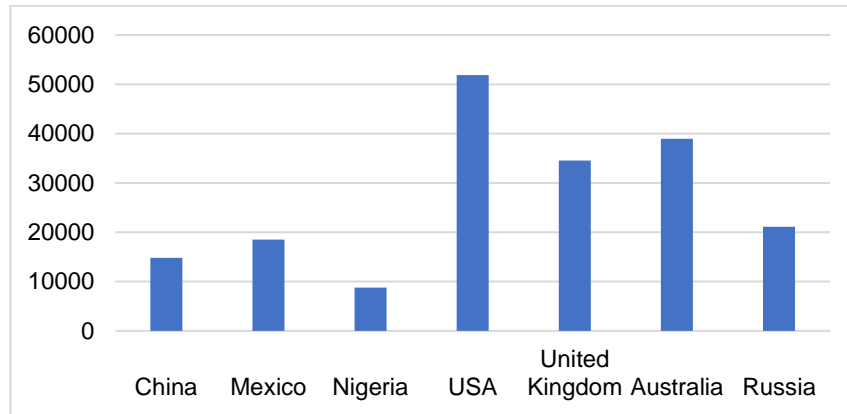
Fig. 1.1 Global Share of National Income



Source: Graph and Computation by Researcher. Data from World Inequality Database; www.wid.world

As seen in Fig. 1.1, the average income of the population of Mexico in 2018 was € 14829 (US \$18083.22), while Nigeria lagged with an average income of € 8787 (US \$10715). While the gap between the average national income of Mexico and Nigeria is large, the disparity between both countries and high-income countries such as the USA, UK, and Australia (average income of € 51894 (US \$63282.14), € 34522 (US \$42097.85) and € 38930 (US \$47473.19) respectively) is wider. However, the average income of Mexico was higher than China – € 14829 (US \$18083) most likely due to the high population of China. Consequently, this level of income has an impact on the educational attainment in these countries. According to the World Bank, primary school enrollment in Mexico in 2018 was 105 % gross (gross enrollment ratio is the ratio of total enrollment, at any age, to the population of the age group that officially corresponds to the level of education shown).

Fig. 1.2 Average National Income, 2018



Source: Graph & Computation by Researcher. Data from World Inequality Database; www.wid.world

Nigeria, on the hand, has no available data for primary school enrollment in 2018, however, the value was 84.7 in 2016 which is the latest available data. In 2010, pupil to teacher ratio in Mexico and Nigeria was 28.1 and 37.5 respectively which indicates fewer number of teachers for effective teaching within classrooms in Nigeria.

More importantly, poor investment in education is not only reflected in the enrollment rate, average years of schooling or the turnout number of graduates from tertiary institutions but it also affects the quality of education which is most effectively measured by the skills acquired and transfer of knowledge in classrooms, in other words, the outcome of schooling rather than access to schooling. However, empirical data regarding the impact of schooling outcomes are insufficient in comparison to educational access, as measurement efforts are often geographically limited, primarily focusing on OECD countries. Furthermore, there is a lack of understanding regarding how student performance in these outcomes has evolved over time (Roser et al., 2013). The quality of education and access to education in low-income countries is manifested in the low level of industrialization which is in turn associated with low productivity. In other words, industrialization is associated with high productivity and a high level of income and this direct relationship between education and the level of industrialization is observable in the economic positions of Mexico and Nigeria.

As seen in Table 1.3, the global income share of Nigeria among the three countries is the lowest and the agricultural sector has the highest share of the employed population

while the share of employment and GDP in the industry sector is correspondingly low as most of the goods and products used in Nigeria are imported.

Table 1.3 Share of global Income, population employed by sectors & share of gross domestic product

	Share of Global Income (%)		Agriculture (%)	Industry (%)	Services (%)
Nigeria	0.218	Share of Employment (Share of GDP)	48.19 (29.15)	7.14 (22.56)	44.67 (48.28)
Mexico	0.449		13.12 (3.38)	26.01 (30.94)	60.87 (60.15)
USA	1.257		1.43 (1.32)	19.73 (24.16)	78.85 (74.72)

Source: Table and Computation by Researcher. Data from National Bureau of Statistics-Nigeria, World Bank Data, Bureau of Economic Analysis.

However, the service sector has a better performance due to the application of information and communication technology, and globalization. Generally, the pace of globalization of services is swift (Mann, 2004) and the service sector is perceived as a conduit for economic transformation since a number of countries do not have a competitive edge in manufacturing (UNECA, 2015). The global income share of Mexico is more than the share of Nigeria but lower than USA, accordingly, the share of GDP and employment in the industry and services sector is higher compared to Nigeria but lower when compared to the USA which is a high-income country.

As previously mentioned, there is a linkage and a complementarity between income, health and education as mortality rate reduces sequentially— according to the data from World Bank in 2013, from lower middle-income countries, low middle- income countries, upper middle-income countries, and high-income countries (Todaro & Smith, 2015). The low level of income in developing countries at the national level reflects in the per capita income of the individuals. Therefore, with a low average income of Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia as can be seen in Fig.1.3, a large majority of the extreme poor live in the low-income developing countries of these two regions and this applies to Nigeria in this instance.

According to the World Bank, the population living below the poverty line of \$1.25 per day is estimated at 9.1% in East Asia and the Pacific, 8.6% in Latin America and the

Caribbean, 1.5% in the Middle East and North Africa, 31.7% in South Asia, and 41.1% in Sub-Saharan Africa. Extreme poverty can be attributed not only to limited human capital but also to social and political marginalization, as well as other forms of deprivation (Todaro & Smith, 2015). The issue of social and exclusion is a much-discussed topic in Mexico especially as it affects the Indigenous population and in Nigeria, it affects all rural regions across every geopolitical zone.

Low-income countries usually contain different ethnic groups with different languages and other categorizations including religion which cause social exclusion, discrimination and even bias in government administration as seen in Nigeria. All these social divisions often lead to civil strife and violent conflicts. There is evidence that high ethnic fragmentation can account for several factors linked to poor economic performance in Sub-Saharan Africa, including low levels of education, political instability, underdeveloped financial systems, and inadequate infrastructure (Todaro & Smith 2015).

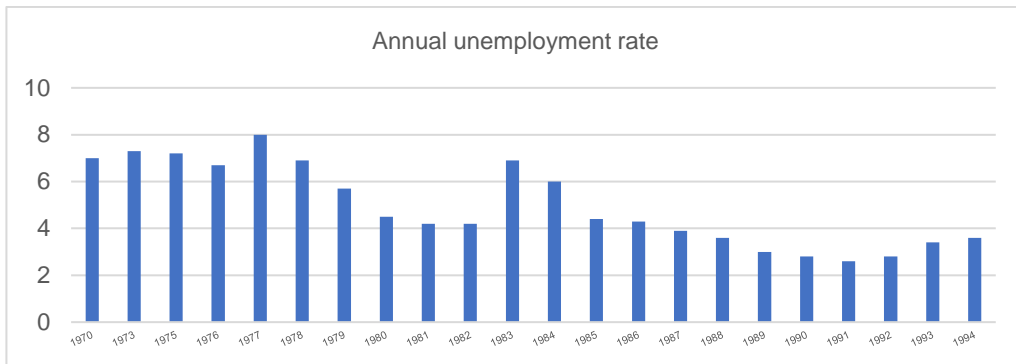
The State of Domestic Income and Employment in Mexico and Nigeria

To get a clearer picture and the specific amount of income the people living in Mexico and Nigeria survive on and the financial capacities of both countries, data were compiled to create the descriptive analyses that are presented in this section and is clear that for both countries the purchase power has been decreasing.

The incentive of cheap labor is a prerequisite to attracting and retaining foreign companies. Based on the data collected for analysis, the highest value of minimum wage (INC) in Mexico was US\$6.99 (MXN0.18 Pesos) per day due to policies.

Between 1976-1982, the unemployment trend as can be seen on Fig. 1.4 reduced significantly in 1981 and 1982 while the graph, Fig. 1.5 shows the relationship between minimum wage in pesos, US dollars and GNI.

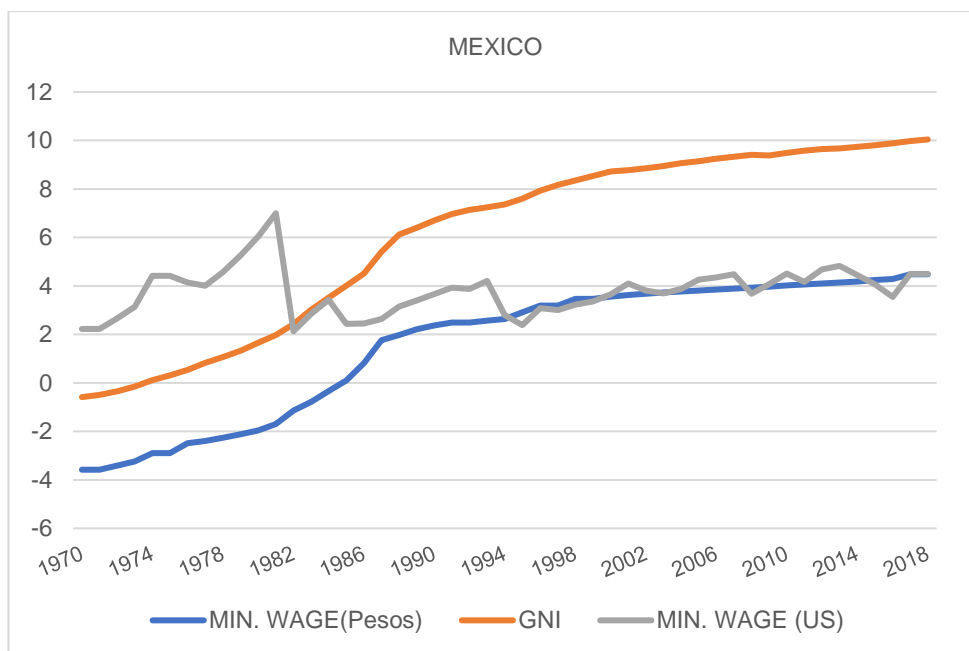
Fig. 1.4 Unemployment Trend



Source: Data Compiled by Author from Monthly Labor Review Nov. 1994, Mexican Statistical Institute.

Wages were increased in 1982 even higher than in 1976 because of Mexico's oil recovery but reduced oil revenues forced new devaluations that had a long-term impact on income distribution by the middle of 1982 (Bortz & Aguila, 2006), the rate of unemployment according to the graph shows that unemployment increased simultaneously in 1983 and 1984.

Fig. 1.5 Relationship between Minimum Wage in Pesos & Dollars and GNI



Source: Data Compiled by Author from Banxico.

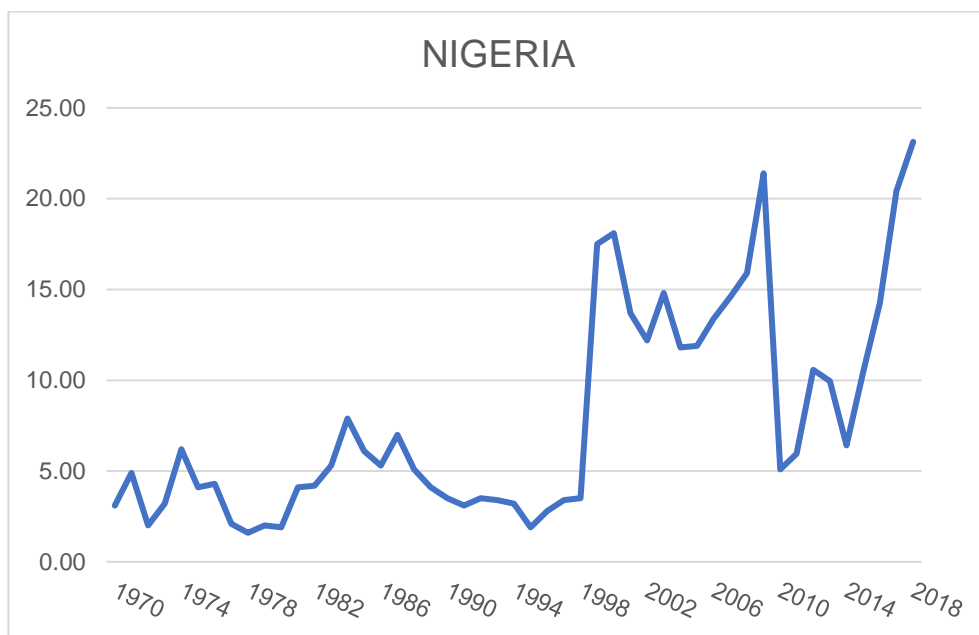
As already mentioned, wages increased in 1982 even higher than in 1976 because of Mexico's oil recovery but by the middle of 1982, reduced oil revenues forced new devaluations the effects show in the sharp fall in Minimum wage in US dollars in 1982

on the graph while GNI fell by 32.10% and further in 1983 by 31.19% in US dollars as shown on figure 16.

Fig. 1.5 (in log values) shows that a falling minimum wage in US dollars is concurrent with a rise in GNI but a rise in minimum wage in pesos is simultaneous with a rising GNI. By year 2018, the minimum wage had fallen to US\$4.49 per day but the equivalent was higher at MXN88.36 pesos per day. In other words, the minimum wage rose but the worth or purchasing power fell and this corroborates the analysis made under FDI.

The foreign companies have undoubtedly provided jobs and Mexicans are able to obtain a source of income, but the income is not sufficient to experience abundance or sufficient comfort. Yet, an increase in the minimum wage will cause a decline in the availability of the jobs.

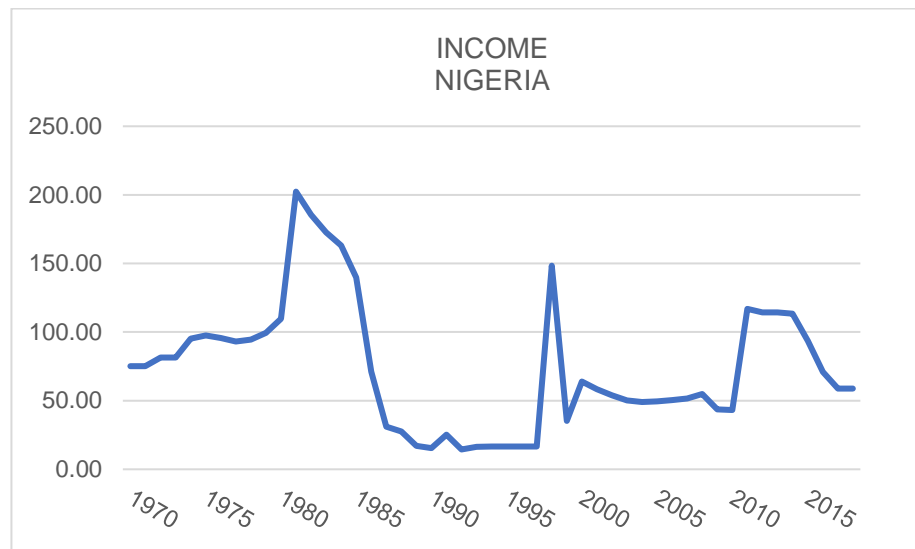
Fig. 1.6 Unemployment in Nigeria



Source: Data Compiled by Author from the National Bureau of Statistics

According to fig. 1.6, unemployment was lowest in 1972, 1975-1980, 1988 – 1995, 1998, in 2010 and 2014 a sharp fall is observed with the subsequent years showing between 2010 and 2014.

Fig. 1.7 Income in Nigeria



Source: Data Compiled by Author from Tinuke et al (2011). AERC Research Paper 223, African Economic Research Consortium, Nairobi, January 2011.

The level of income as seen in Fig. 1.7 shows that the level of income was higher between 1970 – 1981, income continued to fall between 1981-1987 and remained continuously low between 1991-1997, it rose sharply in 1998 but reduced between 1999 – 2010, rose sharply in 2011 until 2014, and eventually dropped in 2018. It can be concluded that the level of income does not seem to have a pattern that corresponds to the trend of unemployment.

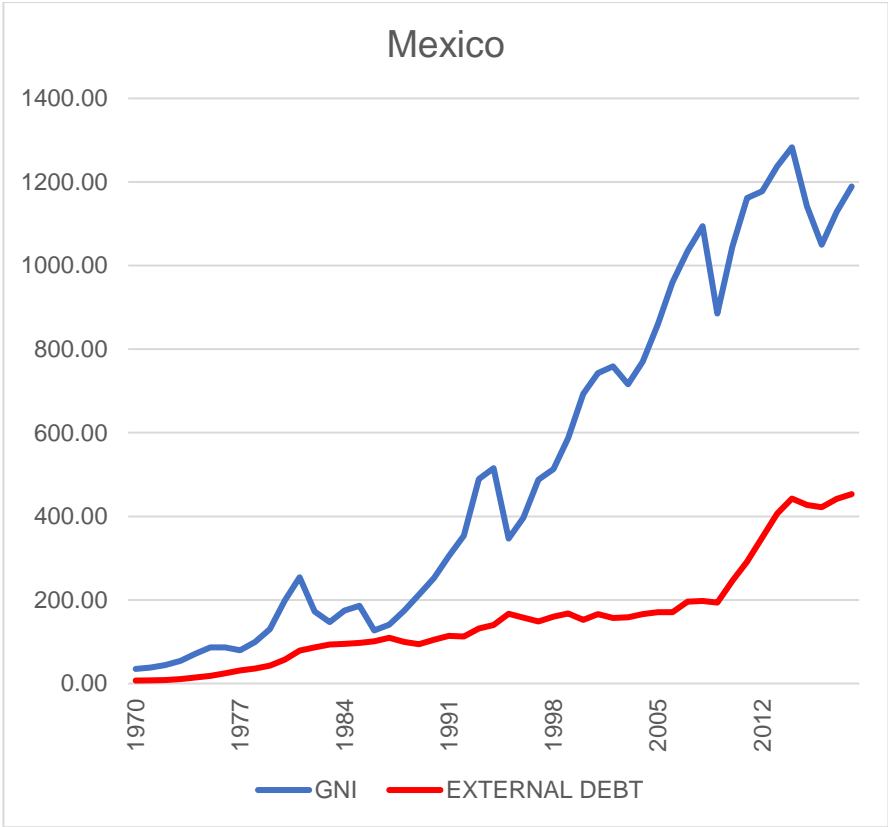
The Prospects and Consequences of External Debt in Mexico and Nigeria

Generally, external debt is obtained to carry out government projects for boosting the capability to generate revenue in the nearest future, therefore if external debt is used judiciously and not on wasteful projects, it will have a positive impact on growth, more so, the sector to which it is invested, and the size can determine if the external debt would start having a negative impact on growth. Just as demonstrated by Cásares (2015), the relationship between external public debt and economic growth forms an inverted U-shape nonlinearity pattern which can be explained by two contrasting effects on the economy's growth rate due to changes in the external public debt to GDP ratio.

By using a principle that resembles the AK model principle, the positive impact of external debt is observed as follows: when the external public debt rises, the relative price of the non-tradable good decreases, leading to increased resource allocation toward the

tradable sector (manufacturing). Since the tradable sector acts as a technological leader, this benefits the overall growth rate. However, the negative effect arises when the external public debt increases, resulting in an elevation of the country’s risk premium and higher interest payments on both private and public debt. As a consequence, household disposable income and the savings-to-GDP ratio decline, leading to reduced resources for capital accumulation and subsequently causing a decline in the growth rate. Therefore, it has been demonstrated that at lower levels of indebtedness, an increase in the external debt-to-GDP ratio could foster growth.

Fig. 1.8 GNI & External Debt, México 1970 -2018



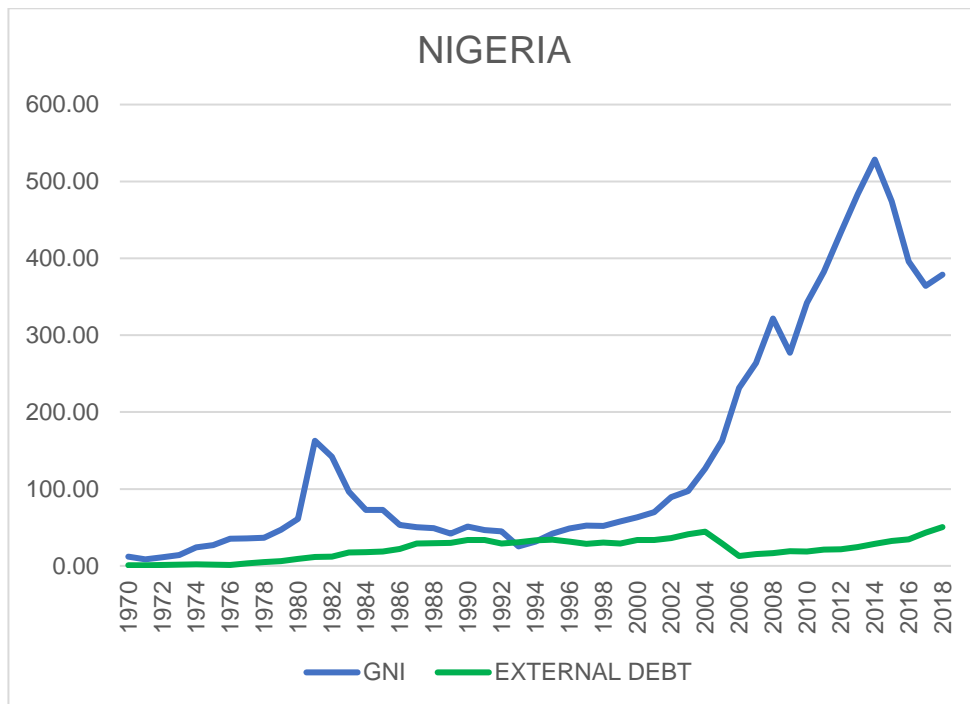
Source: Data from World Bank

Fig. 1.9 External Debt, Mexico 1970-2018



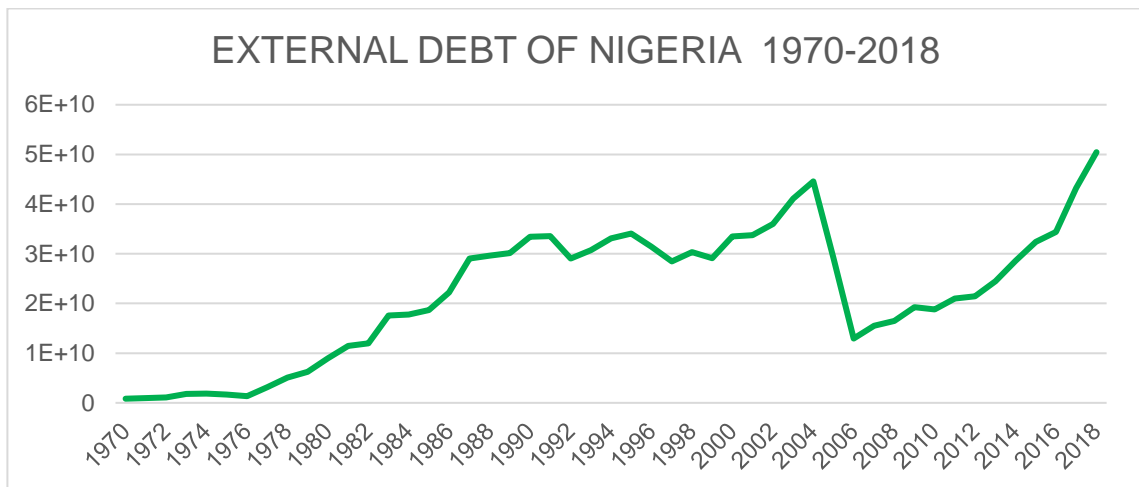
Source: Data compiled by author from World Bank

Fig. 2.0 GNI & External Debt, Nigeria 1970-2018



Source: Data Compiled by Author from World Bank.

Fig. 2.1 External Debt, Nigeria 1970-2018



Source: Data Compiled from World Bank.

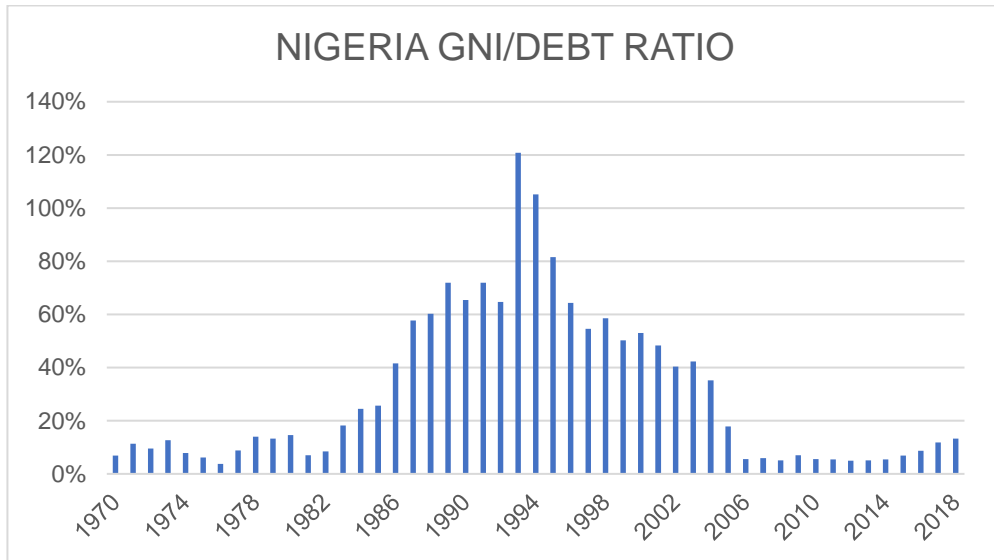
The graphs in Fig. 1.8 and 2.0 show a climbing rate of GNI growth with a slight increase in external debt for both countries. However, the change in GNI for Mexico is not sufficiently explained by the change in external debt. Fig. 16.1 and 17.1 are expanded views of the external debt for Mexico and Nigeria respectively and as depicted, the external debt in Mexico grew steadily while that of Nigeria shot up rapidly and only started to descend significantly around 2004. As mentioned previously, excessive debt can hinder development but the way to determine if debt is becoming excessive is by measuring external debt (in this study) to GNI ratio as designed by World Bank and the standard limit is pegged at 77%.

Fig. 2.2 Mexico Debt to GNI Ratio 1970-2018



Source: Graph Designed Based on Calculations of Author

Fig. 2.3 Nigeria GNI to Debt Ratio 1970-2018



Source: Graph Designed Based on Calculations of Author

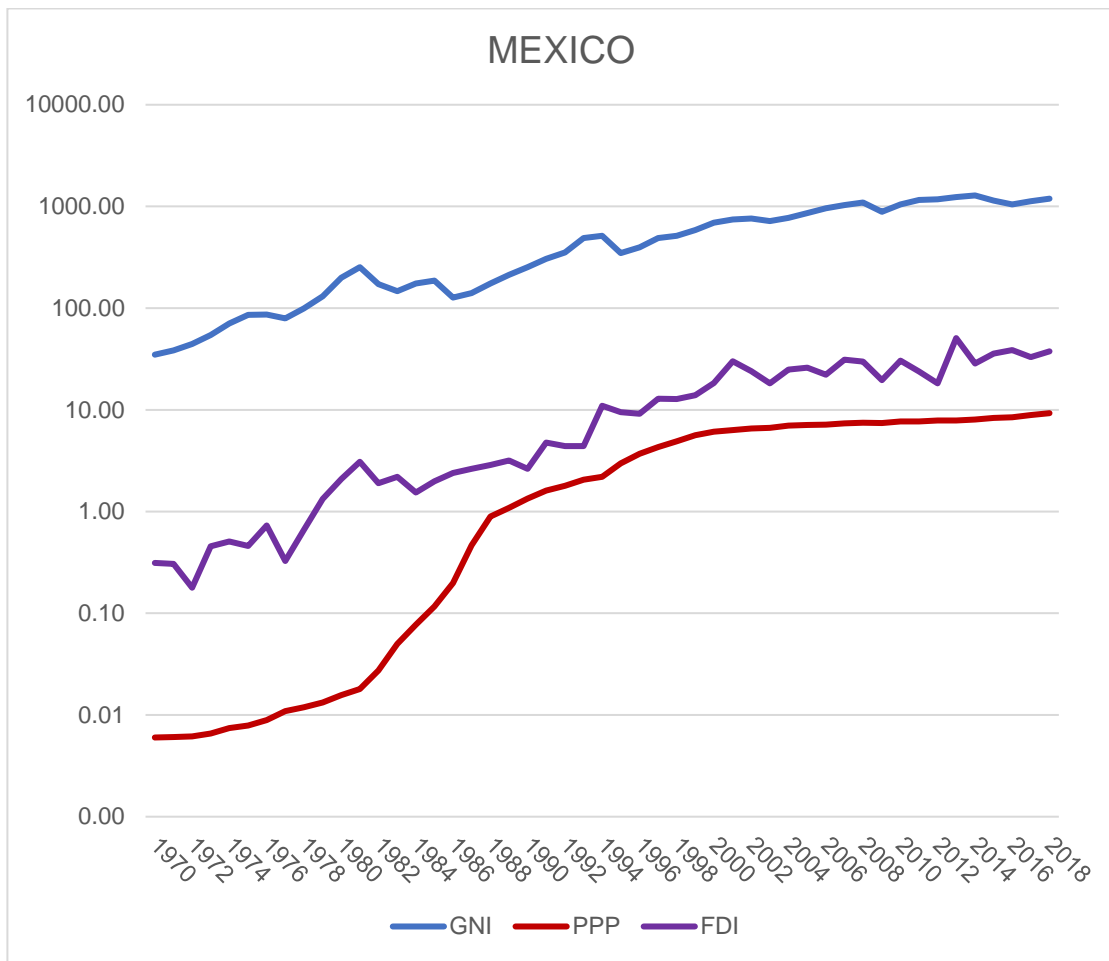
Fig. 2.2 shows that the limit of debt to GNI ratio was exceeded in 1986 and 1987 in Mexico but in Nigeria, the ratio was exceeded in 1988, 1992, 1993, 1994 and 1995 as seen in Fig. 2.3. However, countries with high rates of exports can sustain a higher debt ratio than countries with low growth and limited resources.

In conclusion, despite the poor policymaking between 1980 and 1998 in Nigeria, the analysis shows that between 1999 – 2015, effective policies brought down the burden of external debt. More so, the debt/GNI ratio in Nigeria across the 48 years were lower than that of Mexico except between 1984 and 2004, a period during which it soared beyond the highest in Mexico reaching 120% in 1993. While accumulation and high level of debt occurred in Nigeria as a result of corruption, waste, and poor record keeping of loans and hence, excessive payments and the solutions proffered, external debt burden in Mexico on the other hand was mostly as a result of political and economic crisis, shocks and in particular, the decision to devalue the peso in 1994. The analysis thus far indicates that despite Mexico having higher growth and exportation, the Debt/GNI was lower in only 20 years.

Foreign Direct Investment

The issue of FDI has constituted a lot of controversies, being a component of neoliberal policies, it has faced many oppositions in writings and in politics; there are claims that foreign companies smother local businesses and vice versa as presented in detail in the empirical review. However, FDI does not ensure an increase in purchasing power

Fig. 2.4 GNI, Purchasing Power Parity & FDI

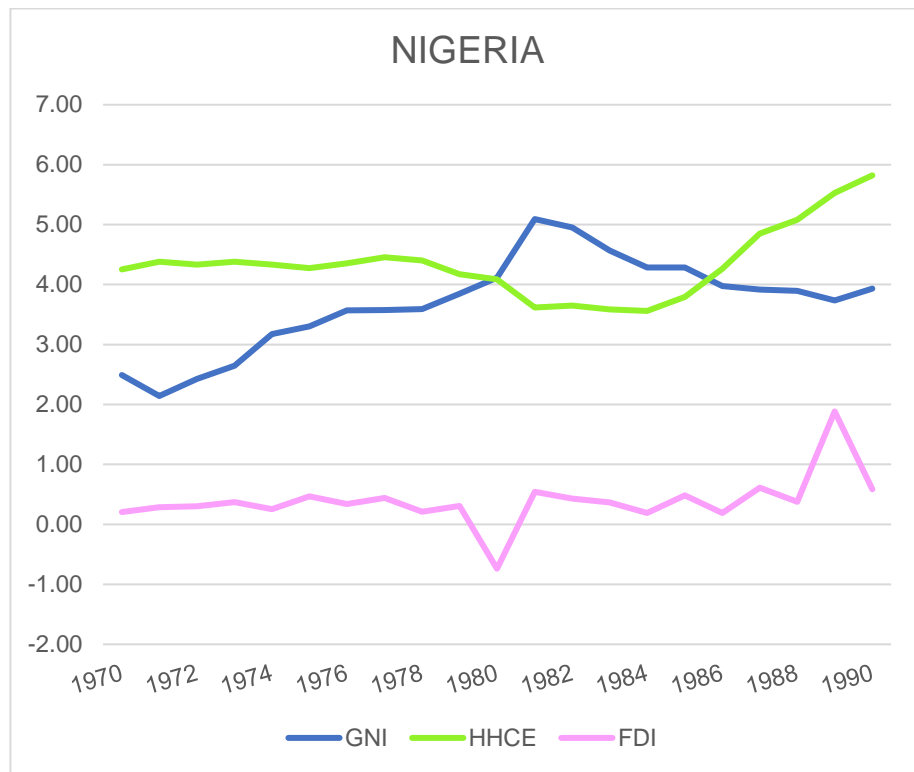


Source: Data Compiled by author from World Bank.

Fig. 2.4 shows the graph with the log values of Purchasing Power Parity, FDI and GNI from 1981 to 2018. While GNI increased significantly, PPP only grew between 1981 to 1988 and grew steadily and slowly until 2001 but did not exceed 10 points throughout till the end of 2018. GNI continuously remained higher than PPP, it grew from below 100 points in 1970 and continued to grow higher but steadily throughout the period slightly above 1000 points. Policies implemented between 1981 and 1988 can be found in chapter four. The purchasing power slowed down from the last policy and never grew beyond 10 points till the end of 2018, but it never fell.

For the analysis of the effect of FDI on growth between 1970 – 1990 in Nigeria, an alternate variable Household Consumption Expenditure (HHCE) will replace PPP in Fig. 2.5.

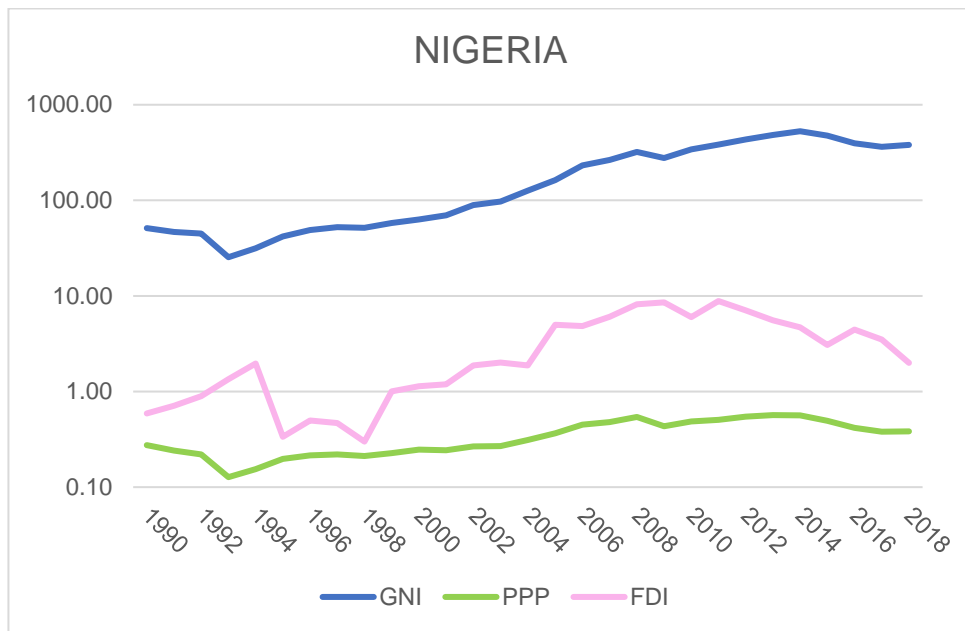
Fig. 2.5 GNI, Household Consumption Expenditure and FDI



Source: Data Compiled by Author from World Bank and United Nations.

The falling level of household consumption expenditure which shows between 1978 to 1979 can be explained by the policies implemented in those periods and the effect can be seen in the downward trend of HHCE as from 1978 to 1981, but ironically, the GNI dropped slightly in 1980 and shot up in 1981 when the reversal of the indigenization policy began due to recession and a chronic shortage of foreign exchange, but HHCE fell sharply in that year 1981. However, GNI continued to decline afterward. Despite the decline of GNI, HHCE only remained low between 1981-1984 but started to rise again in 1985 which implies that the value of GNI did not seem to reflect on the rate of consumption. FDI on the other hand, increased again in 1981 but did not remain stable until 1989 when it shot up sharply when 100% ownership was restored to foreign companies in all activities.

Fig. 2.6 GNI, Purchasing Power Parity & FDI



Source: Data Compiled by Author from World Bank and United Nations.

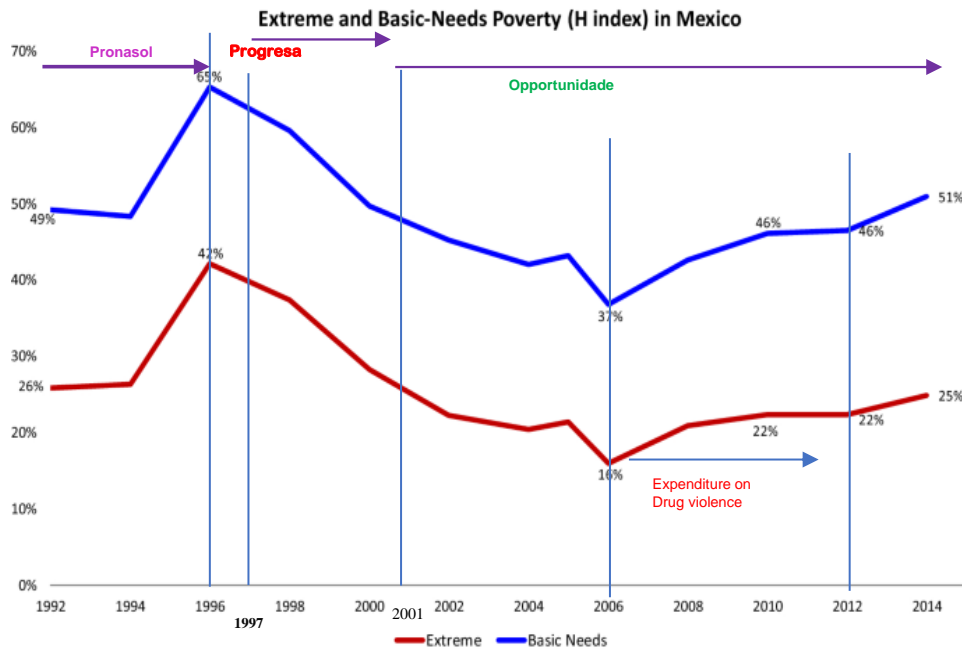
Fig. 2.6 shows that purchasing power in Nigeria was at 0.3 points in 1990 and by 1993 during the administration of the military ruler General Sani Abacha, the value was at the lowest point of 0.1 and at its highest in 2014 at 0.6 points.

Between 1992 and 1993, the purchasing power fell to the lowest by 1993 while FDI shot up in 1994 but fell again between 1995 and 1998 in spite of the policies in favor of FDI in that period as detailed in chapter five. The gross national income fell the same year to the lowest at \$25.41 billion (Current US) and was at its highest at \$528.43 (Current US). In 1999, FDI increased during the first year of President Obasanjo and the implementation of National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) that was designed for private sector led growth strategy.

Account of Government Expenditure in Mexico and Nigeria

The benefit of increase in government expenditure on education, welfare and health and is evident in the case of poverty levels between 1996 and 2012 in Mexico as shown on figure 24. Former president of Mexico, Vincente Fox between 1996 and 2006 devoted most of the government spending to welfare and the graph below shows the downward trend of basic-needs and extreme poverty but between 2006 and 2008 during the administration of Felipe Calderon, government spending was diverted toward the war drug violence. Consequently, the levels of poverty began to rise and continued throughout the period.

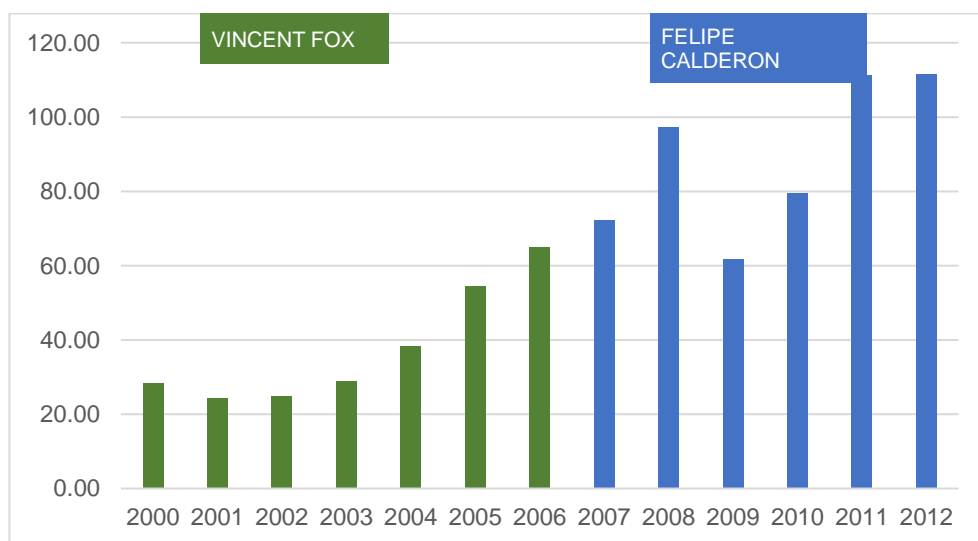
Fig. 2.7 Trend of Extreme and Basic-Needs Poverty Based on Government Expenditure 1992-2014



Source: Iniguez-Montiel and Kurosaki (2017) with additional labels from author.

More so, the increase in poverty coincided with an increase in the rise of crude oil during the administration of Felipe Calderon which implies more revenue for the Mexican government, an advantage that was not available during Vincente Fox’s administration. Regardless, the levels of poverty had an ironic pattern in the two different periods.

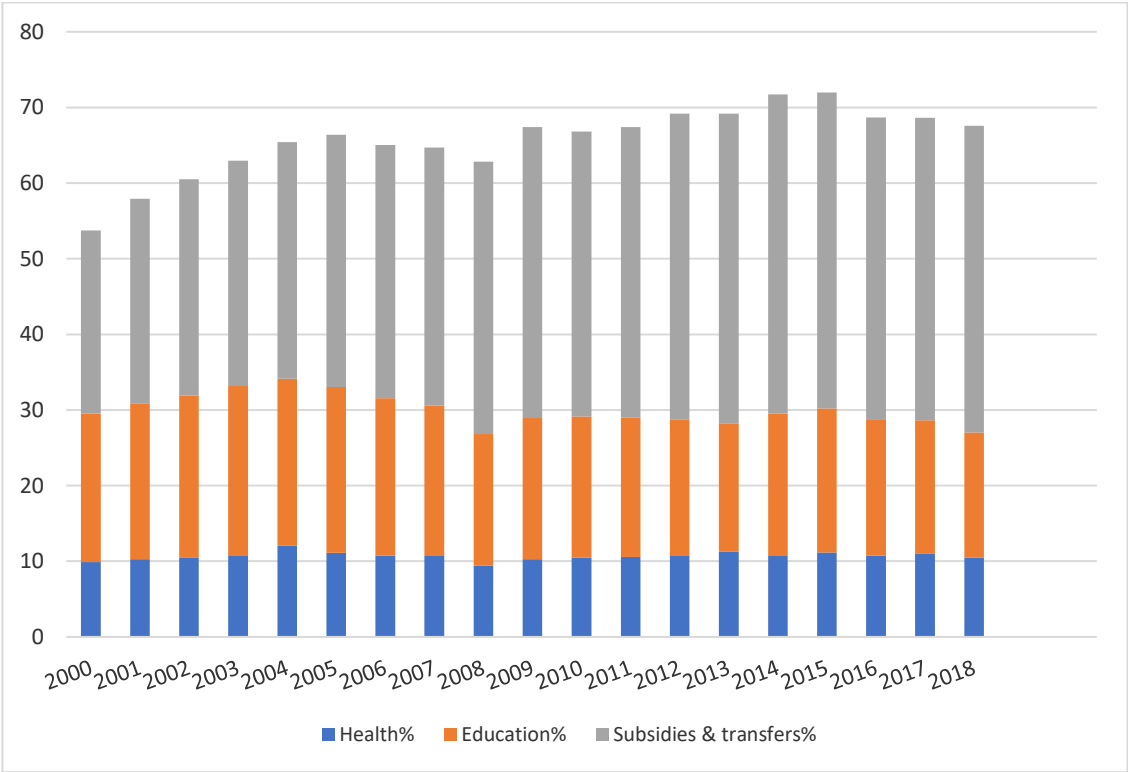
Fig. 2.8 Crude oil Price During the Administration of Vincente Fox and Felipe Calderon 2000-2012 in Mexico



Source: Data Compiled by Author from World Data.

As seen in Fig. 2.9, government expenditure on health between 2000 and 2006 was at the same level as between 2000 – 2012 but more in 2004 and 2005. On education, it is clearly higher between 2000 and 2006.

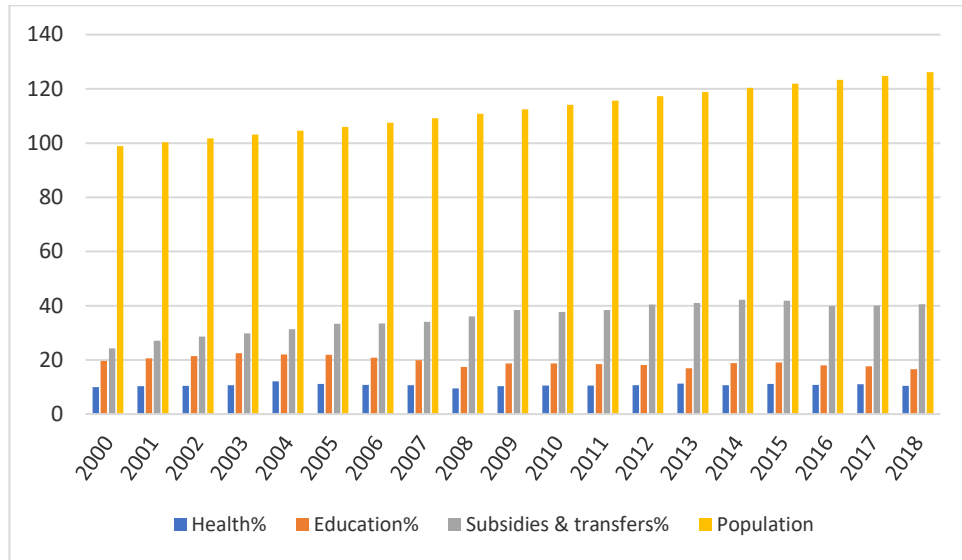
Fig. 2.9 Government Expenditure on Health, Education and Welfare (Subsidiaries & Transfer) 2000-2018, Mexico



Source: Data Compiled by Author from INEGI, Banxico and World Bank.

On the other hand, government expenditure on welfare increased between 2007 and 2012. However, the population increased continually as from 2007 and throughout until 2012 and beyond.

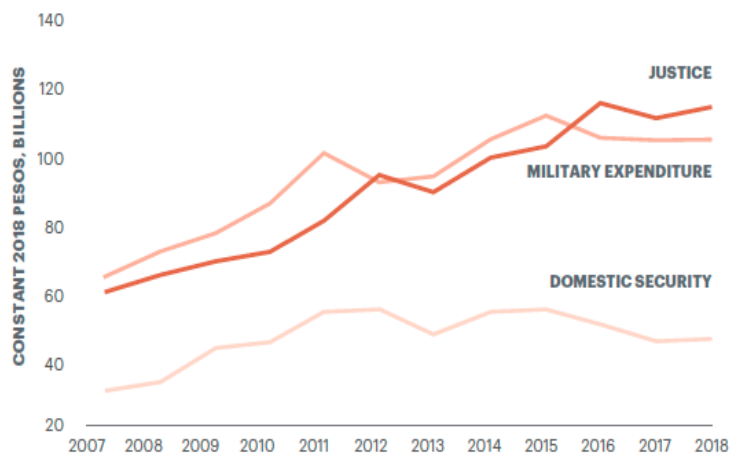
Fig. 3.0 Government Expenditure on Health, Education, Welfare (Subsidiaries & Transfer) & Population Growth 2000- 2018, Mexico



Source: Data Compiled by Author from INEGI, Banxico and World Bank.

Therefore, the increase in population nullified the effects of the increased welfare spending. The government’s decision to declare war on violence by high spending on military force is analyzed on Fig. 3.1 and it shows that between 20 – 100 billion pesos was spent on combatting drug war and activities between 2007 and 2012.

Fig. 3.1 Government spending on violence 2007-2012, Mexico

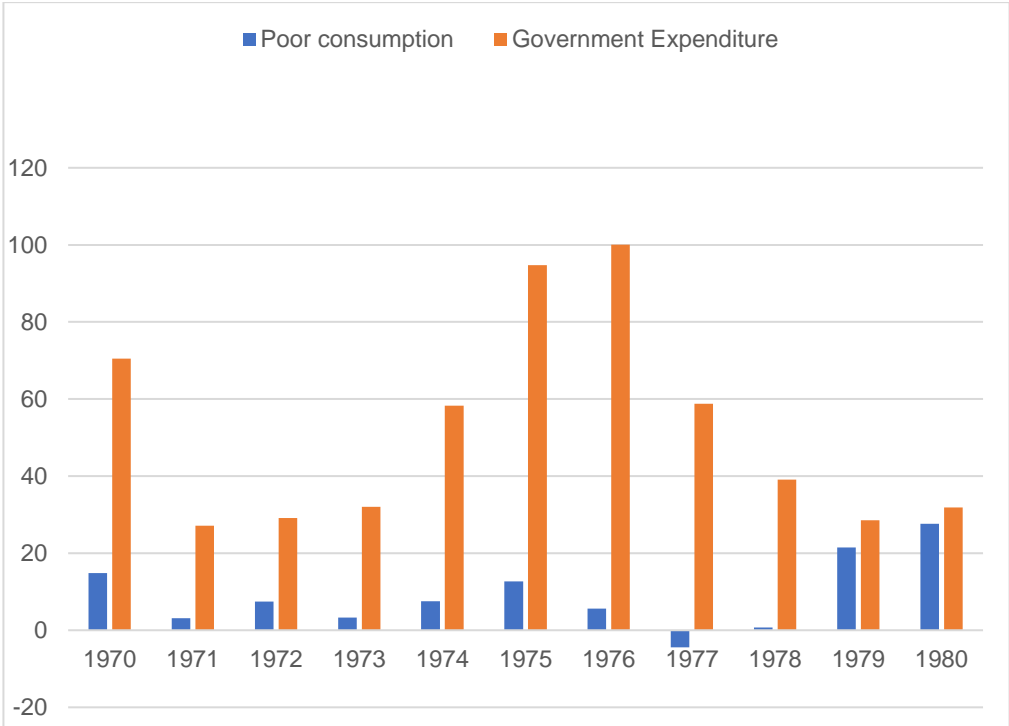


Source: Secretaría de Hacienda y Crédito Público

One might wonder how drug violence was tackled between 2000 and 2012 if not through military expansion but the findings during this research reveal that Fox’s administration passed with relative peace due to new measures.

In the case of Nigeria, poverty between 1970-1980 was measured, using the data of household consumption at constant 2005 prices, the value of the highest household consumption expenditure was \$US86.14 billion in the year 1977 indicating a relatively lower poverty level even though government expenditure on education, health and welfare was not the highest between 1970-1980 at \$US58.81 billion, the highest government expenditure was in 1976 within that period but poor consumption was not as low as that of 1977.

Fig. 3.2 Level of Poor Consumption and Government Expenditure 1970-1980, Nigeria



Source: Data Compiled by Author from United Nations and Calculations

Relevance of Interest Rate in Mexico and Nigeria

Since interest rate is a tool for executing monetary policy to control inflation, it is evident that in a country such as Mexico where the income level has been strictly limited to attract and retain foreign direct investment, increasing interest rate will discourage local businesses and profit margin will be low because investors will find it necessary to adjust the price of output to the rate of demand which in turn will be determined by the level of income.

Moreover, Mexico is still an importer of capital goods which signifies a higher cost of production for investors. More so, crippled local businesses will not boost the level of

employment nor create the opportunity for the ecosystem of local companies to foster innovation. Likewise, a growing interest rate will smother small and medium scale businesses in Nigeria where cost of production is already high due to absence of constant energy and profit margin generally low among small businesses.

Theoretical Review

This section consists of theories that support the method and choices of variables (in the economic growth aspect) in this research which are neoclassical, Keynesian, Harrod-Domar, endogenous, neo-colonialism, and neo-liberalism theories and a full presentation of the ideologies on how the variables affect economic development and the interplay of factors such as savings and investments, as labor force, natural resources, capital equipment, technical knowledge, income growth, level of demand, policies on borrowing, interest rates, trade liberalization, government spending on education, health & welfare.

Validity of Neoclassical Theory in Policy Outcome

The neoclassical theory has been applied in the formulation of policies across various periods in Mexico and Nigeria, observably during the years of debt crisis when the government moved toward contractionary fiscal policies. The neoclassical theory form the basis of the hypothesis on interest rate, level of government spending (on education) and foreign direct investment.

The theory was first constructed by *Solow and Swan (1956)* and its underlying principle does not encourage government spending beyond providing some basic services termed as public goods. Growth is achieved through savings and investment but diminishing returns will take place. Economic policies cannot sustain a country's growth overtime unless productivity termed as "technological progress" grows overtime and the rate of technological change is being influenced exogenously by non-economic factors. Growth process can be illustrated in two equations: (1) a production equation that relates the present flow of output goods as dependent on existing levels of capital and labor.

$$Y = AK^\alpha L^{1-\alpha} \tag{1.0}$$

A motion law that illustrates how capital accumulation is dependent on investment (equivalent to aggregate savings) and capital depreciation:

$$\dot{K} = sY - \delta K \quad (1.1)$$

This neoclassical model is the standard for analyzing economic growth in that it explains how in the long term, economic growth is independent of current economic conditions and that economic policies have limited influence on a country's long-run growth rate, particularly in terms of per capita GDP (Y/L). Rather, sustained growth relies on the advancement of productivity (known as technical progress) over time but the neoclassical model falls short in explaining or justifying the mechanisms behind technical progress. Therefore, to examine growth policies, a theoretical framework is required where productivity growth is endogenous, meaning it depends on the factors within the economy. This framework accounts for long-term technological progress and productivity growth, ensuring that diminishing returns to capital and labor do not halt economic growth.

If the only remaining factor that can cause growth to increase is capital accumulation, output will grow only if the capital stock increases.

$$Y = f(K) \quad (1.2)$$

When individuals are consistently provided with additional capital goods without introducing new ways to utilize them, a threshold will eventually be reached. At this point, the surplus capital goods become unnecessarily excessive, then the marginal product of capital becomes insignificant.

$$Y = f(K) \quad (1.3)$$

$$I = s(K) - \delta(K) \quad (1.4)$$

Net rate of increase of the capital stock per unit of time is capital accumulation is shown in equation (1.5)

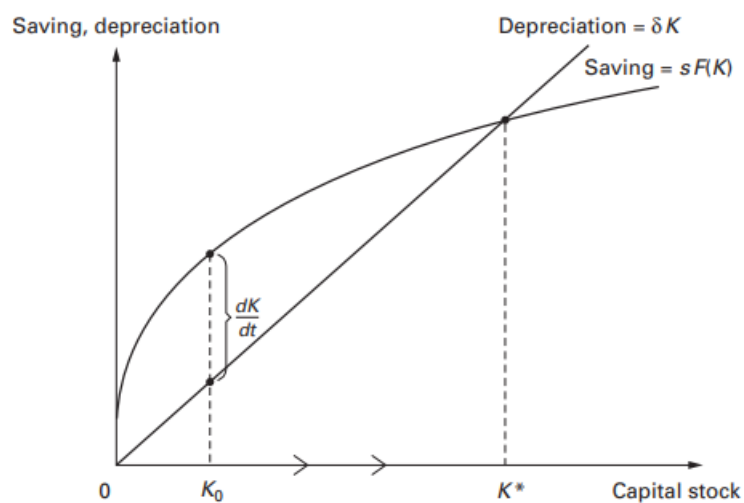
$$\dot{\bar{K}} = sf(k) - \delta K \quad (1.6)$$

When capital (machinery & equipment) is scarce it is very productive (it will generate more money), so national income will be higher than the capital stock, and this condition will motivate people to save more than enough to offset the depreciation of existing capital

and thereby increase capital stock K , therefore national income $f(k)$ will increase but not as high as the increase in capital stock because of diminishing marginal productivity.

Therefore, more saving will temporarily increase the rate of capital accumulation but will have no long run effect on growth because it will eventually fall back to zero. This shows that using savings to boost growth cannot pan out successfully it can only cause increase in the levels of output and capital K in the long run.

Fig. 3.3 Solow-Swan Model



Source: Solow-Swan Model, pg. 28. Aghion & Howitt (2009). *The Economic of Growth*. MIT Press.

$I = sY - \delta K$ reveals the relationship between the rate of capital stock growth and the existing amount of capital. Along with the initial stock of capital, it determines the future trajectory of capital over time. As savings reach a lower level, growth will start from zero over again. The increase in depreciation leads to a permanent decrease in the levels of output and capital, represented by the new intersection point K^* .

The neoclassical theory describes the relationship between the variables that are analyzed in this research in the growth category. Since the attainment of technological progress or knowledge is related to the level of education in a country, we need to know the policies on education and the level of government spending that has created growth in Mexico and Nigeria. Likewise, the interest rates that affect the level of savings and investment and in general, the effect of the policies that pertain to these variables.

In summary, the neoclassical theory gives importance to market mechanisms in allocating resources and determining prices and is the framework of the Washington consensus. This initiative aimed to enhance economic growth in developing nations by implementing measures like deregulation and trade liberalization. Neoclassical theory basically connotate the invisible hand of the market for achieving an equilibrium state in the economy, claiming that markets are the best means to allocate resources efficiently. It is crucial to take both into consideration.

Neo-liberal Washington Consensus

The Washington consensus has its foundation in neoclassical theories and was first presented in 1989 by John Williamson. The consensus is basically a set of policies on the factors that control the market and the economy. The grand design of the consensus is to reduce the interference of government in the market and allow free trade. The effect of neoliberalism and the intention or agenda behind it has been a widely debated issue especially among scholars and commoners across the globe but especially in developing countries.

However, it is popularly supported by prominent economists and the international capital market, and by countries that are known to have questionable interest in developing countries such as the Europe and USA. The consensus advocates free trade, floating exchange rates, free market, and macroeconomic stability.

The ten principles of the consensus are the following recommendations which include minimizing government borrowing to prevent large fiscal deficits compared to GDP. Public spending should be redirected from subsidies to focus on pro-growth services such as primary education, primary healthcare, and infrastructure investment. Tax reform is essential, along with market-determined interest rates and moderate tax margins. Additionally, promoting a competitive exchange rate, trade liberalization, inward foreign direct investment, privatization, deregulation, and ensuring legal security for property rights are crucial elements of the consensus.

An example of the implementation of neoliberalism is the trade agreements between Mexico and USA which led to heavy debts and repayments through concessional loans from IMF and the neoliberal conditions imposed on Mexico and executed by the state without the approval or consent of the main economic group of the country. It also restricted wages to a certain minimum while increasing prices of goods & services. At the same time, the state opened the economy to external competitors and foreign investment

causing inequality and high rate of poverty, low GDP growth (1.7% between 1983-1997), crippled domestic industries, exploitation of natural resources, only companies that produced for exports were supported and external debt grew by 95.4% between 1982 to 1997.

More outcomes of implementing neoliberalism is monopolization which occurred because of privatization, high rate of unemployment, increased informal jobs and street commerce. An attempt to reduce expenses by the government led to social costs, protests against neoliberalism, backwardness of many areas e.g., Oaxaca & Chiapas proving that neoliberalism was a benefit to a few (Hernández, 2007).

In Nigeria, the implementation of IMF policies which are neoliberalism principles led to the implementation of Structural Adjustment Program which caused hardship for the people. The program encouraged foreign direct investment which crippled local businesses, reduced government spending on welfare, deregulation, privatization of government corporations and depreciation of the naira currency. These policies led to unrests, inflation, and unemployment in Nigeria.

The year 1986 was the beginning of deregulation era in order to attract investment for growth in the economy during the structural adjustment program (SAP) in July of 1986. Features of the program are trade and exchange reforms, monetary and fiscal measures to help diversification of export trade. Depreciation of the naira to discourage importation and increase gains for multinational investors was followed by political unrests which negatively affected the economy; exchange rate fluctuated continuously, and inflation rate increased till 2010. After the implementation of SAP, the country experienced significant political conflicts that crippled on every aspect of the Nigerian economy. (Umechukwu & Okezie, 2018).

Validity of Keynesian theory in Policy Outcome

The proponent of the Keynesian theory is John Maynard Keynes (1883-1946) and it gained popularity during the depression era in the United State. The theory opposes the classical theory that postulates that all income is used to purchase produced goods and that supply and demand progress together until full employment is attained. In this research, the theory is the basis for the hypothesis on interest rate, level of government spending on health, education, and welfare.

Keynes explained that there can be differences between supply and demand, as demand is subject to unexpected changes caused by the propensity to consume, propensity to save, and inducement to invest. Investment is determined by expectations and the interest rate, while the quantity of money and liquidity preference determine the interest rate.

Economies might and do experience deficiency in demand which in turn causes involuntary unemployment, the ability of the economy to attain equilibrium through increased demand takes place slowly therefore government policies are required to increase demand and thereby reduce unemployment quickly. The action of increasing money supply might not always be enough to influence or encourage the masses in the private sector to spend more therefore government spending must intervene. Therefore, the theory supports government spending to increase demand to boost growth and apply expansionary fiscal policy by reducing taxes and through spending on infrastructure, unemployment benefits and education. However, the limitation of the theory is inflation.

Based on the principle of the Keynesian theory, it is necessary to ascertain the effect of the policies on taxation and government spending on welfare, education.

Validity of Harrod-Domar Model in Policy Outcome

The proponents of the Harrod-Domar model are Roy F. Harrod in 1939 and Evsey Domar in 1946. The theories form the basis of the hypothesis on interest rate, income, and employment, and those are pertinent for the study of Mexico and Nigeria, because both capital and saving have been important for the growth rate of these countries.

The dynamics through which increased investment cause economic growth can be explained in the Harrod-Domar model three mechanisms: warranted growth, natural growth, and actual growth. According to this model, the gross domestic product is dependent on the national net savings rate and inversely affected by the national capital-output ratio. The warranted growth rate represents the rate at which all savings are utilized for investment. On the other hand, the natural growth rate is the rate needed to sustain full employment and is determined by the growth of natural factors such as the labor force, natural resources, capital equipment, and technological knowledge.

The actual growth rate refers to the current rate of economic growth (increase in GDP) experienced in a country. It is determined by the rates of savings and investments

and is expected to match the warranted growth rate. The warranted growth rate is simply the rate of income growth required to consume the outputs when the growth rate at which all savings are invested has been attained. Therefore, the warranted growth rate is influenced by the capital-output ratio and the saving-income ratio.

The capital output ratio is another component of the model which describes the relationship between the value of capital invested and the value of output. The theory further mentioned crucial factors that affect rate of economic growths such as wage rate, interest rate, cost of capital, rate of savings, level of investment, level of demand (dependent on wages, inflation). Therefore, we need to assess the policies of Mexican & Nigerian government on these factors over the period of 1970 – 2018.

Regional and Endogenous Growth Model

The endogenous growth model is a group of models created by several proponents who described the dynamics between various factors of production to ensure increased output and in this context, output is regarded as growth, and the most important thing, the human capital, the endogenous part, has also been an important factor of growth in the countries under study.

In the endogenous model, economic growth relies on the specific attributes of the economic environment. This framework takes into consideration long-term technological advancements and productivity growth, and without the two factors, diminishing returns to capital and labor would eventually hinder any further growth. An example of this is the AK paradigm, which illustrates that to sustain high growth rates, it is necessary to save a significant portion of GDP. Some of these savings are then directed toward financing increased technological progress, resulting in accelerated growth (Aghion & Howitt, 2009).

On the other hand, Romer focused on the endogenous part by saying that output depends on capital accumulation, labor, and knowledge where marginal productivity of knowledge is increasing but the other two factors have a diminishing return (1990). In his product-variety model, innovation drives productivity growth by creating new varieties of products (not necessarily improved). This paradigm is a product of the new theory of international trade and highlights the importance of technology spillovers (Aghion & Howitt, 2009). The concept of endogenous development has progressed by acknowledging

the crucial role of social actors in making decisions and implementing solutions to address new challenges. In this context, development denotes a process of growth and structural transformation fueled by the dissemination of innovation and knowledge derived from investments in research and development within economic and social institutions (Vázquez-Barquero & Rodríguez-Cohard, 2018), therefore, linking institutions with companies is an important way to ensure that higher education contributes to development, productivity and create business forces, and wellbeing of the society (Álvarez, Hernandez, & Heredia, 2015).

Even though the product differentiation is the factor that fulfills the demand for goods and services in global markets, the key factor for development lies in enhancing productivity. This is achieved through various means, including cost reduction, economies of scale, and economies of diversification (Vázquez-Barquero & Rodríguez-Cohard, 2018).

The theories are in conclusion, the basis of analyzing the policies on education, interest rate which affect businesses in the countries under study.

The Neo-Colonial Dependence Model

The neocolonial model is a product of Marxist thinking and emerged as a response to the limitations of previous economic theories, such as Keynesianism, in achieving significant progress in developing countries. The neo-colonial dependence theory focuses on understanding the impact and effectiveness of policies within the Washington consensus. It argues that underdevelopment is primarily a result of historical inequalities in the international capitalist system, where rich countries dominate and exploit poorer nations. This system makes it challenging, and at times impossible, for developing countries to achieve self-reliance and independence, whether due to intentional exploitation or unintentional neglect by wealthy nations.

Castells (2010) presents a perspective in which inequality, poverty, and social exclusion are inherent characteristics of the network society that has emerged under the influence of global capitalism. This fundamental shift has profound implications for our understanding of societies, economies, and institutions in the present era. The author emphasizes the remarkable growth of the Asian Pacific region, and in particular, China's role as the primary driver of economic and political transformation in the global system,

even ahead of Japan. Additionally, Castells identifies the European Union as a notable example of a novel political institution known as the Network State.

In other words, globalization, neoliberalism, and Washington consensus which was imposed on developing countries as a result of massive debt is a new way of ruling other countries and usurping their sovereignty.

The model is relevant to this study as a general basis for all the hypotheses and all the analyses in this research. In summary, the theoretical review comprises of all the theories on which the hypotheses of the study are based on, and the theories are the neoclassical theory, the neo-liberal Washington consensus, the Keynesian model, the Harrod- Domar model and the neo-colonialism model.

Empirical Review

The empirical review will capture previous research starting with the category of development related research, a study that features two Latin American countries, and three countries in South and East Asia to measure government policies regarding capability approach. The category of growth features the research studies that compared Latin America, Sub-Saharan Africa and Southeast Asia based on the outcome or effect of the government policies implemented in these world regions. The other topics in this category are the empirical results of studies conducted in Mexico and Nigeria on foreign direct investment, external debt, interest rate, and government expenditure.

Empirical Studies on Development

According to the design of this research, empirical studies on development as aforementioned is based on the work of Amartya Sen's Capability Approach but this review will be limited to the variables featured in the development category in this paper therefore issues such as happiness and social exclusion will be excluded. Furthermore, the aspect of employment and welfare are covered under the subheading government expenditure on welfare.

The research carried out by Amartya Sen, focusing on the capability approach to development, aimed to elucidate the fundamental principles and concepts that underlie this approach. The data analyzed covered the period from 1980 to 1982. During this time, the

GNP per capita of Brazil and Mexico was approximately seven times higher than that of India, China, and Sri Lanka. However, when considering indicators such as life expectancy, infant mortality, and child death rates, Sri Lanka exhibited the best results, followed by China, with India lagging behind. Mexico also outperformed Brazil in these aspects.

More findings show that, basic education rated lower in India but had significantly higher tertiary education rates than China and Sri Lanka. Sen drew a conclusion from these findings, suggesting that China and Sri Lanka's public policies regarding the provision of food, healthcare, medical services, and education have played a significant role in their impressive advancements in terms of survival rates and educational outcomes (Robeyns, 2021).

Therefore, the ranking of countries based on GNP per capita is quite different from a ranking based on the selected development indices. Secondly, growth in GNP per capita should not be interpreted as growth in living standards. The variables featured in Sen's empirical study are income, health, education, and nutrition. Therefore, these variables are included in the study to assess the policies made on these variables in terms of impact.

Empirical Studies on Growth

The empirical studies and results on growth by various authors are outlined under this heading including studies on variables that are connected to growth such as FDI, interest rates, external debt, and government expenditure in Mexico, Nigeria, Africa, Latin American countries and some studies on Asian countries were included for comparisons.

According to Radelet et al (2013), a study has been conducted to explain the different growths during the period 1965-1990 among 10 East and Southeast Asian countries, 17 Sub-Saharan African countries and 21 Latin American countries with per capita average growth of 4.6 percent, 0.6 percent and 0.7 percent respectively. The differences in growth rate were mostly explained by policy variables. The East and Southeast Asian countries implemented more government saving rates, openness to trade, and had higher-quality government institutions. The variation in the policies accounted for 1.7 percentage points between the East and Southeast Asian and Sub-Saharan African growth rates, and 1.8 percentage points between East and Southeast Asia and Latin America.

However, the policy that had the greatest impact on these disparities was trade openness, with initial income levels being the next significant factor. Consistent with Solow's model, Latin American countries initially had higher average incomes (resulting in greater output per worker) compared to East Asian countries in 1965. Over time, Latin American countries experienced a slowdown in their growth rate by 1.2 percentage points compared to East and Southeast Asia, after accounting for other variables. Accordingly, the Sub-Saharan African should have had a faster growth of 0.1 percent than the other countries with a lower average initial income (all else being equal) rather than the actual outcome of 4.0 percentage points slower. This indicates that the other factors were responsible for explaining a substantial 5.0 percentage point contrast in growth rates between East and Southeast Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa.

An investigation tagged 'ELLA' (2010-2013) synthesized evidence on Latin American countries' recent experience in economic development, environmental management, and governance. In 2015, the paired ELLA Latin American and African research centers investigated the social problems in Latin American and African regions. The problems include, according to the report, are "informality, collective land rights, oil and gas value added, crime, domestic violence, and accountability systems".

The analysis of the countries' comparison demonstrates that achieving more inclusive growth requires addressing the diverse levels of informality and implementing distinct policy changes in each country. Both the Andean altiplano and the East African savannah face challenges endangering the productive systems of pastoralists (Lewis, 2016). The research and the aforementioned are the closest in nature to this present study as no research on comparative study between Nigeria and Mexico has been carried out previously.

Empirical Studies on Foreign Direct Investment

Foreign Direct Investment is regarded as a catalyst of economic growth through the benefit of comparative advantages that produces technological progress (Balasubramanyam, Sapsford, & Salisu, 1996; Borensztein, 1996), also by creating a pool of human capital, which is necessary for growth and development (Romer, 1990). De Mello (1997) found a positive correlation between foreign capital and investment levels for selected Latin American countries. Blomstrom et al. (1994) reports that FDI exerts a positive effect on

economic growth, but only nations that have attained a specific income threshold are capable of adopting new technologies and benefit from technology diffusion and FDI. Such level of economic growth can be assumed to be obtainable in Mexico but clearly not in Nigeria.

On the contrary, there have been negative conclusions about FDI due to capital flight. Reis (2001) and Firebaugh (1992) revealed that foreign direct investment (FDI) inflows may yield lower profitability compared to domestic investment and can even have negative consequences. This is primarily because multinational companies are less inclined to contribute to government revenue, foster local entrepreneurship, reinvest profits, establish connections with domestic firms, and tend to utilize incongruous capital-intensive techniques.

According to Clayton et al (1992), Mexico experienced a huge burst of economic growth called the Mexico Miracle between 1950-1970s when certain economic areas were made off-limit to foreign investors but reserved for Mexican. Nevertheless, FDI increased within the 1960s to 1970s and the Mexico's debt in 1973 was relatively small often based on concessional loan but an account given by Glasberg (1989) shows that Mexico incurred foreign debt to pay for its "miraculous" development and growth in the early 1970s.

On the other hand, the trade liberalization in Mexico under the Washington consensus policy led to the expansion of export-oriented industrialization between 2003-2007 amounting to an average value of \$20.6 billion dollars annually (Peters, 2009). Also, the presence of foreign companies can help the diffusion of innovation and technology spill over. There are, therefore, conflicting records of the effect of neoliberalism in Mexico.

Empirical studies on FDI in Nigeria have differing results as well such as the work of Ugochukwu et al. (2013) which covered 1981–2009 with results showing a positive relationship between economic growth (GDP) and FDI but not statistically significant. The authors suggested that the insignificant relationship could be accounted for by the failure of foreign investors to invest back into the Nigerian economy and therefore makes no contribution to the economic growth.

Oyegoke & Aras (2021) investigated the effects of FDI inflow and outflow on the economic growth of Nigeria for the period 1970-2020. The result of the regression analysis showed FDI inflow has a positive impact on the economy at 0.7% increase in GDP per unit increase in FDI. Similar studies during various time periods have contradictory results

as well. For instance, Awe (2013) investigated the impact of FDI between 1976-2006 and the result turned out negative at -2% impact on GDP, the author suggested that this indication might be because of the insufficient human capital in Nigeria.

These differing results indicate that the parameters that have been used in the studies could be imperfect. Hence, the real impact of FDI in Mexico and Nigeria might be best determined by studying a wide range of years as designed in this research.

Empirical Studies on Interest Rate

The interest rate in this study refers to the lending rate as it affects the ability of investors to obtain loan to start or expand production, or for small and medium business to launch startups. Due to the enormous role interest rate plays in the economy including being a tool for monetary policy for the central bank, it has appeared in many research writings and some of the empirical results are hereby presented.

An empirical study by Akinwale (2018) reveals that there is a negative and statistically significant relationship between economic growth, measured by Gross Domestic Product (GDP), and the bank lending rate (BLD). The study found that a one percent increase in the bank lending rate corresponded to a substantial decrease of approximately 1186 percent in economic growth in Nigeria.

Orlik (2012) analyzed the relationship between interest rates, effective demand, and economic growth in Mexico. The author concluded that based on the results, there is no sign of a direct relationship between the interest rate and output and suggested that expansive monetary policies implemented by making credit available to the productive sector but that a higher production and demand should account for credits to achieve a robust and stable economic growth.

From the above research results, it is pertinent that these authors have a verdict in the cases of Mexico and Nigeria that reduced interest rate and the encouragement of credit scheme can be beneficial to economic growth.

Empirical Studies on External Debt

External debt is a popular research topic and has received a lot of attention in various publications and for the purpose of this paper, the following authors were selected owing to the work they did previously on external debt in Mexico and Nigeria.

Akande et al. (2022) investigated the impact of external debt service on economic growth in Nigeria from 1981 to 2020 and found that external debt services deplete resources while external debt stock has a positive but does not have a significant relationship with growth. However, they found evidence of the existence of a negative long run relationship between external debt service and economic growth but not significantly. Overall, the study pointed out the importance of external reserve in achieving economic growth.

A similar study on external debt by Sanchez & Garcia (2016) using Dynamic Models of panel data and the Generalized Method of Moments and analyzing data from 1993 to 2012 for 32 states, revealed that the average annual growth rate of public debt (7.4%) exceeds that of public investment (5.04%). This indicates that the debt surpasses the per capita production, leading to the authors' conclusion that the contracted debt is not sustainable.

Simultaneously, economic growth rate in the period of study, was observably higher than the interest rate paid on the debts; state economies had a growth rate with an average value of 1.5% while, according to the authors, the interbank interest rate in 2015 had an average growth rate of 4.7% and they also pointed out the factor of corruption as being one of the reasons that might have caused any shortcoming recorded in the performance of debt during this period.

The empirical results in the studies outlined above show that external debt is not necessarily detrimental to economic growth however, in the long run, it can become a burden and begin to affect the economy negatively.

Empirical Studies on Government Spending on Welfare

The topic of welfare is a broad one that covers the issue of shelter, transportation, security, education, health, nutrition, and income (and employment). This paper however is narrowed down to the last three issue because they bear a lot of weight on all other issues and aspects of welfare. The empirical studies compiled in this section is an attempt to introduce topics that can represent all the issues of welfare.

Let us begin with the case of Nigeria by discussing a study on conditional cash transfer in Nigeria conducted by Projectng (2020). Based on their findings, the implementation of the N-Power program was influenced by several significant factors. These factors included inadequate information, delayed payment of stipends to participants, instances of bribery and corruption, incorrect bank verification numbers (BVN), and excessive interference from politicians in the program. However, it concluded that there is a significant relationship between the cash transfer program and unemployment alleviation and empowerment of youths in Rivers State, Nigeria.

Several studies on welfare programs in Mexico showed that Progres-a-Oportunidade which is a conditional cash transfer in Mexico had a positive effect on school advancement, reduced failure and drop-outs (Levy, 2007) , increased food consumption by 7.1%, more calories (Hoddinott & Emmanuel, 2004), it boosted the use of preventive health services thereby reducing morbidity rate by 25% and illness in children by 39% in rural households, microenterprise increased as a result of available cash (Fernald, 2008) and was particularly successful in alleviating extreme poverty, especially in rural areas. By 2004, seven years after its initiation, there was a significant reduction in the headcount poverty gap, as well as the severity indexes, which decreased by 9.7%, 18.7%, and 28.7% respectively (Cortes, 2006).

However, welfare programs that were created during the most intense period of IMF policies were aimed at the reducing the pressure of austerity measures such as the PRONAL during which resources were limited, PRONADRI; succumbed to the arrival of structural reforms of neoliberal policies. FIDELIST was established with the aim of subsidizing tortilla prices. In 1990, it was substituted by Tortilla sin Costo which offered subsidized or free tortillas to approximately 2.1 million low-income families, about 3% of Mexico's overall corn consumption. However, the current approach, as of 2001, is providing a two-year loan at a 6% interest rate to establish a tortilla business but no provisions are made to supply free tortillas to the impoverished population (Gundersen, Yanez, Valdes, & Kuhn, 2002). PRONASOL was designed to promote development through specific actions within rural communities such as the construction of educational spaces, drinking water and sewerage systems. and to expand the sanitary infrastructure.

Furthermore, the urgency to rehabilitate and maintain the infrastructure relegated by the previous crises was added; add sections, new roads and rehabilitate existing ones. The government increased the budget allocated for anti-poverty strategies and the zones

under the programs. However, despite the efforts, after twenty years, poverty levels have remained nearly the same. Moreover, for Márquez (Márquez V. , 1984) the program had a weak foundation due to the privatization of public enterprises in 1994, hence the reduced financial budget for the program. Additionally, despite its intended purpose of reducing poverty, the program failed to adequately target the most impoverished portion of the population. (Molina, 2014).

PROCAMPO was established to offer financial support to farmers cultivating staple crops in Mexico. On average, PROCAMPO payments contribute around 8 percent to the income of ejidatario households across different income levels. However, for the poorest decile, the program's assistance can represent up to 40 percent of their income. Nevertheless, the relationship between the ejidatarios (households in ejidos) and the state experienced a significant shift due to economic and institutional reforms initiated in the late 1980s. These reforms eliminated restrictions on land sale, rental, and labor hiring, allowing ejidatarios more freedom in crop selection and marketing. Alongside these changes, the government reduced its provision of technical assistance, subsidies, and marketing channels. Consequently, by 1993, the ejido sector found itself in an institutional vacuum, lacking substantial governmental in providing support to adapt to a rapidly changing market economy (De Janvry, Gordillo, & Sadoulet, 1997); (Cornelius & Myhre, 1998).

Many of the empirical findings are based on monitoring and evaluation reports and more discussions on welfare programs are under the policies on health, education and income/employment in Chapter four.

Disadvantages of Welfare Programs

Although government expenditure on welfare may bear the appearance of a projects devoted to the benefit of the people, it is not rid of the failings of human tendencies such as corruption and mismanagement.

An issue of clientelism has been linked to welfare programs in Mexico (referred to as '*clientelar*') because even though social policy is necessary to reduce inequality and poverty, and to create opportunities for the less privileged, to protect fundamental rights, provide health or education, to create all-inclusive benefits, or to assist vulnerable groups through targeted interventions. Nevertheless, social policy is prone to political or

patronage use by serving to create a base of support for the rulers who adopt them – the clientele.

For over seventy years, the Partido Revolución Institucional (PRI) held power in Mexico and established a highly effective clientelist system. These relationships were justified by the discourse of the revolution. Many scholars argue that the economic recessions of 1982 and 1994 further solidified these clientelist ties through anti-poverty programs. President Carlos Salinas introduced the Programa Nacional de Solidaridad (PRONASOL) with the intention of combating poverty. However, it ultimately became a cornerstone for supporting the PRI regime. The program received various criticisms, including the disapproval that it failed to effectively target the poorest municipalities. Additionally, there were concerns that the program was utilized to allocate resources based on political criteria (Molinar and Weldon, 1994).

The welfare programs in Mexico, regardless of the recorded outcomes, have been remarkable and very systematic and they continue to evolve under each new administration. While most welfare programs do not reach a sizable number of the target people in Nigeria although some of the welfare programs are allocated. The only significance they bear is the high publicity and colorful ceremonies organized around them for camouflaged political propagandas. This was notable during Babangida's regime during the Better Life welfare program was being promoted by the first lady, Maryam Babangida. The size of allocation of funds to the program broke record but could not be unaccounted for neither through audits nor through any observable impact in the conditions of the people both in rural and urban areas.

Conclusion

The chapter begins with conceptual review which is a discussion of the terms mentioned by authors such as Amartya Sen, Collier Paul, and the various discussions about the approaches to defining poverty, the issue of poverty, health, education and policies as portrayed by authors such as Radelet et al, 2013 and Todaro & Smith (2015) by using case studies of some countries, the approach to measuring poverty in Mexico, the detailed discussions about brain drain, income on a global level and by comparing Mexico and Nigeria with other higher income countries, it is possible to see the position of the two countries in comparison to the rest of the world and how the level of income affects the

level of education attainment as well as the effects of level of investment in education, how it affects quality of education, employment and the inter-relationship of these factors with health. The other topics featured under the conceptual review are the prospects and consequences of external debt and the relevance of interest rate in Mexico and Nigeria.

The theoretical review includes the theories postulated by the neoclassicals with emphasis on level of government spending, Harrod-Domar model which mentions the issue of investment, savings, wages and how they all affect growth in an economy. The neoliberal consensus and its characteristics, the endogenous growth theories which introduces innovation and technological advancement as a pathway to growth with a linkage to knowledge which again presents education as a major factor to achieve growth.

The empirical review highlights the results of previous studies by various researchers concerning the variables in the research; income, external debt, FDI, Government spending on welfare, and the results of the studies on growth such the one conducted by in Latin American and African regions, and importantly, the results of the research made by Amartya Sen.

CHAPTER 3 QUANTITATIVE COMPARISON OF GROWTH BETWEEN MEXICO & NIGERIA

Introduction

The fourth research question and objective of the study will be resolved in this chapter three. The data in this chapter are the numeric information required to complete the research on the level of economic development and national policies in Mexico and Nigeria: the comparative analysis of growth and institutions, which is the most important statistical part of this whole project. The core of the research is centered around the policies made regarding the factors that affect growth and development and the factors that were chosen to be studied in this research are those specified by Professor Paul Collier and Amartya Sen. The chosen factors that affect development are education, health, employment, level of Income, conflict, violence, and welfare, while the factors that are being studied to evaluate growth are foreign direct investment, external debt, interest rates, income, and government expenditure.

Methodological Design

The methodology to be employed in the study consists of model specification, which will be used to estimate the effect of the independent variables in each country on the dependent variable of each country separately and the results will be compared to reflect the effectiveness of policies that are being used in each country in the study, then we explain the sources of the data used, and finally we will run a data analysis.

In regard to the specification of the method to assess policies, two methods have been identified and they are the bottom up and top down approach of assessing policies (Jacob, King, Mangalagiu, & Rodríguez-Labajos, 2019). The top-down perspective begins with policies and examines the expected causal chains resulting from their implementation. The bottom-up perspective begins by examining observed outcomes and employs policy-relevant indicators to establish causal relationships linked to policy interventions. The bottom down approach enables analysts to assess the effects of policy combinations but tends to overemphasize contextual factors and may downplay the effects of policies. While the top-down perspective tends to overemphasize policy impacts while neglecting other influential factors.

Sources of Data and Data Collection

The main sources of data (values of the variables) for the study will include publications, reports, official documents, websites of Bank of Mexico, National Institute of Statistics & Geography (Mexico), Secretariat of Finance & Public Credit (Mexico), IMF, OECD, World bank, WTO, IEP (Institute for Economic & Peace), Central Bank of Nigeria-Statistical Bulletin (various issues), and Annual Report and Statement of Accounts (various issues), National Bureau of Statistics and Migration Resource Centre. All the policies implemented in the country within the specified period will be gathered from the sources mentioned above, the media such as newspapers and historical textbooks.

The data for the development component of the research is a wide collection of policies on the following development indicators from 1970 – 2018 are average schooling years & policies on education, life expectancy & health policies, the prevalence of undernourishment & agricultural and food policies, level of unemployment & Employment policies, level of poverty & Policies on welfare, casualty rate & policies implemented to curb violence and conflicts.

To analyze the factors that affect development, the policies on education, employment and income, health, food and agriculture, welfare, violence and conflict were compiled with a variety of sources, likewise the outturn of university and performance of senior secondary students, rate of unemployment, life expectancy, level of malnourishment, level of poverty, and casualty rate for each of the year within the stipulated period of the study.

Policies on each variable were obtained from various publications while data on life expectancy were obtained from HDI reports, level of malnourishment from UNESCO reports. Letters were sent to West African Examination Council for data on performance of high school students and Nigerian Institute of Social & Economic Research for more data on poverty rate, unemployment, and malnourishment. Several calls and emails were sent to National Youth Service Corp in Nigeria, National Universities Commission for data on outturn of university graduates, also to Institute of Peace and Conflict Resolution in Nigeria.

Specific Challenges for Data Collection

The major challenge is finding data for earlier years because data collection was limited in the past and are mostly stored as paper documents rather than virtually stored data.

Furthermore, the state capital of Nigeria was changed to Abuja from Lagos in the early 1990s, therefore, some of the earlier data can only be found in Lagos state making retrieval more difficult.

Some of the data that have been found for various variables do not have a consistent indicator, for example, records on poverty from the National statistics office were gathered as percentage of the population in some years and as number in other years or under the category of age, gender, and location at different periods. The same pattern is observed in the data for unemployment rate where categories such as age group and sex are available for some years and unavailable for other years. Data for malnourishment is represented in the form of Body mass index, height for recent data, malnourishment as an indicator is only available for one year.

Detail of Sources of the Data Obtained

Data obtained from National Bureau of Statistics, Nigeria are graduates from colleges and universities 2005 -2014, performance of senior secondary school leavers 2006 – 2010, 2014 – 2016, poverty rate by states 1980, 1985, 1994, 1996, 1997, 2004, 2009 and 2010, casualty/fatality rate due to conflict and violent events 2010 – 2017, average household income 1997 – 1999, minimum wage 1970 – 2018, wages/salaries of workers in public sector from united nations children’s emergency fund are life expectancy 1970-2018, child under 5 mortality rate 1970 – 2018, unemployment rate 1991-2018, and adult mortality rate-male and female 1970-2018 from World Bank.

From United Nations Statistics Division & World Bank the data obtained were household consumption expenditure 1970 – 2018 and from world bank; foreign direct investment, net inflows (bop, current us\$) 1970 -2018, external debt 1970 – 2018, interest rate (monthly) -savings rate, lending rates, time deposit rates 1970 – 2018, government expenditure 1970 – 2018, details on spending on health, education and welfare 1980 – 2018, gross national income 1970 – 2018.

It is important to note that all the data on variables under the development category will not be used for mathematical analysis but are only meant to trace the progress achieved because of policies implemented from year to year or the failure of the policies.

Data for Mexico

For interest rate, the data obtained are Finance Rate on Personal Loans at Commercial Banks, 24 Month Loan, Percent, Monthly, Not Seasonally Adjusted and they were presented for 4 months in each year; 2nd month, 5th month, 8th month, and 11th month. The chosen interest rate for the data compilation is the 11th month which is the highest in all the years. The source of the data is the Federal Reserve Economic Data (Data: <https://fred.louisfed.org>).

For external debt, gross national income, foreign direct investment, the three variables were obtained from world bank data already in current US dollars. The figures were divided by 1000 000 000 to obtain rounded figures in billion US dollars. Unlike the rest of the variables, government expenditure is a combination of government spending on health, education, and welfare. For spending on Health, the figures from all sources were in pesos and therefore were divided by the exchange rate; value of 1 dollar in peso to obtain a current value. The sources of the data from 1970-1976 on government spending on health through health institutions such as IMSS, ISSSIE, SSA, IMSS COPLAMAR, DDF, Población Abierto are the Dirección General de Planeación y Presupuesto, SSA, Cuenta de la Hacienda Pública Federal, Salud Pública de México, (pg. 822), Apuntes Sobre el Financiamiento de la Salud en México. From 1988- 1992, the data on expenditure on health though SSA, IMSS, ISSSTE were obtained from INEGI, Estadísticas Históricas de México Tomo I.

Data for expenditure on health from 1993-2017 was obtained from Secretaria de Salud, FASSA, IMSS, PROSPERA, SEDENA, SEMAR, ISSSTE, PEMEX obtained from the government website, gasto en salud por fuente de financiamiento, Secretaría de Salud. Dirección General de Información en Salud. Sistema de Cuentas en Salud a Nivel Federal y Estatal (SICUENTAS), México 2017, Proyecciones de la Población de México 1990-2030, Censo 2010, CONAPO, INEGI. Sistema de Cuentas Nacionales de México, México, 2017, Banco de México, and for 2017, data were obtained from Asociación Mexicana de Instituciones de Seguros (AMIS).

Expenditure on education data 1977-1988 is represented by the percentage of total government expenditure and were obtained from UNESCO Statistical Yearbook; government expenditure on social sectors in Latin America and the Caribbean Statistical Data. The data from 1989-2018 are represented by the percentage of GDP and the actual values were calculated by using GDP data obtained from World Bank Data. The data from

1993, 1996, 1997 were obtained from Adaptado de OCE (2001), *El Sostentamiento de la Educación en México*, data from 2018 were Current expenditure on health as percentage of GDP and the source is the World Bank data. Expenditure on welfare was obtained from the category of subsidies and transfers under revenue and expenditures and defined as social expenditure while data on income is represented by minimum wages, national pesos per 'day; those were converted to current US dollars. The data for both variables were obtained from Banco de Mexico website.

Data for Nigeria

Data on external debt, gross national income, and foreign direct investment were obtained from world bank data already in current US dollars. The figures were divided 1000 000 000 to obtain rounded figures in billion US dollars. For government Expenditure on health, education and social community services, data on the three variables were obtained from Central Bank of Nigeria, in the categories of recurrent and capital for each variable. The original values were converted to US current dollars by dividing the values by the exchange rates in each year which is the value of 1 dollar in naira currency. Data on interest rate is represented by average maximum lending interest rate. Monthly maximum lending rates in commercial banks were grouped into 12 for each year and the average value is obtained and the Central Bank of Nigeria.

Data for income is represented by the National Minimum wage and the source is the European Scientific Journal April edition vol. 8, No.7, Tinuke et al, AERC Research Paper 223, African Economic Research Consortium, Nairobi, from January 2011. The cleaned data for all variables were placed on one excel sheet for Mexico and another for Nigeria.

Variables Related to Growth to be Used in Regression Analysis

In this section the presentation of the variables used for the growth category of the research are presented especially the actual indicators that were used to represent the variables.

The foreign direct investment variable is under the category of growth-related variables, and it is used to determine the effectiveness of policies on foreign direct investment, the indicator used is the net inflows from foreign direct investment. The data that have been obtained on this indicator are foreign direct investment, net inflows (BoP,

current US\$) from 1970-2018. On external debt, to determine the amount of liabilities the government has allowed the country to be exposed to and the effect it has on growth, the indicator used is the amount of external debt incurred. The data that have been obtained are external debt from 1970 – 2018.

The interest rates variable is to determine the effect of the government’s decision on interest rate fixing or market determined interest rate, the indicators considered in this study are interest rate on savings deposit, lending, time deposits, interest rate (Monthly): Savings rate, Lending Rates, Time deposit rates from 1970 – 2018. The government expenditure variable is used to assess the effect of level of government spending on growth from year to year with details on spending on health, education, and welfare. The indicator used is government expenditure and the data that have been obtained are government expenditure from 1970 – 2018, government expenditure with details on spending on health, education, and welfare from 1980 – 2018. Lastly Gross National Income variable is the dependent variable and the data for this indicator were obtained from 1970 – 2018.

Main Tables and Descriptive Statistics

The tables contain statistical information regarding the growth-related variables for Mexico and Nigeria. In the case of Mexico, the table shows data on Gross National Income (GNI), External Debt (EXD), Government Expenditure (LGS), Income (INC), Interest Rates (INT), and Foreign Direct Investment (FDI). For Nigeria, the table presents information on GNI, LGS, INT, EXD, FDI, and Income (INC). These statistics provide insight into the economic situations of both countries on which comparisons and conclusions will be drawn.

Table 1.4 Descriptive Statistics of Variables for Mexico and Nigeria

Mexico

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. dev.	Min	Max
GNI	49	524.2686	417.3769	34.89744	1283.058
EXD	49	157.6491	126.279	7.097272	453.1578
LGS	49	27.73243	23.34266	1.847696	108.0934
INC	49	3.782217	0.9685211	2.132663	6.999235
INT	47	13.19293	2.105747	9.6925	18.645
FDI	49	13.38721	13.58883	0.178385	50.79144

Source: Data Compiled by Author from World Bank, Federal Reserve Economic Data, Banxico

Nigeria

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. dev.	Min	Max
GNI	49	142.7067	151.7679	8.516814	528.4338
LGS	49	13.15895	24.36995	.1175856	100.019
INT	49	18.94648	7.337908	7.875	34.4125
EXD	49	22.27947	13.31884	.8366806	50.45183
FDI	49	2.07268	2.528699	-.73887	8.841062
INC	49	74.29615	47.58774	14.45218	202.3609

Source: Data Compiled by Author from World Bank, Central Bank of Nigeria, Tinuke al. (2011).

Hypothesis on the Variables in the Regression Model

The hypothesis of the study is in the form of null and alternative hypothesis and the two forms are created for each of the variables in the regression analysis. The null hypothesis denoted by H_0 will be rejected or accepted based on the result of the regression analysis. If the coefficient of any of the independent variables is negative, the null hypothesis will not be rejected for that variable, if the coefficient is positive, the null hypothesis will be rejected and the alternative hypothesis will be accepted.

Hypothesis on Growth, Interest Rate and Government Expenditure

Based on endogenous theory, specifically the AK paradigm, which claims that to sustain high growth rates can be sustained by saving A significant portion of the GDP, a portion of which will be allocated toward funding an increased rate of technological advancement, will consequently lead to accelerated economic growth and on the neoclassical theory that limits government to basic services termed as public goods with a claim that growth is achieved through savings and investment but diminishing returns will take place, Harrod-Domar's theory that also indicated that growth is determined by net savings rate among other factors and Keynesian theory that explains that supply does not always equal to demand because demand may change unexpectedly due to propensity to consume, propensity to save and inducement to invest and that inducement to invest is dependent on expectations and the rate of interest, which in turn, is dependent on the quantity of money and liquidity preference, the following hypothesis will help to determine the impact of interest rate and government spending on growth which is in this study proxied as GNI.

H_0 : Interest rate does not have a positive effect on Gross National Income (GNI).

H_a : Interest rate has a positive effect on Gross National Income.

H₀: Government expenditure does not have a positive effect on Gross National Income (GNI).

H_α : Government expenditure has a positive effect on Gross National Income.

Hypothesis on Growth, Foreign Direct Investment and Level of Income

The Harrod-Domar theory mentioned important factors that affect rate of economic growths: wage rate, cost of capital (interest rate), rate of savings, level of investment, level of demand (which in turn is dependent on wages and inflation), therefore a hypothesis is designed to test the impact of wage which is termed as level income in the specified regression model in this study.

In Harrod-Domar's model, more investments lead to more growth through the economic mechanisms namely; warranted growth, natural growth, and actual growth. In relation to the design of hypothesis on foreign direct investment, emphasis is on the natural growth rate which is dependent on –among other factors– capital equipment and technical knowledge that are incidentally the essence of foreign direct investment.

Hypothesis on external debt in this study is connected to neoliberal policies that promote minimizing government borrowing (limiting substantial fiscal deficits in proportion to GDP), redirection of public spending from subsidies toward pro-growth services like primary education, primary health care and infrastructure investment, tax reform, market determined interest rate and moderate tax margins, market determined interest rate, trade liberalization, liberalization of inward foreign direct investment among other policies. The following hypothetical statements therefore are the null and alternative hypothesis on FDI, level of income and external debt.

H₀: FDI does not have a positive effect on GNI.

H_α: FDI has a positive effect on Gross National Income.

H₀: Level of income does not have a positive effect on GNI.

H_α: Level of income has a positive effect on GNI.

H₀: External debt does not have a positive effect on GNI.

H_α: External debt has a positive effect on Gross National Income.

Model Specification

For the growth component of the research, the techniques that are associated with secondary sources of information will be used while some quantitative analytical methods of econometric approach will be engaged, specifically the regression analysis by using STATA, a software designed for quantitative analysis and the data to be used are time series data. Descriptive statistics will be done by using multi linear graphs to show the interaction of the variables; the GNI as it corresponds to the values of the independent variables in each year to depict how the value of each indicator reflects on the Gross national Income. The regression analysis will be carried out to know the relationship between each independent variable on the dependent variable GNI.

The regression analysis will display the estimate of the independent variables, the correlation between the independent variables and the dependent variable.

In the regression model, GNI is the dependent variable and the other macroeconomic variables in the equation are the independent variables.

$$\text{GNI} = f(\text{INTR}, \text{FDI}, \text{EXD}, \text{LGS}, \text{LINC}) \quad (2.0)$$

$$\text{GNI} = \alpha + \beta_1 \text{INTR} + \beta_2 \text{FDI} + \beta_3 \text{EXD} + \beta_4 \text{LGS} + \beta_5 \text{LINC} + \mu \quad (2.1)$$

In equation (2), α is the intercept of the equation which represents the value GNI will have if all other variables are zero (0), μ is the error term which is the residual variable and it denotes the part of the relationship that the model does not fully explain, and β is the coefficients of the explanatory variables (independent variables) and its values for each of the variable represents the amount of change (fraction or degree) that will occur if there is a 1 unit increase in the explanatory variable (here you need to include some references to similar works). The dependent variable GNI represents gross national income, and the independent variable interest rate is represented by INTR, foreign direct investment by FDI, External debt by EXD, level of government spending by LGS, and level of income by LINC.

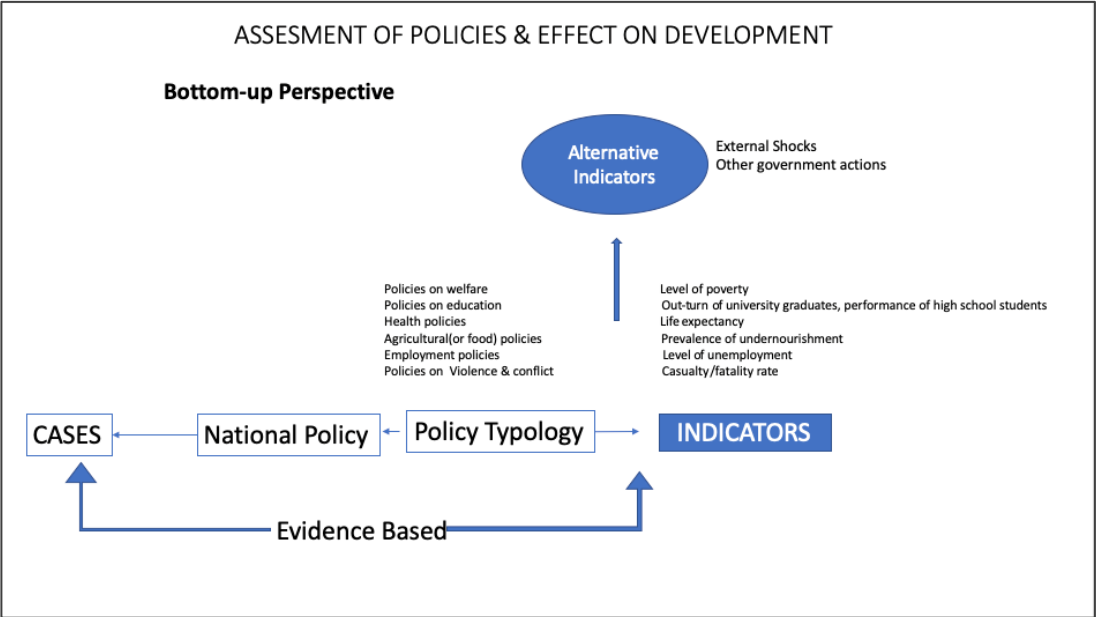
Criteria for the Analysis

To analyze the data obtained, an academic stay was organized to receive guidance and training. The following steps were the activities carried out and the steps taken to obtain

results of the analysis were cleaning and re-organization of the data and this step was carried out by choosing the exact indicators that will represent the variables in the regression model in the research proposal and the units of measurement and clearly stating the sources of the data. The details of the exercise are shown below.

After thorough perusal, the re-organized data was analyzed on STATA and the results of the analysis showed erroneously large coefficients along with a highly significant presence of autocorrelation. Hence, the natural log of the variables that have monetary value and the descriptive statistics of the data were obtained. Also, the standard error of the model was adjusted to standard error VCE robust standard error. Additionally, the hypothesis for each variable in the regression model were created. For the development aspect of the research, the bottom-up approach was approved for assessing the policies on the development variables. An illustration is shown on Fig. 3.3.

Fig. 3.4 Assessment of Policies & Effect on Development



Source: Designed by Author

Furthermore, under this method an analysis procedure will be applied to determine the effectiveness of the policies in the development category of the study by employing the use of Structural Change Detection on SPSS. The compiled data on poverty, malnutrition, education, unemployment, health, and violence will be analyzed with the statistical tool to detect structural changes and to identify the effective policies.

Results of Regression Analysis

To meet objective 1, the growth-related variables were regressed against GNI to determine their impacts on growth. For the regression analysis, the log values of the variables were obtained except for interest rates. Two tables were presented to show the result with robust standard error and the other for standard error for both Mexico and Nigeria. In the category of growth, a regression analysis was used to analyze the effect of the independent variables in the model on GNI which is the variable that represents growth. In Mexico, the result shows that the variables that have a positive effect on growth are external debt, FDI, and government expenditure while the variables that have a negative impact on growth are income (represented by minimum wage) and interest rate. The results however showed that in Nigeria, only interest rate and government expenditure have a negative impact on growth.

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The study investigates the impact of external debt, foreign direct investment, income, government expenditure, and interest rates on the Gross National Income (GNI) of Mexico and Nigeria. The results show that external debt does not reduce GNI, but the significance test indicates that the probability of the result being due to random chance is high. Foreign direct investment has a positive and highly significant impact on GNI in both countries. The impact of income on growth is peculiar, with an increasing minimum wage having a negative impact in Mexico but a positive impact in Nigeria. Government expenditure on health, education, and welfare has a positive impact on growth in both countries. Interest rates have a negative impact on the growth of both countries.

Results for Mexico

Table 2.1 and Table 2.2 are the results of the regression analysis for Mexico, the first table shows the robust standard error and the second one shows the standard error. External debt has a positive effect showing that 0.002 increase occurs in GNI with every unit increase in the variable, income has a negative effect of -0.173, government expenditure has a positive effect of 0.478, interest rate has a negative effect of -0.014, and FDI has a positive effect of 0.354.

Table 2.1 Regression Analysis of the Variables with Robust Standard Error for Mexico

LNGNI	Coefficient	Robust std. err.	T	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
LNEXD	0,002664	0,061584	0,04	0,966	-0,12171	0,127036
LNINC	-0,17377	0,118298	-1,47	0,149	-0,41268	0,065139
LNGOVTEXP	0,477575	0,090463	5,28	0	0,294882	0,660269
LNINRATE	-0,01417	0,010993	-1,29	0,205	-0,03637	0,008027
LNFDI	0,354552	0,048813	7,26	0	0,255971	0,453132
_cons	4,234038	0,250648	16,89	0	3,727844	4,740232

Table 2.2 Regression Analysis with Standard Error and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for Mexico

Source	SS	Df	MS
Model	44.9655809	5	8.99311618
Residual	0.745929082	41	0.018193392
Total	45.71151	46	0.993728478

Number of obs	47
F(5, 41)	494.3
Prob > F	0.0000
R-squared	0.9837
Adj R-squared	0.9817
Root MSE	0.13488

LNGNI	Coefficient	Std. err.	T	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
LNEXTDEBT	0,002664	0,067551	0,04	0,969	-0,13376	0,139086
LNINC	-0,17377	0,14101	-1,23	0,225	-0,45854	0,111008
LNGOVTEXP	0,477575	0,091042	5,25	0	0,293713	0,661438
LNINRATE	-0,01417	0,012189	-1,16	0,252	-0,03879	0,010443
LNFDI	0,354552	0,045476	7,8	0	0,262711	0,446393
_cons	4,234038	0,295241	14,34	0	3,637787	4,830289

Table 2.3 Breusch–Godfrey LM Test for Autocorrelation (Mexico Data)

lags(p)	chi2	df	Prob > chi2
1	0.725	1	0.3944

H0: no serial correlation

Results for Nigeria

Table 2.4 and Table 2.5 are the results of the regression analysis, the first table shows the robust standard error and the second one shows the standard error. External debt has a positive effect showing that 0.670 increase occurs in GNI with every unit increase in the variable, income has a positive effect of 0.560, government expenditure has a positive effect of 0.134, interest rate has a negative effect of -0.022, and FDI has a positive effect of 0.582.

Table 2.4 Regression analysis of the variables with robust standard error for Nigeria

LNGNI	Coefficient	Robust std. err.	T	P> t	[95% conf. interval]
LNGOVTEXP	0.1349212	0.0801473	1.68	0,100	-0.0267111 0.2965536
LNINRATE	-0.0228031	0.0185615	-1.23	0,226	-0.0602359 0.0146297
LNEXTDEBT	.6708354	0.1401051	4.79	0.000	0.3882864 0.9533844
LNFDI	.5827598	0.0655331	8.89	0,000	0.4505996 0.7149199
LNINCOME	0.5604822	0.1239767	4.52	0.000	0.3104593 0.810505
_cons	0.5502662	0.6540049	0.84	0.405	-0.7686604 1.869193

Table 2.5 Regression analysis of the variables with standard error for Nigeria

Number of obs	49
F(5, 41)	61.57
Prob > F	0.0000
R-squared	0.8774
Adj R-squared	0.8632
Root MSE	0.40633

LNGNI	Coefficient	Std. err.	T	P> t	[95% conf. interval]
LNGOVTEXP	0.1349212	0.810518	1.66	0.103	-0.0285353 0.2983778
LNINRATE	-0.0228031	0.0155192	-1.47	0.149	-0.0541005 0.0084943
LNEXTDEBT	0.6708354	0.1383604	4.85	0.000	0.391805 0.9498658
LNFDI	.5827598	.0659101	8.84	0.000	0.4498395 0.7156801
LNINCOME	0.56048 22	0.106748	5.25	0.000	0.3452043 0.77576
_cons	0.5502662	0.5429183	1.01	0.316	-0.5446328 1.645165

Table 2.6 Breusch–Godfrey LM test for autocorrelation

Breusch–Godfrey LM test for autocorrelation

lags(p)	chi2	df	Prob > chi2
1	1.028	1	0.3107

H₀: no serial correlation

Interpretation of Results

In the regression results for Mexico and Nigeria, the Prob > F is the p-value associated with the F value and with a value of 0.0000, it is very small which indicates that the independent variables reliably predict the dependent variable in the models at a significance level of $\alpha = 0.05$. R-squared in the result for Mexico shows that 98% variation in the dependent variable is explained by the model while 2% remains unexplained and for Nigeria, 86% variation in the dependent variable is explained by the model while 14% remains unexplained. The Root (MSE) is the root mean square error and at a level of 0.13 and 0.4 for Mexico and Nigeria respectively, it indicates a low prediction error of the model. All these values show that the model is a good fit.

As discussed in the conceptual review, external debt can help to facilitate public investment if applied and managed appropriately through consistent debt servicing. We also discussed how the ratio of revenue to debt can determine if external debt might become a crisis. In this light, it is not unusual that the result of this study shows that in Mexico, the result shows that 1% increase in external debt will cause an increase of 0.2% in Gross National Income and at a test of significance of 0.969, the effect is positive but not significant therefore the null hypothesis will be rejected in the case of Mexico while in Nigeria, external debt shows an increase of 6.7% in GNI and the significance test is high at 0.000, therefore the null hypothesis will be rejected in the case of Nigeria as well. The result indicates that external debt does not reduce GNI but the test of significance indicates that the probability of the result being due to random chance is high.

In this study, the result of the relationship between FDI and GNI in Mexico and Nigeria is positive and therefore, the speculations made against this aspect of neoliberal policies cannot be supported based on this result. In Mexico, 1% increase in foreign direct investment will cause an increase of 35.4% in GNI, significance of test is at 0.00 which shows the effect of FDI on GNI is positive and highly significant. In Nigeria, 1% increase in FDI will cause 58% increase in GNI and it is highly significant at 0.00. Therefore, the null hypothesis will be rejected for both countries. Despite the claims that foreign companies smother local businesses, this result implies that they increase income, but this should not be misinterpreted as an increase in purchasing power.

The effect of income on growth, according to the result has a peculiar result because, an increasing minimum wage has a negative impact in Mexico but has a positive impact in Nigeria. One can explain this outcome based on the fact a large part of the

income in Mexico is generated from Maquiladoras and foreign companies that count on the cost of labor remaining low in Mexico. The result shows that, in Mexico, 1% increase in level of income will cause a decrease of -17% in GNI, significance of test is at 0.225 which shows the effect of FDI on GNI is not significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis will not be rejected. In Nigeria, 1% increase in level of income will cause 56% increase in GNI and it is highly significant at 0.00. Therefore, the null hypothesis will be rejected for Nigeria.

As recorded in the empirical review, many studies find that government expenditure has a positive impact on growth and usually the failure to meet expectations is always connected to mismanagement. Likewise, in the result, government expenditure (education, health and welfare) has a positive impact on growth in both Nigeria and Mexico. In Mexico, 1% increase in level of government expenditure on health, education and welfare will cause an increase of 48% in GNI, significance of test is at 0.00 which shows the effect of LGS on GNI is highly significant. In Nigeria, 1% increase in LGS will cause 13% increase in GNI and but it is not highly significant at 0.10. Therefore, the null hypothesis will be rejected for both countries.

Finally, the results for interest rate matches those presented in the empirical study because interest rate has a negative impact on the growth of both Mexico and Nigeria. In Mexico, 1% increase in interest rate will cause a decrease of -0.14% in GNI, significance of test is at 0.205 which shows the effect of interest rate on GNI is not significant. In Nigeria, 1% increase in level of income will cause a decrease of -0.22% in GNI and it is not significant at 0.149 significance of test. Therefore, the null hypothesis will not be rejected for both countries.

Based on these results and the inference made from studying these policies that affect growth, the recommendable policies on these variables are selected based on criteria such as the debt/GNI ratio in the case of external debt, purchasing power parity (PPP) in the case of FDI, level of unemployment in the case of income, and level of poverty in the case of government spending. The selection and full discussions on these variables can be found in Chapter 5.

Conclusion on the Regression Analysis

The chapter presents the model specification, sources of data and method of data analysis. A regression model was specified to analyze the growth component of the research using

the variables GNI as the dependent variable, and interest rate, FDI, External debt, Level of government spending and level of income as independent variables. The data collected ranges from 1970 to 2018 and the sources are various institutes in Mexico and Nigeria. The data for development component of the research include average schooling years, life expectancy, unemployment, and casualty/fatality rate due to violence and conflict.

The method of analysis for this component is descriptive analysis by detecting the policies that correspond to the desirables levels of the indicators mentioned, therefore the policies implemented on the sectors for which data were collected will be presented covering the year 1970 to 2018. The process of data collection reveals the actions or steps that were taken to collect the various data and the description of indicators explain the actual indicators that represent the variables in the development component and the challenges encountered. The sources of data were listed with the exact data on indicators that were obtained from each of the sources.

The final analysis of the data showed the steps taken to clean the data and group them into the raw materials that were used for STATA analysis; the exact properties of the interest rates used in the analysis, the units of measurements used for variables with monetary values, the process of selection of analysis method for the development component, final actions taken on the analysis results to remove errors and finally, the hypotheses formulated to show the expectations for each of the variables in the model. The theories in the theoretical review are all interconnected and related to the hypotheses on the variables.

In detail, the result of the analysis shows the descriptive statistics of the variables in the regression model; the number of observations, mean, standard deviation, the minimum and maximum values. The regression results contain the robust standard error to correct heteroscedasticity with level of income showing the highest standard error. The beta coefficient for all the variables is positive except level of income and interest rate for Mexico which denotes that the increase in the variables have a negative impact on GNI. The tests of significance for most of the variables in the case of Mexico are mostly insignificant except for government expenditure and interest rate.

A test for autocorrelation was carried out which is the Breusch Godfrey test and the result shows there is no autocorrelation in the analysis for Mexico and Nigeria data. In the case of Nigeria, the beta coefficients for all the variables are positive except interest rate which implies that increasing interest rate has a negative effect on GNI in Nigeria.

The tests of significance are high for all the variables except government expenditure and interest rate.

ANNEX I

Data Collection Steps

The steps taken to collect the data involved identifying the source, contacting the relevant team, searching the website, obtaining the data, and documenting it. I contacted the staff of Central Bank to request for additional information besides the available data on the website.

To ensure complete and precise data collection, I proactively contacted the CBN's staff who obtained information from the IT team, to obtain directives and guidance on how to locate and retrieve the relevant data from the website. After carefully following their instructions, I was able to retrieve the required interest rate data on savings deposits, lending rates, and time deposit rates from 1970 to 2018. After obtaining the data, I meticulously documented it in an organized and easily analyzable format by following the instructions of the research supervisors. To achieve this, I carried out the data cleaning to ensure the reliability and validity of my analysis.

To investigate the impact of the government's decision on interest rate, I collected data on interest rate; savings deposit, lending, and time deposits, from 1970 to 2018. However, for the regression analysis, the lending interest rate was chosen because of its relevance to boosting investment and creation of both small-scale and large-scale businesses. To assess the relationship between the level of government spending on growth from year to year, with a particular focus on spending on health, education, and welfare. I obtained government expenditure data from 1970 to 2018, and government expenditure with details on spending on health, education, and welfare from 1980 to 2018.

During my data collection process, I encountered some challenges in accessing information from the National Institute of Science Education and Research (NISER) and the West African Examination Council (WAEC). However, after sending introductory letters signed by the head of department and my supervisor at ICOSA, I was able to obtain the required information from both institutions.

Emails were sent to Institute for Peace and Conflict Resolution (IPCR) requesting for data on violence and rate of casualties due to violence and conflict. Also to National Youth Service Corps in Abuja and National universities Commission in Nigeria for data on number of graduates and grades.

First and Second batch of data from NBS:

With the help of the assistant director of National Bureau of Statistics, Nigeria (NBS) and the recorded data were handed over by the data officer, Mr. Moses Matthew to a representative Chinedu Azukwu. The process involved searching for data on variables required for the research analysis. The data that are available for past years before 2013 onwards are all in typed format, therefore a lot of effort was put into photocopying these documents. Up to 53 documents were finally sent through email.

The data that were sent are outlined are Interest Rate (Monthly) -Savings rate, Lending Rates, Time deposit rates (1970-2018), Average Household Income States (1997-1999), Prevalence of malnutrition in children 6-59 months old-States (2006), Poverty by headcount by states; poor, non-poor (1994); Poverty by states; Poor, moderately, extremely poor (1996 & 1997); Poverty by states; Poor, moderately, extremely poor (2004); Poverty by self-assessment; Very poor, Poor, Moderate, Fairly Rich-States (2009); Absolute Poverty-States (2010). The data obtained on employment are Unemployment rates by states (1991-1993), (2000-2002), Unemployment rates by states/ Unemployment rates by states, education, age group & sex (1998-1999), Unemployment rates by states/age group (2003-2007).

The data compiled on government expenditure are Capital Expenditure with figures for welfare, health, and education (1980), Capital Expenditure/Recurrent Expenditure with figures for welfare, health, and education (1981-2018). Data on external debt, government expenditure and foreign direct investment were obtained from world bank data already in current US dollars and the figures were divided 1000 000 000 to obtain rounded figures in billion US dollars.

A third batch of data was sent from the National Bureau of Statistics, Nigeria in Abuja city in the federal capital territory through the data officer. The details below is an outline of the latest set of data received under each the two categories of indicators reflected in the research project.

On conflict & violence, the percentage of households and community members that experienced conflict and violence and the type of events that occurred such as death, physical attack, injury, sexual violence, forced labour, abduction, displacement from home, robbery, robbery in dwelling, damage of dwelling, dwelling occupied by perpetrators, assets destroyed, school access blocked, health services access blocked in the North East, North Central, South-South 2010 – 2017. The type/group of perpetrators of conflict events affecting household members and percentage of damaging events caused by each type/group 2010 – 2017.

On education, data on graduates from colleges and universities were compiled such as the Out-Turn from polytechnics by course of study and gender in, 2005/2006 - 2009/2010, 2013/2014, 2014/2015. Out-Turn from Mono-technics by course of study and gender in, 2005/2006 - 2009/2010, 2013/2014, 2014/2015, Outturn (full time) Technical college by class, gender, and state: 2013/2014, Graduate out-turn from colleges of education by course of study and gender in 2003-2005, Graduate out-turn from colleges of education by course of study and gender in 2013/2014, Graduate out-turn from universities by course of study and gender in 2003-2005. Data on Education Outcome include candidates' performance in public schools by state and sex, number of credits in English Language & Mathematics in the West Africa Senior Secondary Class Examination, 2006 –2010, 2014 – 2016. Data on life expectancy, malnutrition were obtained from United Nations Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF) and the other data were obtained from various websites and publications with proper citations.

DATA FOR MEXICO

Data on the indicators for Mexico were obtained mostly from Banxico, an email was sent to them for old data, others were obtained from INEGI, SEP and other sources. For interest rate, data obtained were Finance Rate on Personal Loans at Commercial Banks, 24 Month Loan, Percent, Monthly, Not Seasonally Adjusted. The characteristics of the data as shown on the source shows that they are not seasonally adjusted; interest rates were presented for 4 months in each year: 2nd, 5th, 8th, and 11th, month. The chosen interest rate for the data compilation is the 11th month which is the highest in all the years. The source is the Federal Reserve Economic Data and the website link is <https://fred.louisfed.org>.

For external debt, gross national income, and foreign direct investment, the data on the three variables were obtained from world bank data already in current US dollars.

The figures were divided 1000 000 000 to obtain rounded figures in billion US dollars. Data on government expenditure on health are the figures from all sources were in pesos and therefore were divided by the exchange rate; value of 1 dollar in peso to obtain a current value. From 1970-1976, expenditure on health through health institutions; IMSS, ISSSIE, SSA, were obtained from dirección General de planeación y Presupuesto, SSA, datos no publicados. Cuenta de la Hacienda Pública Federal, Datos no publicados. Pg. 822, *Salud Publica de México*. Apuntes Sobre El Financiamiento De La Salud En México. From 1988- 1992, expenditure on health though SSA, IMSS, ISSSTE were obtained from INEGI. Estadísticas Históricas de México Tomo I. From 1993-2017, expenditure on health were obtained from Secretariat de Salud, FASSA, IMSS, Prospera, SEDENA, SEMAR, ISSSTE, PEMEX through the link

http://www.dgis.salud.gob.mx/contenidos/sinai/gastoensalud_gobmx.html

At the source, the various origins of the data are Gasto en Salud por Fuente de Financiamiento w Secretaría de Salud. Dirección General de Información en Salud. Sistema de Cuentas en Salud a Nivel Federal y Estatal (SICUENTAS), México 2017. Proyecciones de la Población de México 1990-2030, Censo 2010, CONAPO. INEGI. Sistema de Cuentas Nacionales de México, México, 2017. Banco de México, www.banxico.org.mx, 2017. Asociación Mexicana de Instituciones de Seguros (AMIS), México, 2017. Data from 1977-1988, expenditure on education represented as % of total government expenditure were obtained from UNESCO, Statistical Yearbook; Government expenditure on social sectors in Latin America & Caribbean Statistical Data.

From 1989-2018, expenditure on education is represented as % of GDP; the actual values were calculated by using GDP data obtained from same source -World Bank. Data for 1993, 1996, 1997 were obtained from Adaptado de OCE (2001). El Sostenimiento de la Educación en México. Data for 2018 were Current expenditure on health as % of GDP and were obtained from World Bank. Data on expenditure were obtained from the category of subsidies and transfers under revenue and expenditures and defined as social expenditure on the Banxico website. Lastly, data on Minimum Wages were obtained from Banxico and was labelled as National, Pesos per day; they were converted to current US dollars.

A1.1 Data for Regression Analysis, 1970-2018 Nigeria

Year	GNI	Government Expenditure	INTEREST RATE	EXTERNAL DEBT	FDI	INCOME
1970	12.08	70.50	7.88	0.84	0.21	75.04
1971	8.52	27.14	10.00	0.96	0.29	75.19
1972	11.33	29.09	10.00	1.08	0.31	81.47
1973	14.09	31.99	10.00	1.78	0.37	81.47
1974	23.98	58.31	10.00	1.88	0.26	95.20
1975	27.14	94.70	9.25	1.69	0.47	97.48
1976	35.47	100.02	9.58	1.34	0.34	95.75
1977	35.67	58.81	10.00	3.15	0.44	93.07
1978	36.38	39.08	10.75	5.09	0.21	94.45
1979	46.96	28.54	11.00	6.24	0.31	99.34
1980	61.08	31.83	10.08	8.94	-0.74	109.73
1981	162.91	1.80	10.17	11.45	0.54	202.36
1982	141.70	2.10	11.38	11.99	0.43	185.61
1983	96.42	1.12	11.71	17.58	0.36	172.55
1984	72.70	1.26	11.94	17.78	0.19	163.07
1985	72.72	1.22	11.46	18.66	0.49	139.86
1986	53.38	0.72	9.58	22.22	0.19	71.24
1987	50.28	0.25	15.74	29.02	0.61	31.13
1988	49.14	0.72	17.38	29.62	0.38	27.55
1989	41.92	0.68	20.74	30.12	1.88	16.97
1990	51.15	0.53	27.70	33.46	0.59	15.55
1991	46.66	0.32	20.74	33.53	0.71	25.23
1992	44.85	0.12	25.75	29.02	0.90	14.45
1993	25.41	0.77	34.41	30.70	1.35	16.45
1994	31.48	0.61	21.08	33.09	1.96	16.50
1995	41.84	0.86	20.95	34.09	0.34	16.58
1996	48.84	0.98	20.84	31.41	0.50	16.59
1997	52.22	1.33	20.24	28.47	0.47	16.59
1998	51.78	2.08	21.36	30.31	0.30	148.50
1999	57.90	0.96	25.33	29.10	1.00	35.20
2000	63.30	1.20	26.76	33.51	1.14	63.92
2001	69.94	1.20	28.45	33.75	1.19	58.44
2002	89.29	1.53	30.19	35.98	1.87	53.91
2003	97.25	1.23	22.88	41.11	2.01	50.30
2004	126.53	1.40	20.82	44.56	1.87	48.91
2005	162.77	1.70	19.49	29.10	4.98	49.51
2006	231.46	2.16	18.41	12.96	4.85	50.52
2007	263.78	2.87	18.36	15.49	6.04	51.67
2008	321.88	2.81	18.70	16.47	8.19	54.82
2009	277.32	2.38	22.62	19.29	8.56	43.66
2010	342.04	3.67	22.51	18.82	6.03	43.25
2011	382.51	5.10	22.42	21.00	8.84	116.99
2012	433.60	5.02	23.79	21.47	7.07	114.29
2013	483.48	5.37	24.51	24.48	5.56	114.42
2014	528.43	4.89	25.74	28.63	4.69	113.53
2015	474.00	4.20	26.71	32.41	3.06	93.54
2016	395.95	3.06	27.29	34.40	4.45	71.01
2017	364.25	3.05	30.60	43.19	3.50	58.86
2018	378.87	3.54	31.10	50.45	2.00	58.81

A1.2 Data for Regression Analysis, 1970-2018, Mexico

Year	GNI	External Debt	Government Expenditure	Income	Interest Rate	FDI
1970	34.90	7.10	1.85	2.23		0.31
1971	38.50	7.63	2.08	2.23		0.31
1972	44.39	8.35	2.47	2.66	12.46	0.18
1973	54.44	10.67	2.93	3.14	12.60	0.46
1974	70.74	14.08	4.02	4.42	12.99	0.51
1975	86.09	18.38	5.02	4.42	13.08	0.46
1976	86.77	24.14	3.82	4.14	13.02	0.73
1977	79.59	31.38	8.61	4.01	12.97	0.33
1978	99.57	35.91	10.77	4.56	13.19	0.66
1979	130.47	42.97	12.60	5.26	13.85	1.33
1980	198.70	57.57	17.51	6.05	15.47	2.09
1981	253.84	78.41	28.52	7.00	18.09	3.08
1982	172.35	86.27	7.35	2.13	18.65	1.90
1983	147.04	93.16	9.20	2.85	16.68	2.19
1984	174.19	95.02	8.53	3.42	16.47	1.54
1985	186.22	97.06	7.97	2.44	15.94	1.98
1986	127.03	101.08	6.65	2.46	14.83	2.40
1987	140.74	109.65	6.14	2.64	14.23	2.63
1988	174.37	99.40	8.39	3.16	14.68	2.88
1989	213.10	94.02	10.58	3.40	15.44	3.17
1990	252.63	104.60	15.05	3.66	15.46	2.63
1991	304.53	114.22	19.35	3.93	15.18	4.76
1992	353.56	112.45	25.52	3.87	14.04	4.39
1993	489.11	131.85	25.07	4.20	13.47	4.39
1994	515.16	139.91	19.29	2.80	13.19	10.97
1995	346.72	166.73	13.34	2.38	13.94	9.53
1996	396.99	157.58	19.78	3.09	13.54	9.19
1997	487.61	148.84	24.09	3.01	13.90	12.83
1998	513.01	160.18	17.81	3.22	13.76	12.76
1999	587.22	167.97	21.34	3.36	13.39	13.94
2000	692.71	152.56	28.40	3.65	13.90	18.38
2001	742.67	166.06	32.25	4.10	13.22	30.06
2002	758.78	157.27	34.57	3.81	12.54	24.06
2003	716.38	158.67	37.19	3.70	11.96	18.22
2004	770.59	165.91	37.21	3.88	11.89	24.92
2005	859.16	170.82	42.77	4.25	12.06	26.02
2006	960.40	170.61	46.11	4.35	12.41	22.14
2007	1034.99	196.08	49.68	4.48	12.38	31.11
2008	1094.33	197.67	53.84	3.68	11.37	29.78
2009	884.93	193.34	47.07	4.07	11.10	19.66
2010	1045.22	245.91	54.99	4.52	10.87	30.48
2011	1161.74	291.78	60.72	4.16	10.88	23.84
2012	1177.89	349.28	61.79	4.69	10.71	18.20
2013	1237.37	406.24	60.37	4.82	10.20	50.79
2014	1283.06	442.43	69.72	4.45	10.23	28.61
2015	1141.60	426.91	61.92	4.06	9.75	35.74
2016	1049.58	421.90	53.54	3.54	9.69	38.78
2017	1128.82	441.58	53.04	4.49	10.13	33.02
2018	1189.37	453.16	108.09	4.50	10.32	37.65

CHAPTER 4 EXTERNAL INSTITUTIONAL POLICIES IMPLEMENTED IN MEXICO AND NIGERIA

Introduction

To fulfill objective 2, the various policies in the growth and development are presented in this section briefly. The policies cover external debt, interest rates, and foreign direct investment, external debt, foreign direct investment, and interest rate to probe the decisions the government of both countries have made regarding these variables that affect growth. Afterward, the recommendable policies will be selected and discussed more extensively. The final part will be the new recommendations and then, the constraints that can hinder the recommended policies.

Foreign direct investment was not introduced into Mexico until 1976 and was mainly mandated based on the conditions of IMF loans but in the case of Nigeria, FDI has been relied on since the year of independence in 1960. Although both countries had placed restrictions on the types of economic activities foreign companies can engage in, the areas of restriction in Nigeria were mainly in small scale activities and less industrialized sectors.

According to the compilation of policies in this study, Mexico and Nigeria adopted similar patterns of policies to lower external debt but at different periods over the years. In the 1970s, both countries engaged in excessive borrowing and in the 1980s, they adopted the macroeconomic reform stipulated by the IMF, most notable is the continuous devaluation of the pesos in Mexico. Devaluation was implemented in Nigeria as well in the 1980s but more prominent are the several loan rescheduling that were arranged with creditors. Debt conversion program in Nigeria which is similar to the Aztec bonds in Mexico was adopted much later in Nigeria. Noteworthy are the factors that cause debt in both countries especially in the early 1990s; in Mexico, the factors are mostly tied to internal crisis such as unrest of a political nature and violence related to drug cartels' activities within the country but in Nigeria, the factors that exacerbated external debts are consequences of the nonchalant and deeply corrupt attitude of the military regime in the early 1990s toward debt servicing.

Nevertheless, the path that led to laudable debt management performance in both countries are connected to the emergence of good governance and the formulation of policies that began to reverse or put a stop to free fall into debt but some of the economic

approach and strategies that were implemented in Mexico are more advanced and therefore it is necessary to identify which of them should be adopted in Nigeria and the details are outlined in this comparative study.

According to Quiroga & Smith (2020), the Mexican debt system is a combination of market-based loans, government-financed loans, and government-backed loans. While the debt structure in Nigeria includes state domestic debt, which involves securities issued on domestic capital markets, borrowing from commercial banks, and various programs and financial assistance provided by the central bank and federal government. Additionally, it encompasses payment arrears owed by state governments to contractors, pension funds, and civil servants. The federal government debt is composed of federal government bonds, treasury bonds & bills, promissory notes, development stock and debts from external sources.

The details of the policies and government action in relation to external debt are hereby presented in the next section.

Policies on External Debt

Mexico and Nigeria have similar debt policies, including debt rescheduling, debt-for-equity swaps, reduced public borrowing, and implemented reduced public borrowing policies at different periods. Mexico's debt crisis occurred in the early 1980s, when the country faced a sudden increase in its external debt due to low oil prices, high-interest rates on loans and a poorly timed investment in the oil sector. In response, the Mexican government, and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) supported the implementation of economic reforms that included debt rescheduling, debt-for-equity swaps, and reduced public borrowing. These policies helped Mexico stabilize its economy and avoid defaulting on its debt. Nigeria also faced a debt crisis in the 1980s, primarily due to mismanagement of its oil revenues and declining oil prices. To address the crisis, the Nigerian government, with support from international organizations, implemented debt rescheduling and debt-for-equity swaps, as well as policies to reduce public borrowing, however, political factors such as fund mismanagement and embezzlement caused debts to skyrocket in Nigeria.

Mexico's Policies on Debt

The Mexican Debt Crisis arose due to mounting debt and the inability to repay creditors, resulting in a weakened economy marked by high inflation rates, currency depreciation, and heightened unemployment. The government adopted measures such as bank nationalization, exchange controls, and dollar asset freezes, but these worsened the crisis. Consequently, the government resorted to borrowing from foreign lenders and later turned to debt-for-equity swaps, Aztec Bonds, and the Brady Plan. These economic events led to transformations such as liberalizing and privatizing the banking sector, generating a lending boom, boosting foreign investment, and sparking a stock market boom.

Starting in 1970, subnational industries in Mexico were supported heavily through subsidy to compete with multinational firms leading to deficit that was financed with long-term loans (Davis, 1986). Between 1971 to 1976, contractionary measures were temporarily imposed in Mexico within 1971 to reduce the payments deficit. In 1976, Mexico devalued the peso from 12.5 to 20 pesos per dollar.

In 1981, Pemex borrowed \$10 billion increasing Mexico's total debt in 1981. Between 1982-1986 continuous devaluations of the peso and increased imports caused a flight from the peso (Kraft, 1978). In 1982, López Portillo implemented decrees to nationalize banks, imposed exchange controls to halt capital flight, and froze dollar assets, leading to a debt crisis for Mexican corporations. By 1983, De la Madrid initiated the privatization of Mexican banks by selling shares to the private sector (Glasberg, 1989).

The "Baker plan" was implemented in 1982; an offer of new medium-term new loans from commercial creditors and the official lending institutions hence a rescheduling followed with the expectation that economic reforms would allow the debtors to accumulate national income and pay off their debt. The private sector was given more access to dollars to make interest payments on their loans.

In 1983, more than 35 percent of Mexico's export income was spent on interest payments (Taylor, 1984). In 1981, due to global oil glut the decision to reduce crude from \$30 to \$28 per barrel was opposed, hence, exports plunged, balance of trade deficit and worsened debt in the foreign exchange market. The petroleum sector obtained more foreign loans of imported technology required for the oil industry's development and expansion (U.S. Congress, 1983). Mexico devoted almost 50 percent of state expenditures to pay off debts in the first half of 1986 but in 1987, interest payments on debt became

“our capacity to pay” and adopted under pressure, the fundamental economic changes under the neoliberal policies.

In the mid-1980s, Mexico began debt-for-equity² swaps followed by Aztec Bonds³. The Brady Plan⁴ started in September 1989; then Mexico entered into another agreement with the Paris Club. Following 1993, Mexico proceeded to further liberalize its capital account, enabling the local stock market to engage in the trading of foreign securities. In 1994, the devaluation of the peso and consequential and other events led obtaining more loans and the government fixed the value of the Mexican peso to the U.S. dollar.

In 1997, Mexican banks withdrew from commercial credit and the Mexican government granted entry of foreign banks into the market. During 1999 in Mexico, fiscal discipline was a strategic device for debt and savings management.

In the year 2000, no devaluation of the peso was implemented in Mexico but the government implemented procyclical macroeconomic policies and the structural reform agenda, along with a concealed privatization of oil and electricity.

In 2001, the Mexican Government shifted to domestic creditors such that public debt became guaranteed by the public sector and private sector debt; that are used to finance PIDIREGAS projects which is transferred to the government after the projects are completed. In 2002, Mexico implemented debt policies with the dual objectives of reducing vulnerabilities and lowering financing costs. These measures were in line with the government's 2002-06 economic program (PRONAFIDE), which also included support for the development of the domestic financial system. Additionally, strategies focused on external debt involved expanding the investor base, developing euro and yen yield curves, and prioritizing the management of liability operations to mitigate interest and exchange rate risks. Furthermore, PIDIREGAS projects were used to execute priority investments with private sector funding which covers debt servicing costs while postponing the recording as government expenditure in the budget.

² Debt-for-equity swaps, pioneered by Mexico is an instrument to reduce debts; when a foreign investor presents a Mexican debt paper to pay for an asset, restrictions on Foreign Direct Investment will be lifted in return.

³ It involved swapping a portion of its outstanding debt for a new type of debt known as Aztec Bonds, which would be supported by U.S. Treasury bonds held by Mexico as collateral. To achieve this, a bidding auction would be conducted among banks, determining the extent of discount they would be willing to accept on the original loan value in return for the safer and more reliable bonds.

⁴ the concept of brady plan was debt relief making it acceptable for commercial bank creditors to offer a reduced but safer payment stream in the place of the original claim that is impossible to be serviced fully (FDIC).

By 2003 in Mexico, pre-payments⁵ of outstanding Brady bonds which are permitted by the call option embedded in the bonds were completed. In 2004, external debt in Mexico was repaid by using domestic borrowing (an amount of US\$500 million). Emphasis was placed on enhancing the liquidity and structure of bonds, as well as diversifying the investor base, through the issuance of new global bonds (International Monetary Fund, 2014).

Mexico implemented inflation targeting in 2007 supported by a balanced budget and a manageable public debt to GDP ratio. By 2008, foreign banks were allowed to control about 80% of assets in Mexico with an aim to strengthen the capitalization of the system, improve loan efficiency, and increase lending to the private sector (Sidaoui, 2019). Meanwhile, national public expenditure reduction program was launched in Mexico to reduce the public deficit (OECD, 2011), and many categories of taxes were increased. The arrangement of the Flexible Credit Line (FCL) with the IMF was treated as precautionary along with a multi-annual deficit reduction plan, imposition of new excise taxes on fossil fuels (except natural gas) and introduction of carbon tax and taxes on high-caloric foods and sweetened beverages (OECD, 2015).

From 2010-2014, Mexico aimed to reduce spending by launching the National Public Expenditure Reduction program, increasing taxes, and redirecting savings to social programs. From 2015-2018, they implemented a multi-annual deficit reduction plan, increased various taxes, and made changes to the Fiscal Responsibility Law to lower the debt-GDP ratio. Mexico also planned to return to a neutral fiscal stance by 2015 and eliminate the deficit by 2018 (OECD, 2015).

In summary, the policies of Mexico are centered around the adjustment of several fiscal and monetary policies as bank nationalization, exchange controls, and dollar asset freezes, but these worsened the crisis. Consequently, the government resorted to borrowing from foreign lenders and later turned to debt-for-equity swaps, Aztec Bonds, and the Brady Plan. These economic events led to transformations such as liberalizing and privatizing the banking sector, generating a lending boom, boosting foreign investment, and sparking a stock market boom.

⁵ Pre-payment helped to reduce external debt because the bonds were bought back at a discount and the released collateral was partly used to repay the debt.

In conclusion, these policies reflect Mexico's attempt to address its financial and debt issues, including subsidies, devaluation, and a focus on the petroleum sector in the 70s and early 80s. However, these policies also led to challenges such as increased debt, devaluation of the peso, and a high percentage of export income being spent on interest payments. An important lesson is that reduction of crude oil price during the oil glut would have been an effective policy, but it was resisted.

Nigeria's Policies on External Debt

During 1970s, the external debt of Nigeria was stable and obtained at concessional interest rates (6.9% Of GDP). However, arrears on long-term debts started to surface in 1984, between 1982–1985, the debt service ratio was at an annual average of 16.3% and by the period between 1986 – 1994, it had increased to 26.7% (Chevillard, 2001).

The new regime refused to pay any interests accrued prior to January 1985 and proposed to the involved companies to change their claims to promissory notes. By October 1984, loan rescheduling was organized; debt service ratio on export debts was raised to 13.7 percent in 1982, and 34.7 percent in 1984, then highly above 40 percent in 1985. In 1983, short-term loans were obtained along with rescheduling which was also occurred in 1986, and in 1989. As debt level increase due to the state of the economy devaluation was implemented. Also, the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) took over external debt management and created departments in collaboration with federal ministry of finance but the strategies and measures varied from time to time.

In March 1989, only short-term debts were rescheduled and continued till 1991 but did not impede the growing arrears. However, measures were successfully implemented to restrict commercial debts, which Nigeria continued to service promptly. Additionally, in 1988, a debt conversion program (DCP) was introduced, aiming to convert Nigeria's loans into investments or grants, alongside the adoption of the Structural Adjustment Program (Neoliberal Policies of the IMF). Subsequently, in November 1987, the London Club granted a 21-month consolidation on the outstanding debt stock through rescheduling. In January 1992, a debt exchange for equity, similar to Mexico's approach, was achieved. This included a 30-year suspension of obligations and rescheduling, along with an arrangement to set a minimum and maximum amount for debt servicing at the beginning of each year, representing an average of 20-30% of the country's export earnings.

In Nigeria, as of 21 December 1995, the Nigerian government reduced outstanding debts to oil companies but the Nigeria National Petroleum Corporation (NNPC) was unable to finance many investments reducing it by 30%. The government eventually agreed to reduce the share of NNPC in Shell Petroleum Development Company (SPDC). The same year, the rescheduling agreements continued and Nigeria's debt service payments stayed within the range of US\$ 5 and US\$ 6 but the Nigerian government allocated only US\$2 billion to external debt servicing for years, prioritizing multilateral debts followed by the Paris club.

During the era of military rule (General Abacha, the dictator), there was no debt management or debt records, annual debt service was limited to only US\$1 billion out of US\$3 billion. In 1997, new loans were banned except on concessionary grounds, and allocation for debt servicing were pegged down. Between 1998/99 to 2002, the use of a standard computer software for debt management was introduced. No new loans were obtained but the government failed to service some categories of debt, (the debts owed to Paris club creditors, and arrears on post cut-off date debt. In Nigeria, flexible exchange rate and the launching of the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) enabled Nigeria to commit to fiscal prudence, tighter monetary policy, and maintaining low deficit/GDP rates facilitated the country's ability to re-engage in discussions with creditors regarding debt relief.

In year 2002, in Nigeria, strategies were set to manage Nigeria's debt as an asset for growth, development and poverty reduction. By 2003, the second phase of the strategic plan of debt management commenced in Nigeria and was planned in a more structured way which led to the 2005 debt deals with the Paris Club and London Club (DMO, 2012).

By 2005, the objective of the second strategic plan in Nigeria was to obtain debt relief; the country exited from the Paris Club and US\$18 billion was written off while US\$12 billion was paid off out of the remaining balance. Embargo and limitations were placed on obtaining new loans (Adepoju, 2007). In 2007, during this year, *The Fiscal Responsibility Act, 2007*, set general limits for consolidated debt of the government, loan approval by the national assembly required on cost - benefit analysis and feasibility studies (DMO, 2015), and a target of external debt stock GDP ratio of 20 percent was prioritized.

In Nigeria, under phase III (2009-13), the DMO continued the shift 'from external debt reduction to designing, managing and institutionalizing a successful national debt

policy through DFID-funded assistance, restrictions were placed on borrowing for government at all levels (Akunyili, 2013).

In 2016, Nigeria launched a new debt management strategy for 2016-2019, therefore policy implementation included 75:25 ratio for long and short-term debt instruments in the domestic debt portfolio, borrowings on concessional terms continued to finance public development program at 60:40 for domestic and external debt ratio, diversification of international capital and redemption of treasury bills and tenured securities in the domestic and international capital markets. Lastly, Eurobonds were issued in 2018 through which new borrowings were raised to fund capital projects with a strict adherence to the 2018 Appropriation Act and the Debt Management Strategy of 2016-2019.

In conclusion, Mexico and Nigeria implemented similar debt policies at within the same decade but in different years, since both countries obtained loans from IMF but Mexico pioneered Aztec bonds, the debt for equity swap. While other policies are similar because of the similar creditors they had in common as was seen in debt rescheduling. Regardless, many of the debt management strategies from Mexico are sophisticated. The section also points out that Nigeria experienced a debt crisis in the 1980s, mainly due to mismanagement of oil revenues and declining oil prices. Although the Nigerian government implemented debt rescheduling, debt-for-equity swaps, and policies to reduce public borrowing, political factors such as fund mismanagement and embezzlement caused an increase in the country's debts.

Policies on Interest Rate

Both Mexico and Nigeria implemented policies to ensure investors remain interested although Mexico did this by increasing absolute and real interest rates in the 80s, it should be noted that interest rates were increased and rather than being left to be market determined as the Washington policies stipulated. On the other hand, Nigeria offered interest rate incentives on public bonds and export companies.

Mexico's Policies on Interest Rate

The compilation of policies begins from the period of Mexico's economic crisis, policies including interest rate increases, deficit reduction, and wage restrictions were

implemented, but high interest rates led to a recession and banking crisis. The policies later evolved into several monetary policies using interest rate as a tool.

The period 1970-1976 was the beginning of economic instability, marked by President Luis Echeverria's devaluation of peso in 1976 for the first time in twenty-two years. The number of banks was reduced from 243 in 1976 to 63 in 1981 in a streamlining program. Numerous banks in Mexico partnered with major Western banks to form lending consortia, thereby expanding their access to international financial resources.

In 1982, the three largest banks in Mexico accounted for 65 percent of banking assets and 75 percent of profits (Hamilton, 1986). This concentration, coupled with access to foreign capital resources, proved advantageous for Mexican banks during ongoing devaluations as they earned high interest rates on assets and generated profits from dollar investments abroad. However, the devaluations of the peso and the high interest rates on their existing debts posed challenges for Mexican industrialists who lacked access to international financial resources (Hamilton, 1986).

The period 1982 – 1994 were the early years of economic crisis in Mexico and the neoliberal policies implemented included interest-rate increases; deficit reduction, wage restrictions to reduce consumption. Decreased price controls, and a general opening up of the economy were also enforced in the same year. In March 1982, due to internal political conflicts, the government authorized a wage increase that displaced the advantages of the currency devaluation. The austerity measures were meant to accompany the devaluation such as reductions in public spending, higher interest rates, and additional price increase to discourage excessive consumption of food and oil, thus, the measures did not take effect. As a result, the financial markets retaliated by raising interest rate to 18.5 percent on the loan previously obtained by Mexico which at the time, amounted to \$100 million Eurodollar loan (Glasberg, 1989).

This period was an era of high absolute and real interest rates used to attract foreign investment and sustain low inflations rates. Exchange rate was fixed from December 1987 to January 1989, a daily pre-announced depreciation of 1 Peso each day was implemented. However, this depreciation rate happened to be lower than the difference between internal and external relative prices, eventually resulting in the overvaluation of the exchange rate. (Peters, 1996) and the high interest rates worsened the declining domestic propensity to invest in 1982.

By December 20, peso was floated, followed by a devaluation between 13-15%; a remarkable economic downturn and a substantial banking crisis ensued in the aftermath of the currency devaluation. As investors withdrew from the country, interest rates in Mexico surged significantly to reach 32% and as a result, several individuals and businesses who had borrowed from commercial banks or foreign sources were unable to repay their loans, leading to defaults (Musacchio, 2012).

In Mexico, starting from 1995, the increase of interest rates on short-term debt exceeded the increase on longer maturity bonds. The Banco de Mexico adopted a monetary policy approach known as "El Corto" or "short" (also referred to as Saldo Acumulados), this framework was implemented when one or more banks faced a liquidity shortage. Private banks had the option to borrow liquid resources from the Banco de Mexico, the central bank of Mexico, which set a specific target for the cumulative balance of funds provided to the banks over a defined period. Under this strategy, the central bank conducted open market operations to reduce liquidity, resulting in one or more private banks having a negative balance. The Banco de Mexico would then offer to the private banks, the required liquidity at an interest rate which doubled the prevailing market rate. The banks, in turn, adopted a strategy to avoid incurring this penalty rate by raising the interest rates on deposits or loans. The negative target approach by the central bank as narrated, represents a contractionary approach to monetary policy (Meza, 2019).

In year 2000, Banco de México adopted "inflation targeting" scheme for the formulation of its monetary policy and in 2005, the central bank started making policy announcements regarding interest rate; Banco de México creates at the start of each year a calendar of pre-scheduled announcements about the target interest rate.

Banco de México sets its interest rate target 8 times a year in the months of January to December according to the calendar. The purpose of monetary policy decisions is for inflation to be limited to the inflation target of 3%. The announcements help investors in the financial market to predict future interest rates. Consequently, it triggers fluctuations in various short-term interest rates and alters the values of assets like public and private bonds, as well as the interest rates associated with credit cards, self-financing, mortgage loans, business financing, and more. This turn of events finally affects household consumption, sales, investment, production, employment, wages, inflation expectations, and ultimately, consumer prices.

By 2008 in Mexico the Banco de Mexico announced that it substituted the Corto⁶ with having an operational target for the short-term interbank interest rate.

In December 2015, the Federal Reserve in Mexico raised interest rates for the first time in nine years. During that year, Banxico's primary objective was to ensure price stability, rather than employment and growth. The central bank took decisive measures to emphasize its commitment to price stability. Throughout 2017, Banxico gradually increased its policy rate by 150 basis points, moving from 5.75% to 7.25%. As a result, the real interest rate rose from 1.5% (indicating an accommodative policy stance) to 3.25% (indicating a restrictive policy stance) (Austerweil, 2019).

In 2018, Mexico's central bank maintained ex-ante real interest rates close to 3.5%, which provide significant value when accounting for Mexico's economic conditions and factors. The high real interest rates are meant to protect Mexico's currency from inflation expectations especially because of the uncertainties which laid ahead, particularly the upcoming Mexican presidential election and the renegotiation of NAFTA. By 2019, Banco de Mexico cut the key interest rate by a quarter point for the fourth time to 7.25% on December 19 and is expected to ease again by the same amount in February, ending the year at 6.50%.

In general, Mexico's policies were designed to reduce instability, marked by peso devaluation, neoliberal policies, and changes in monetary policy. The Banco de Mexico focused on limiting inflation and maintaining stable interest rates.

Nigeria's Policies on Interest Rate

Nigeria has made significant adjustments to its interest rate policies over the past 48 years, with a focus on promoting investment and economic development. These policies aim to improve financial sector efficiency and provide tax exemptions and support for companies engaged in manufacturing and exports. Y

In 1970, interest rates in Nigeria were allowed to be determined by the market, to promote increased level of investment in sectors of the economy such as the agricultural, manufacturing, and solid mineral sectors.

⁶ Corto: A monetary policy instrument that Banco de México uses to decrease inflation which has allowed shocks to the markets to be distributed and absorbed through movements in both short-term interest rates and movements in the rate exchange (Díaz-Bautista et al, 2003).

During the same year, directives were issued to deposit money banks, instructing them to offer preferential interest rates on all loans. The objective was to promote small-scale industrialization as a catalyst for economic advancement. (Udoka, 2000).

In Nigeria, financial sector reforms commenced with the deregulation of interest rates in August 1987 (Ikhide, 2001) aiming to enhance efficiency within the financial sector and promote financial deepening. However, on January 4, 1994, the government introduced measures to regulate interest rate management, reversing the interest rate policy. Deposit rates were set at 12 percent per annum, while a lending ceiling of 21 percent per annum was established. This interest rate gap introduced in 1994 remained in place in 1995 with slight adjustments to allow for flexibility. In October 1996, interest rates were fully deregulated, allowing banks to determine the structure of interest rates in agreement with their customers. Nonetheless, the Central Bank of Nigeria retained discretionary power to monitor the growth of interest rates.

During this period, the Investment and Securities Act (2007) was implemented in Nigeria to regulate the capital market, while the Security & Exchange Commission played a role in protecting investors and disseminating information about the financial market. Additionally, policies by the Nigeria Investment Promotion Commission (NIPC) were established between 2018 and 2019. These policies included tax exemptions on interest earned from bonds, short-term securities, and the disposal of government and corporate securities. The exemptions covered bonds, short-term government securities, and certain corporate bonds for a period of 10 years. The policy also encompassed companies exclusively supplying inputs for manufacturing export products, as well as companies established within export processing zones or free trade zones (NIPC, 2020).

Nigeria has made significant adjustments to its interest rate policies over the past 48 years, with a focus on promoting investment and economic development. These policies aim to improve financial sector efficiency and provide tax exemptions and support for companies engaged in manufacturing and exports. Overall, Nigeria's interest rate policies demonstrate a commitment to promoting stable and efficient financial policies that support economic growth and development.

In conclusion, the interest rate policies and banking sectors of Nigeria and Mexico have undergone significant changes over the past few decades. Both countries have experimented with deregulation and regulation of interest rates, and have implemented various measures to promote investment, stabilize inflation rates, and ensure the efficient

functioning of their financial sectors. While their approaches have differed, both Nigeria and Mexico have recognized the importance of maintaining stable and predictable interest rates to support economic growth and development. Ongoing reforms and policy adjustments suggest that both countries remain committed to achieving these goals and continuing to adapt to changing economic conditions.

Policies on Foreign Direct Investment

Mexico and Nigeria have implemented policies to attract foreign investment and increase their participation in the global economy. These policies include deregulation of certain sectors, elimination or reduction of tariffs, creation of tax-based incentives, and the establishment of organizations to promote and protect foreign investment. In some cases, restrictions on foreign investment have been lifted, allowing for greater foreign ownership and control of businesses.

Mexico's Policies on FDI

Mexico has adopted a range of strategies aimed at enhancing employment, income, and foreign exchange earnings through the acquisition of assets by foreign companies and corporate tax revenue generation. To achieve these goals, Mexico has lowered tariffs, deregulated specific sectors, provided tax benefits, and created institutions to promote foreign investment but the effect of FDI is a commonly argued topic.

In 1970, the Industrial Substitution of Imports (ISI) policies in Mexico gradually changed focus from consumer goods toward intermediate and capital goods and with more emphasis on inward orientation and applying the method protective tariffs and other barriers to foreign direct investment, along with monetary and fiscal policies, to empower and encourage domestic economic development but by 1970 the model proved ineffective, it could no longer drive job creation and caused distortions to the rest of the economy which had to be sustained by massive external borrowing to cover the perennial deficits in public finances (Meza, 2019).

In 1973, Mexico enacted the Foreign Investment Law, which imposed restrictions on foreign investment in certain sectors of the economy, such as energy, telecommunications, and transportation.

An economic program presented by President Miguel De la Madrid in December 1982 to rapidly address the existing economic problem in Mexico amended the constitution to create a fairer distribution of income and wealth.

The "Calvo Clause" for instance created restriction to property acquisition by foreigners in Mexico. Geographical limitations were created to restrict foreign ownership of real property in a "restricted zone," extending for 100 kilometers from the borders, or 50 kilometers along the shores of the country. Various economic activities were constrained due to the state's exclusive control, denying private involvement from both Mexicans and foreigners. These activities encompassed sectors such as railroad operations, electricity generation and transmission, telegraph services, petroleum, and essential petrochemical production, as well as nuclear industries (Clayton et al, 1992).

Mexico experienced a progressive increase in the FDI/GDP ratio, climbing from 1.4% in 1980-1985 to 1.8% in 1986-1993, and further to 3.4% in 1994-2000. Simultaneously, the share of FDI in gross fixed capital formation rose from 3.2% to 9.1% and eventually reached 16.3% in those respective periods (Máttar J, 2002).

Whereas, just a year after, Mexico's FDI/GDP ratio steadily rose from 1.4% (1980-1985) to 1.8% (1986-1993), reaching 3.4% (1994-2000). FDI's share in gross fixed capital formation also increased, growing from 3.2% to 9.1% and eventually reaching 16.3% in those periods.

In 1989, Mexico introduced a revised regulation of the Foreign Investment Law (FIL) of 1973. The updated FIL included a classification of new activities, such as radio and television, transportation industries, forestry, and gas distribution. These activities were reserved exclusively for Mexicans, excluding foreign investment. However, the FIL allowed foreign participation of up to 49% in sectors not reserved for the state or Mexican nationals, as long as foreigners did not gain complete control of the business. The national commission on foreign investment had the authority to approve higher percentages in specific cases, but exceptions to the 49% ownership limit were not granted. The FIL aimed to liberalize foreign investment without restrictions for activities not explicitly reserved for the state or Mexicans. (Clayton, Tomás Anthony, Díaz-Guerro, José Humberto, Garcia-Cervantes, José Trinidad, 1992).

Since 1993, foreign investors have been permitted to participate in various Mexican projects, including corporate capital of legal entities in Mexico, asset ownership, manufacturing, and import/export activities, with minimal restrictions. However, certain

economic sectors such as the postal service, telegraphy, and radio-telegraphy, radioactive minerals and nuclear energy, national electricity system control (transmission and distribution), currency printing, basic petrochemicals, hydrocarbons, and airport/port/heliport control and oversight are subject to limitations (Ruffo, 2019). By January 1, 1994, most tariffs were eliminated on trade between Mexico, USA and Canada through the NAFTA agreement to create a trilateral trade bloc in North America.

The government implemented a system starting in 1993 as well, by which a new currency known as "new pesos," was introduced and its conversion rate was one current peso or new peso equivalent to one thousand old pesos. The historical exchange rate series is presented in current pesos. For instance, in 1960, the peso/dollar exchange rate stood at 12.50, which would be equivalent to 0.0125 in today's pesos.

In 2008, tariffs were finally phased out on agriculture, textile and automobiles under the NAFTA agreement in Mexico. Between 2012 – 2018, structural reforms in Mexico focused mainly on the energy and telecommunications sectors, which experienced setbacks as a result of previous limitations on foreign investment . There was deregulation of the energy sector and the elimination of foreign investment restrictions within the financial and telecommunications sectors allowing foreign and domestic to participate to a certain extent and a profit or production sharing mechanism with the state oil company Pemex was applied.

In summary, Mexico's economic policies and regulations began with an aim toward self-sufficiency approach of ISI policies in the 1970s, the country gradually opened up to foreign investment in the 1980s and 1990s through various reforms and the negotiation of NAFTA. As the years passed by, the country removed various restrictions on foreign investment in most sectors, with some limitations on certain economic activities such as the petroleum sector.

Nigeria's Policies on FDI

Nigeria's foreign direct policies as outlined in this section began with restrictions on foreign equity ownership and reserved businesses for Nigerians during the 1960s and 1970s but the policies were gradually eroded and began to encourage foreign investment, applied deregulation, liberalization of access to foreign exchange, and the establishment of the Nigeria Investment Promotion Commission.

Between 1960 and 1970, Nigeria depended highly on foreigners for investment in the country and it is believed that FDI was a vehicle for political and economic domination of Nigeria. But during the 1970s, strict limitations were placed on foreign equity ownership in most activities; the Nigerian Enterprises Promotion Decree of 1977 restricted foreign ownership to a maximum of 40-60 percent in most activities; a further 36 enterprises were reserved exclusively for Nigerians.

From 1972 onwards, the Nigerian government implemented the Nigerian Enterprises Promotion Decree (NEPD) to restrict foreign investment in the country. The NEPD, also known as the indigenization policy, limited foreign ownership to a maximum of 60% stake. This policy led to a decrease in foreign investment and a slowdown in economic activities across all sectors in Nigeria (Okezie, 2018).

Certain enterprises were exclusively reserved for Nigerian ownership under the indigenization policy. These included advertising and public relations, assembly of electronic devices, blending and bottling of alcoholic beverages, manufacturing of building blocks and tiles, travel agencies, rice milling, jewelry production, and various small and medium-scale businesses.

The year 1986 was the beginning of deregulation era in Nigeria with a purpose to attract investment to drive economic growth when the structural adjustment program (SAP) began in July 1986. The features of the program are trade and exchange reforms, monetary and fiscal measures to help diversification of export trade. Hence, the naira was depreciated to discourage importation and increase gains for multinational investors. The outcome of this policy was political unrests which negatively affected the economy-every sphere of the economy was paralyzed. The exchange rate fluctuated continuously and inflation rate increased till 2010 (Okezie, 2018).

In the year 1990 in Nigeria, access to foreign capital was facilitated and procedures for dividend repatriation were streamlined, devaluation of the overvalued Naira and maintenance of a realistic exchange rate; implementation of a tight monetary policy to bring inflation under control, liberalization of procedures for access to foreign exchange through elimination of import licensing requirements which was based on influence and patronage; reform of the trade regime, including tariff reduction, and rationalization of import policy. However, the implementation of these policies was subjected to government bureaucracy.

By 1989, the Nigerian Enterprises Promotion Decree (NEPD) of 1989 repealed or relaxed that of 1972 and 1977. The features of the decree include allowance of 100% foreign ownership, investment approval became the responsibility of the Industrial Development Coordinating Committee (IDCC). Others are removal of import-licensing system and replacement with an auction to establish availability and markets for hard currency, tax incentives for investors, including tax-holidays for pioneer status, investment allowances for capital expenditures, and a variety of incentives for the development of raw material.

Lastly, the signing of investment guarantee treaties with France and negotiations with the US and UK, Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency (MIGA) and Overseas Private Investment Corporation (OPIC) agreements are in force (Ugochukwu, Okore, & Onoh, 2013)

In 1995, the Nigeria Investment Promotion Commission (NIPC) was established under Decree No 16. This allowed foreign investors to establish businesses with 100% ownership, subject to registration with the Corporate Affairs Commission (CAC) as per the Companies and Allied Matters Decree of 1990, with final approval from the NIPC. The NIPC Decree ensured protection of foreign investments from government nationalization and expropriation.

The NIPC Decree replaced the Industrial Development Coordination Committee (IDCC) Decree No 36 of 1988 and the Nigeria Enterprise Promotion Decree (NEPD) of 1972 (amended in 1977 and 1989) that reserved certain businesses for Nigerian ownership. The decree also facilitated the liberalization of the foreign exchange market through the operation of the autonomous foreign exchange market (AFEM).

Privatization of state-owned enterprises, along with other measures, was implemented to incentivize foreign investments and leverage the managerial expertise and technical capabilities of foreign companies in revitalizing Nigeria's struggling industries (Umah K. E., 2007).

In 1999, the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) was designed by the Nigerian president Olusegun Obasanjo and it aimed at strategizing a growth led by the private sector.

In 2006, the Nigerian government offered bilateral trade investment incentives to China for packaged investment projects. Hence, in order to foster trade expansion and facilitate investments in sectors such as agriculture, telecommunications, energy, and

infrastructure development, China obtained four oil drilling licenses and committed to investing \$4 billion in Nigeria's oil and infrastructure projects.

From 2018-2020, Nigeria implemented policies including creation of tax-based incentives in which companies' income tax act applicable rate became 30% and pioneer status incentive (NIPC, 2020). An increment of 75% was made to import tariff on chemical inputs for various production and prohibitions were placed on mineral or chemical fertilizers containing two or three of the fertilizing elements nitrogen, phosphorus, and potassium (NPK 15-15-15) to localize the production of fertilizers used in agricultural production based. Many of the companies involved in the production are owned by foreign investors.

Therefore, as the compiled policies illustrate, Nigeria implemented policies limit foreign investments at first but this continued to change until more liberalized policies were implemented such as allowing 100% ownership for foreign businesses through the NIPC and privatizing state-owned enterprises. Incentives were offered to China in 2006, and recent policies include tax-based incentives and trade restrictions to encourage local production. These efforts reflect Nigeria's commitment to creating a favorable business environment for foreign investors and utilizing their expertise for economic growth.

Conclusion

The policies implemented by Mexico and Nigeria aimed to attract foreign investment and increase their participation in the global economy. These policies included reducing tariffs, deregulating certain sectors, creating tax incentives, and establishing organizations to promote foreign investment. The goal was to create a conducive business environment that would attract foreign investors. However, the role of foreign direct investment (FDI) in both countries was influenced by factors such as debt and the adoption of the Washington consensus policies. The oil crises of the 1970s resulted in significant debts for both countries, leading to the adoption of the Washington consensus policies that prioritized liberalization, privatization, and deregulation. As a result, FDI became increasingly allowed and encouraged in both countries, even though some sectors were still restricted.

By the end of the period under study, Nigeria had given 100% ownership to foreign companies in all sectors, including the oil sector, while Mexico did not officially relinquish ownership to foreign companies. This difference in policy could potentially result in

different long-term outcomes in terms of development. Further research may be necessary to fully explain any differences in outcomes.

The policies on interest rate as outlined in the compilation, highlighted interest rate setting to achieve inflation targeting in Mexico which was not implemented in Nigeria. The reasons are tied to a large informal sector, which makes it difficult to monitor and control interest rates. The central bank of Nigeria does not have independence in reality and credibility due to flailing leadership, for example inflation targeting was set in 2015 but was never implemented the other issues that took prominence in the CBN operation are exchange rates, and external reserves.

CHAPTER 5 POLICIES ON HUMAN SECURITY

Introduction

This chapter is a continuation of the answers to meet objective 2 and the policies in this chapter are on health, education, food/nutrition and agriculture, and are interwoven in the welfare programs of both countries which form the components of the development category of this study. Government's spending on research and development can boost innovativeness leading to job creation with better wages rather than advancement in school and when a population have enough income, they will have extra income to raise healthy children who have a healthy mental capability or high IQ and physical health that will enable function and study effectively in school. However, while a shortfall in income or proper distribution of income might occur, the government can augment low-income earners by supporting them through public management and funding of education, education and ensure that food supply and nutrition is sufficiently available. Based on this, it is necessary to assess the policies on these variables.

Both Mexico and Nigeria have several welfare programs targeting the poorest sectors. Welfare in Mexico have taken an important position in government administration since the 1970s with quite extensive projects such as CONASUPO. Several welfare programs have been initiated and ended over the years. The Mexican government continued to devise means of reducing poverty and therefore created the multidimensional approach of measuring poverty. On the other hand, the welfare programs initiated in Nigeria in the 1970s were mostly housing programs and many of the houses which are government-built can still be seen in many areas of the country till present though most have become privately owned and are sited in planned urban residential areas of the country.

Additionally in Nigeria, many other welfare programs that were designed in the 1980s were targeted at poverty alleviation but had a low impact and were mostly used to siphon public funds into various pockets of government representatives until the 2000s when civilian rule was restored and meaningful projects began to make more impact by year 2011 during the administration of President Goodluck Jonathan, most projects were monitored by independent organizations for checks and balances and for authentic reports, while this created some level of transparency, corruption was not completely eliminated

from government projects, nevertheless, the projects made recognizable impacts though minimal but by 2015 onward, living conditions began to deteriorate. For instance, food inadequacy in all geopolitical regions increased by 1.95% between 2013 and 2015.

Policies on Health

Mexico and Nigeria have different approaches to healthcare provision in regard to policies, programs, and execution. Public health institution in Mexico is the main provider of healthcare services to wage earners and other categories of people, including day care, medical resources, retirement and old-age pensions, insurance for disability and work-related illnesses. In Nigeria, preventive health services are prioritized, health centers are created in communities according to population, and institutes that execute policies related to providing health services is an important structure in the health sector of Nigeria.

Mexico's Policies on Health

Policies on health include the construction of rural health clinics in the 1970s, implementation of primary healthcare policies, and reforms in 1995 and 1997 which led to the creation of the System of Health Accounts and PROGRESA. Mexico also initiated the Crusade for Health Care Quality Scheme, implemented new tax policies in 2014 to combat obesity, and made certain adjustments to encourage clinical research and production of medications.

In the 1970s, under the government agency, IMSS-COPLAMAR about 2,000 rural health clinics were built (CGDEV, 2021). The Mexican Social Security Institute (IMSS) is the permanent main public health institution for compulsory wage contributions, mandatory for wage earners while being accessible to other categories of people. The institute provides day care, medical resources, retirement and old-age pensions, insurance for disability and work-related illnesses (Lomelí, 2015) while health services is provided through PEMEX for oil workers, and SEDENA for armed forces (Nigenda, 2015).

Primary healthcare policies focused on poverty alleviation in the countryside was based on influence of the Alma Ata Declaration (1978). The health policies implemented between 1970-1975 include the Nationwide Health Care Services with few accomplishments between 1983-1994 in Mexico, the first health care was decentralized to recognize the right to social protection in the health sector (Coletiva, 2018).

By the year 1993 in Mexico, spending on the health sector increased (CGDEV, 2021) and the Mexican National TB Program (Programa de Acción Tuberculosis) conducted a nationwide survey on drug resistance and implemented a DOTS-Plus project. Assistance for drug-resistant TB patients was partially offered through binational TB projects, and outreach workers were deployed to ensure treatment adherence and conduct contact investigations (Schneider, 2004).

In 1995, Mexico initiated a reform of the IMSS program and introduced a "System of Health Accounts" based on the OECD framework. This framework facilitates health policy development by offering comprehensive data on the flow of funds within the healthcare system, including their sources and expenditures. The PROGRESA program, a conditional cash transfer welfare program was created in 1997 to cover financial needs for health services among other objectives on the condition that the beneficiaries take their children to clinics for immunizations and accept preventive health services delivered through the Ministry of Health and IMSS-Solidaridad (CGDEV, 2021) while the Seguro popular came under the management of private pension fund administrators thereby increasing the eligibility requirements and reducing security of pension benefits when the reforms came into effect in 1997. Budget allocation reduced for the program and states participation deepened, leading to the formation of 32 state health systems that depended on federal resources (Machado, 2015).

In the same year, the Crusade for Health Care Quality Scheme was initiated in Mexico to protect rights of patients and reduce waiting times for a consultation or intervention (Puig et al, 2012). A new and voluntary health insurance "Seguro Popular" was initiated to cater to the portion of the population not registered under the social security system (OECD, 2005) (Puig, 2009).

Between the 2001-2006, Mexico, launched Programa Nacional de Salud; a health insurance for a new generation with an aim to provide protection beginning at birth for 5 million children (PAHO, 2012). In 2002, the program oportunidad was launched to offer free health packages to 5.8 million poor households. Vaccinations for rotavirus and pneumococcus and strategies for permanence of the project were set up.

In Mexico, the general tobacco control law was approved in year 2008 as well as a governance structure for the Mesoamerican Public Health System (SMSP). Therefore, trainings were organized for 332 staff members from the countries of the region (PAHO, 2012). By 2010, 96.1% of Seguro Popular-registered families in Mexico were officially

exempted from paying the family contribution (Bonilla-Chacin & Aguilera, 2013). The following year, 2011 –expenses on diabetes mellitus and hypothesis under IMSS amounted roughly to 31 billion and 20 billion pesos (Secretariat de Salud, 2014). By 2013, public investment in health system had increased in Mexico, but had no impact on health and health system performance,

In 2014, Mexico implemented new tax policies on sugar-sweetened beverages and processed food that contains more than 275 calories per 100 g and the tax revenue was earmarked for health programs to combat obesity (OECD, 2015). Proper content disclosure to audiences under twelve years old commenced, also in the food and non-alcoholic beverages industry and the Ministry of Health set the nutritional specifications that food and non-alcoholic drinks must meet while guidelines on daily amounts (GDAs) of consumable goods were improved for a clearer consumer information (Secretariat de Salud, 2014).

Until 2016 in Mexico, hospitals in the Seguro Popular and Seguridad Social sub-systems are mainly paid through retrospective budgets unlike the per-diem payment (daily allowance) in many private hospitals. Reports during reforms showed that salaries and hiring of medical professionals in OECD countries are strictly based on national contracts negotiated collectively by the unions with rigid conditions on working hours and social security benefits (OECD, 2015). Health spending in Mexico dropped and budget allocation to health was low in Nigeria.

In January 2017, an agreement by COFEPRIS was signed to promote clinical research, adjust requirements and the time frame for obtaining all permits were reduced to 45 days from 365 days. Regulation on medical devices in the market were removed (up to 10%) and digitalizing process were introduced for efficiency. Generics were given prominence over patented brands and some brands were liberated in Mexico thereby enabling generics companies to create less expensive versions of medical products (COFEPRIS, 2016) along with a price reduction policy on pharmaceutical products. Also, reports such as ENSANUT were used to evaluate prevalent conditions in Mexico and to assign resources and generate biotechnology for treatments ((Mexico Business Publishing, 2017). In December 2018, the Seguro Popular was eliminated and replaced in 2020 by Instituto de Salud para el Bienestar (INSABI) (funded by general taxes, and no expectation of individual premiums).

In summary, Mexico strengthened the primary healthcare policies to support the people both workers and less privileged, then reforms took place in the health sector that led to the establishment the System of Health Accounts and PROGRESA. Additionally, Mexico launched several programs to ensure progress in the health sector.

Nigeria's Health Policies

Nigeria's primary healthcare policies concentrated on the establishment of community health centers, but the military government decreased health expenditure in the 1980s. Nonetheless, the country implemented the directly observed treatment short-course strategy to combat TB in the 1990s.

In 1974, education was prioritized in the place of health in Nigeria (Ityavyar, 1987) and in the next year, 1975 –efforts were focused on numerical strength of existing facilities.

By 1992, the National Primary Health Care Development Agency (NPHCDA) was also established to ensure the continuity and sustenance of public health care agenda, but the military government brought all these achievements to an end.

To fight TB in the same year in Nigeria, with full government participation, the country implemented the DOTS strategy, which included sputum microscopy for detection, direct observation of short-course treatment by healthcare workers, consistent drug supply, and a standardized recording and reporting system (Iweama, et al., 2021). Although, in this period and until 1998 in Nigeria, there was no broad-based health financing strategy (Iweama, et al., 2021). Although, in this period and until 1998 in Nigeria, there was no broad-based health financing strategy.

The Integrated Disease Surveillance and Response (IDSR) for public health surveillance in Nigeria became operational in 2001 (Ibrahim, 2020). Within 2003, in some parts of Nigeria, per capita expenditure on health was as low as \$2 –a difference of \$34 from WHO recommendation for low income countries (Wilson & Silva, 2013) (WHO, WHO Country Cooperation Strategy: Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2008-2014, 2002). However, the first phase of comprehensive health sector reform implementation in Nigeria which covered 2004 – 2007 was initiated under NEEDS program.

In 2005, universal provision of antiretroviral therapy was implemented in Nigeria with the support of Global Fund and United States Presidential Emergency Plan for AIDS

Relief (PEPFAR) and the World Bank. National Disease and Control Prevention Centre was created in Lagos for the surveillance and response to infectious diseases. Routine immunization campaigns against polio and other preventable diseases were reinforced (Anamene, 2016). The National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS) was officially launched in 2005 and was expanded to cater for mothers and children under five years old, permanently disabled persons, prison inmates, students in tertiary institutions, the military and members of security forces (Kannegiesser, 2009).

Meanwhile, Nigeria joined the Global Compact of the International Health Partnerships and related initiatives to design and execute national health plans in developing countries for increased coverage of health services and improved health outcomes through private, public and non-governmental channels (The Lancet, 2007). In 2009, Nigerian Midwives Service Scheme (MSS) was created to help lower maternal and infant mortality rates in rural, under-served areas of Nigeria backed with the funding of a special MDG-DRG (Debt Relief Gains) account by deploying midwives equipping clinics to provide basic emergency obstetric care (Okeke & Setodji, 2020).

In 2007, efforts were initiated by the Stop TB Partnership to expand and enhance the DOTS strategy, with a focus on addressing tuberculosis-human immunodeficiency virus (TB-HIV) co-infection, multi-drug resistant TB (MDR-TB), improving access to vulnerable populations affected by TB, and promoting research in this field (Iweama, 2021). Furthermore, the Ward Minimum Health Care Package (WMHCP) for the period 2007-2012 was officially approved and implemented as a benchmark for the provision of essential primary health care services in Nigeria (WHO, 2008).

In 2012, total government expenditure on health in Nigeria was 5.3% of GDP, ranked 153 out of 187th countries and territories (Eneji, Juliana, & Onabe, 2013). By 2013, public investment in health system had increased in Mexico, but had no impact on health and health system performance, as opposed to Nigeria where out-of-pocket payments on health was 69.35% (AHPRS, 2020) less than 5% of Nigerians were covered by any form of health insurance at the end of 2013 (Pharm Access Foundation, 2015).

As from 2010 – 2015 in Nigeria, state domestication of the primary health care under one roof policy, passage of the National Health Act; Basic Health Care Provision Fund for Universal Health Coverage were ongoing along with an increased investments in procurement and distribution of insecticide-treated-bed nets, launching of Midwifery Service Scheme, the free Maternal and Child Health policy, and utilization of

Reproductive, Maternal, Newborn, Child and Adolescent Health plus Nutrition (RMNCH+N) services (Eneji, Juliana, & Onabe, 2013). Also, the budget allocation for the Ministry of Health was increased along with the release of NGN55.15 billion for the implementation of the National Health Act which was passed in 2014 (Adebisi, et al., 2020).

In summary, Mexico built rural health clinics and focused on creating systems to provide social protection. Nigeria prioritized the establishment of health centers and focused on preventive health services. However, the Nigerian government later reduced spending on health and limited private practice of medicine. In contrast, Mexico increased spending on healthcare and implemented various programs like the System of Health Accounts and the conditional cash transfer welfare program PROGRESA that generally provides a safety net for the poorer populace.

Policies on Food and Agriculture

Mexico and Nigeria implemented policies to boost agricultural productivity and self-sufficiency through support for exports, low-cost purchase prices, infrastructure, and credit schemes. In the 1980s, both countries launched programs to increase domestic consumption and boost food production through land tenure reform, new authorities, and improved irrigation technology. In the 1990s, both countries continued to implement programs to increase productivity and profitability of agricultural products through modernizing marketing systems and encouraging competitiveness.

Mexico's Policies on Food and Agriculture

Mexico implemented agricultural programs that focused on increasing exports, enhancing productivity and profitability, offering income support, and providing vulnerable populations with access to nutritional supplements. The policies and implementations through various programs are presented in this section and how they evolved due to economic reasons.

In 1970, large producer in northern areas of Mexico received support to encourage agricultural exports which provided foreign exchange needed to finance industrialization and irrigation projects primarily. Basic food crops were sold by the government through

Compañía Nacional de Susistencias Populares (CONASUPO) in retail outlets at low purchase prices (Merrill & Miró, 1996).

In 1971, a law was enacted in response to the decline in staple output in Mexico, which was caused by reduced public investment in rural areas. This law granted ejidos the authority to expand their activities beyond basic crop cultivation and engage in sectors such as mining, forestry, fishing, agro-industry, commerce, and tourism (Merrill & Miró, 1996). The government increased producer prices and government spending to support rain-fed production by small producers (Merrill & Miró, 1996).

A similar project in Mexico with more features; the Sistema Alimentario Mexicano (SAM) was initiated in 1980 in favor of domestic consumption. Subsidized "baskets" of basic foods were supplied to about 19 million undernourished people through CONASUPO retail outlets (FAO, 2016). The state's guaranteed price for corn and beans under SAM were increased, low interest credits provided to basic staples producers; a cut in crop insurance rates, protection of producers' income against failed harvest through "shared risks" were provided. Concentrated use of the land in the livestock industry freeing abandoned land (tierras ociosas) for expanded cultivation, irrigation and storage facilities of harvests were improved.

SAM program was cancelled in 1982 because it was directly financed by oil resources—a misalignment with the structural adjustment program besides the oil and debt crisis, it was replaced by the National Food Program (PRONAL) in 1983 which had similar objectives but with fewer resources (Barquera, Rivera-Dommarco, & Gasca-Garcia, 2001).

The National Program for Comprehensive Rural Development (PRONADRI) in Mexico lasted from 1983 to 1988 to achieve food self-sufficiency and raise the standard of living of the peasants through participation of rural communities in the definition and orientation of their development and to make the outcome a guide for policy making but the program was cancelled due to structural adjustment program (Francisco Herrera Tapia, 2009).

Reformation and modernization of Agriculture in Mexico began in 1988 until 1994, through reduction of credit costs, rooting out corruption and inefficiency in agricultural institutions, increment of guaranteed prices for certain products and increased investment in agriculture (FAO, 2016).

In Mexico, reform of the land tenure system to attract private investment to agriculture was implemented between 1990 and 1994. Two programs within 1990–2000 were set up to increase productivity and profitability of agricultural products (Francisco Herrera Tapia, 2009). In 1991, the Support and Services for Agricultural Marketing (ASERCA) was created to make Mexican agricultural production system competitive and to promote the internal and external marketing of medium and large producers of grains and oilseeds.

The direct field support program PROCAMPO in Mexico was created to cushion the changes in the ejido system, to encourage internal and external competitiveness; to provide income support to basic crops producers and modernize the marketing system for globalization of rural production but eligibility requirement began to change after 1994.

FAO created the Pesca y Alimentación Program in Mexico (PESA) –the special program for food security in Mexico in 1994 by increasing the productivity of small farmers by introducing relatively simple, inexpensive, and sustainable technological changes (Tapia, 2009) with a focus on grains and oilseeds through cash transfers to farmers on a per hectare basis. Also, ALIANZA program was set up in Mexico, in 1996, to increase investment and productivity in the agricultural sector without distorting production incentives and protection against austerity measures (Cord & Wodon, 2001).

In 1995, the LICONSA, a social milk supply program was designed in Mexico to subsidize fortified milk to over 8 million less privileged across the country (FAO, 2016). Grants payments to producers of some crops in surplus areas, and rural development programs were designed to for human capital development by strengthening rural enterprises and organizations, enhancing social capital and supporting capital investments (Tapia, 2009).

In 1998, the PROGRESA program included cash transfers to families for balanced diet under the condition that children aged 5 years or younger and breastfeeding mothers attended nutrition monitoring clinics where the children's growth was measured. The program also provided nutritional supplements to fulfill 20 percent of the daily calorie intake and meet 100 percent of the micronutrient requirements for children, pregnant women, and lactating women (Levine, 2007).

By 2001, the mode of payment under PESA in Mexico was changed from bank cheques to debit cards. Payments were increased for producers with less than five hectares in non-irrigated areas (Rosenzweig, 2003) while the Incentivo Complementario al Ingreso

Objetivo was set up to ensure a minimum income for small and medium-scale grain and oilseed farmers by providing them with a payment that covered the difference between a target income and the market price confirmed by the Agricultural Marketing Support and Services Agency (ASERCA) (FAO, 2016). Minimum levels of compensation were created for small farmers after major catastrophic events and insurance programs were designed for farmers, livestock producers, aquaculture farmers (FAO, 2016).

In late 2005, the Mexican government introduced the contract farming and Rural Supply Program in Mexico with the aim of promoting the marketing of sorghum in Tamaulipas for a period of three years (Echanove, 2013). In 2007, the Programa de Abasto Rural (Rural Supply Program) set minimum fixed prices for small farmers' produce and supplied national soup kitchens nationwide to strengthen food security for the most vulnerable population, in line with the Sin Hambre Strategy (FAO, 2016).

In 2007, school feeding programs targeted overweight and undernourished students. New meal standards were implemented, limiting sugar and fat. Nutrition education was introduced for kids and parents. Starting in 2008, import tariffs on food and fertilizers were lifted during the global food crisis. DICONSA facilitated the purchase of essential food items without subsidies to reduce prices for consumers (Echanove, 2013) and (FAO, 2016). DICONSA initiated a pilot program to facilitate cash transfers and savings accounts for beneficiaries of the Food Supply Program. This program aimed to distribute 734,000 new Sin Hambre cards, enabling families to buy 19 nutritious food items at DICONSA stores (FAO, 2016). In 2007, school feeding programs targeted overweight and undernutrition through nutrition education to children and parents. Also, new nutrition standards for meals, which included restrictions on sugar and fat content were introduced (FAO, 2016).

Under the development plan in 2009, the Mexican government launched the Strategic Project (National Strategy) for protected agriculture under the Support Program for Investments in Equipment and Infrastructure which helped to create growth (Wu, Hettinga, & Pascual, 2018).

In 2013, the Mexican government initiated the National Crusade Against Hunger (Sin Hambre) and its primary goals were to ensure access to food, healthcare, education, and housing for those facing extreme poverty and food insecurity. The campaign also aimed to eradicate acute malnutrition in children, minimize post-harvest food losses, and encourage community involvement in achieving these objectives (FAO, 2016). Mexico

implemented various programs to facilitate investments in equipment and infrastructure, improve agricultural income, manage risks and prevent issues, enhance capacity development, promote technological innovation, support rural extension services, and ensure the sustainability of natural resources (Wu et al, 2018) and took the lead in implementing innovative measures to combat overweight, obesity, and diabetes by introducing a 10 percent tax on sugary beverages and an 8 percent tax on "junk food." Additionally, they implemented new regulations on food advertising and labeling to prevent and control these health issues (FAO, 2016).

In 2014, the program Sin Hambre was widely reformed and renamed PROAGRO Productivo to reduce distortions and improve its effectiveness; subsidies were paid to eligible growers based on actual production but limited to MXN\$100 000 (US\$7,750) per crop cycle (FAO, 2016). In 2015, protection structures were promoted to be used mainly for production of tomatoes, cucumbers, strawberries, peppers, and eggplants. (Wu et al, 2018). The "Program for the promotion of consumption and distribution of fishery and aquaculture products" started as well. In 2016, In 2016, a total of 4937 soup kitchens supplied two adequate meals to 592 440 people daily (FAO, 2016).

Incentives were provided to agri-food companies for integration of producers to generate economies of scale, and create greater added value along the value chain to benefit producers; subsidies were made available for production under protection structures and per project subsidy rates for macro-tunnels and shade houses were increased to promote large-scale operations in these types of production and subsidized irrigation projects expanded to 116,607 hectares in 2014 (SAGARPA, 2014).

In summary, Mexico implemented agricultural programs to support rural development and food security by promoting exports, increasing productivity and profitability, providing income support, and ensuring access to nutritional supplements for vulnerable populations. Some programs were affected by economic crises and economic regulations, but other programs were created after the difficult periods.

Nigeria's Policies on Food and Agriculture

In the mid-1970s, after a period of drought in the Sahel region of Nigeria, policies were created to reduce importation and slow down rising food prices such as 'back to earth mobilization program' (Forest, 1981).

In Northern Nigeria, the Integrated Agriculture Development Project (IADP) started in 1972; aided by the World Bank, infrastructural facilities such as roads, schools, water supply were provided adequately and timely in the rural areas. By 1974, the projects had expanded to four northern states as pilot schemes. In 1976, the River Basin Development Projects (RBDP) were created to boost economic potentials of the existing water bodies through irrigation and fishery, hydroelectric power generation and domestic water supply and multiple cropping patterns. Also, “Operation Feed the Nation” rolled out as a national agricultural extension and mobilization program instituted by the military government of Nigeria in 1976 for self-sufficiency in food crop production through propagandas in schools and publicity. Credit schemes, subsidized fertilizer distribution (Anikpo, 1985), farm inputs, land and machineries including aircraft for pesticides spreading were distributed to farmers.

In Nigeria, the Green Revolution Program (GRP) was initiated in 1980, encompassing various measures such as a input supply, food production plan, and subsidy, special commodity development program, review of the Agricultural Credit Guarantee Scheme, and increased resource allocation to Regional Agricultural Development Authorities (RBDAs) to expand livestock and fish production.

Furthermore, the National Agricultural Land Development Authority (NALDA) was established in 1992 with the aim of supporting land development, promoting efficient utilization of rural land and resources, and enhancing opportunities for profitable employment, self-sufficiency, food security, and commercial production among rural communities (Hussaini, 2014). Additionally, Nigeria implemented the initial National Fadama Development Project (NFDP-1) in the early 1990s, which was designed to facilitate the adoption of affordable and effective irrigation technology through a community-driven development approach and active stakeholder participation, with support from the World Bank.

Furthermore, Nigeria initiated the 'Go back to land' program, which aimed to encourage all Nigerians to engage in farming activities in order to enhance food production and increase the overall food supply. (Hussaini, 2014).

In 1989, Agricultural Development Projects (ADP) began in Nigeria to benefit the small farmer/rural dwellers through integrated rural development strategy in its operations, hence, extension services; Training and Visit (T and V) system, technical input support and rural infrastructure to increase agricultural productivity through small-scale farmers

(Hussaini, 2014). Rural infrastructural development and expansion of River Basins Project in Nigeria were ongoing in Nigeria to conserve enough water for irrigated lands, to increase food and fish production and hydroelectric power generation (Hussaini, 2014).

Meanwhile, the Growth Enhancement Scheme (GES) farmers started in Nigeria. Registered farmers were supplied with subsidized fertilizers, seeds and a new higher yielding crop variety e.g., Cocoa, Rice (Faro 42 and 44); the Nigerian Incentive-based Risk Sharing system for Agricultural Lending (NIRSAL) set up credit guarantees in partnership with Central Bank and Bankers Committee. The Bank of Agriculture was partially recapitalized with N15 billion, credits from commercial banks and special funds were disbursed to support farmers as well, staple crop processing zones were designated, and production sites set up along with concession of federal warehouses and storage assets to farmers.

In 2002, National Special Program on Food Security (NSPFS) was launched in Nigeria to increase food production and eliminate rural poverty through research and extension services and promotion of simple technologies for self-sufficiency. In 2003, the project continued but included improved irrigation, machinery, and crop varieties to boost agricultural productivity, integrated rural development program was launched to cause rural-urban migration (Hussaini, 2014). In 2003, improved root and tuber varieties were supplied to about 350,000 farmers to increase productivity and income (Hussaini, 2014) in Nigeria.

In summary, Nigeria implemented agricultural programs to support rural development and food security, focusing on productivity, income support, and self-sufficiency. Efforts were made to provide infrastructure, credit schemes, and technical support and toward 2018, the policy focused on providing farm inputs.

In conclusion, both countries aimed to boost agricultural productivity and self-sufficiency through export support, affordable purchase prices, infrastructure, and credit schemes. In the 1980s, they launched programs to improve food production and consumption via land tenure reform, new authorities, and irrigation systems. In the 1990s, both nations continued with modernizing marketing systems and promoting competitiveness to increase productivity and profitability. Toward 2018, both countries prioritize farm inputs under various programs, but Mexico also focused on providing food kitchens for the poor.

Policies on Education

Both countries began with different approaches in designing plans and policies for education, even the purposes and targets differ as well. In Mexico, the focus was on expanding educational opportunities and improving the quality of education at all levels, from primary to higher education. The creation of CONACYT and the introduction of a credit system for undergraduate programs aimed to support the development of high-level manpower in the country. In contrast, Nigeria focused on increasing enrolment ratios in schools and providing scholarships to expand teacher-training colleges. The state took responsibility for primary education, while the federal government concentrated on financing higher education.

Mexico's Policy on Education

The policies in Mexico show that the government focused on adult education and over the years, shifted focus to education quality in primary and secondary while scholarships were offered abundantly to tertiary institutions.

In 1970, several education initiatives were implemented in Mexico; preparatory schools were extended till to three years, replacing the descriptive grading system with a numerical scale, and expanding open education. The open education system allowed individuals to take examinations and receive certificates or degrees at any level without the requirement of attending traditional schooling (IQAS, 2015), and free primary textbooks were made available. The National Council of Science and Technology (CONACYT) was created to offer scholarships to postgraduates including foreigners, postdoctoral positions and sabbatical leaves.

In 1972, a credit system for undergraduate program was designed in Mexico and until 1980, student to teacher ratio at primary level ranged from 44.16 to 46.3 students per teacher (UNESCO, 2017). Along with the creation of the National Education System of Adults. Meanwhile, urban industrialization accelerated in Mexico during the year 1975 causing more students to drop out of school to find work and government expenditure focused more on secondary education. In 1973, the maestro or professor title at higher teacher training institutions replaced the title of "licenciate".

In 1976, new teaching positions in higher education were opened through the creation of the National Metropolitan University (UAM) in Mexico City. The capacities of higher institutions were also expanded to accommodate a growing educational demand of the masses. Federal expenditure in education increased by 225 percent, with a positive growth of total enrolment by 38 percent (Centro de Estudios Educativo, 1976) (Morales-Gomez & Torres, 1990). The following year in Mexico, In 1978, Mexico implemented a policy providing one year of free preschool education. Additionally, two colleges introduced a technical upper secondary education system, specifically designed for students not pursuing higher education. The first pedagogical university (Universidad Pedagógica Nacional – UPN) was established to train teachers and thereby expanding the number of teachers (IQAS, 2015).

In the year 1977, the Coordination of Educational Services for the Zones in Mexico was created for the depressed and marginalized Groups while in Nigeria, a centralized control and funding of education policy started, as well as the National Board for Technical Education (NBTE).

In 1980, spending on tertiary education increased to produce highly skilled workers but the stage of development of Mexico did not correspond to the policy. Requirement for preschool and primary school teachers extended to bachillerato for admission. Also, during the 1980s, the Telebachillerato system was introduced with the aim of delivering upper secondary education to rural or geographically isolated regions that were difficult to reach (IQAS, 2015).

In 1981, the National Adult Literacy Program (PRONALF) was created for people over 15 years of age to become literate and make use of reading, writing and elementary calculus (SEP, 1981), a decentralized version was later set up and grouped in the sectors coordinated by the Ministry of Education Public, with a legal personality and its own patrimony.

During the debt crisis in Mexico, around 1983, education expenditure reduced until 1988 but the cut was not equal across the levels of education; the same level of spending was maintained on higher education thereby promoting tertiary education much earlier ahead of its industrial development stage. Therefore, the supply of high skilled labor did not correspond to the demand of the labor market because Mexico's most important industries at the time were labor intensive industries and oil sector which demands for skilled labor is relatively small. Although the oil sector required skilled workers, it is

capital intensive in nature, therefore the demand for workers was low (Kim & Hong, 2010).

Meanwhile, government expenditure on primary education in Mexico increased during the 90s as basic educational reform and efforts were made to achieve efficiency by combating repetition in primary schools in the year 1990. Between 1991 – 2003 in Mexico, students to teacher ratio in primary education reduced further.

In 1992, basic education administration, labor relations, financial management, and teacher training were transferred to the State Departments of Education occurred, resulting in a reduction of autonomy for school administrators, as primary and secondary programs remained under national control (IQAS, 2015). Therefore, allocation of funds went directly to the states, but this arrangement was eventually reversed within the same year through the amendment of Fiscal Coordination Law by the congress (Ornelas, 2014)

In 1993, the General Law of Education was enacted, and it enforced nine years of compulsory education which would include six years of primary, three years of secondary schooling. The law remodeled primary and secondary education curriculum and considered the needs of special education students by merging special education with regular education (AHPRS, 2020) (IQAS, 2015).

The total public spending per student in Mexico increased steadily till 1994 (Lopez-Acevedo & Salinas, 2000). In 1994, the National Center for the Evaluation of Higher Education (CENEVAL) was created to evaluate the knowledge of secondary and upper secondary graduates. In 1996, the Secretaría de Educación Pública (SEP) established entrance examination to higher secondary programs in Mexico (IQAS, 2015).

Under PROGRESA in 1997 the federal government promoted the expansion of the educational infrastructure and health services. Cash transfer of educational scholarships was made to families for each child between the third year of primary school and the third year of secondary school. The scholarships increased as level of schooling advances; it was higher for girls from high school and was conditional on school attendance (Licona, Navarret, & Zamudio, 2019).

In 1998, total public expenditure on education in Mexico increased slightly and by 2000, the responsibilities of sustaining the education sector were shared among the three tiers of public administration as proscribed by the 1999 constitution. The federal and the state governments are to finance and manage their own tertiary institutions including teacher training colleges and federal secondary schools across the 36 states (about 104 as

of 2013). All other public secondary schools are managed and financed by state governments through the state ministries of education.

From 2004-2014 in Mexico, Student to teacher ratio, primary education increased slightly increased within the range of 28.47 - 27.69. In year 2004, the Mexican Congress set into action the plan to make one year of preschool education mandatory.

During this year, preschool education in Mexico was reformed and thus began to require two compulsory years and the Secondary School Integral Reform (Reforma Integral de la Secundaria) was also implemented by designing a new curriculum, increasing duration of classes and innovations in teaching methods were introduced.

The full-time school program in Mexico, known as Programa Escuelas de Tiempo Completo (PETC), was initiated in the 2007-2008 academic year. Its purpose was to enhance the learning opportunities for students in basic education by extending the school day to eight hours. This program offers an innovative and adaptable pedagogical approach that encompasses six core areas of focus. Its objective is to provide a comprehensive education and foster the development of lifelong competencies (Gómez Zermeño, Flores Fahara, & Aleman de la Garza, 2012)

In the year 2008 in Mexico, Constructing Yourself, Construye T program was designed and implemented through the Secretariat of Higher Secondary Education (SEMS), in collaboration with the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) with an objective to strengthen the capacities of the school and develop socio-emotional skills in the students, (students who are enrolled in the upper secondary education modality, their ages range between 15 and 18 years) and thereby improving the school environment in the participating high school campuses. Also, to improve the comprehensive education of high school students and strengthen prevention of risk behaviors, such as violence, addictions or unwanted pregnancy, which can truncate their educational trajectory (Secretaría de Gobernación, 2019).

In the same year, preschool education in Mexico was further changed to require completion of three compulsory years (ages of three to five). In order to incorporate a new curriculum into primary education for the last year of preschool and the first year of secondary school; the primary education process was reviewed again in 2008 (IQAS, 2015). The following year 2009, English and Information and Communications Technology were implemented as compulsory subjects in basic school

In 2010, the General Examination for the Graduation from Upper Secondary Education (Examen General para el Egreso de la Educación Media Superior – EGREMS) became a requirement for Grade 12 students to evaluate the general ability of a student (IQAS, 2015). In this period, the government expenditure on education in Mexico as a percentage of GDP in 2010 was 5.2%.

In 2011, the technological baccalaureate was reformed and the Secretariat de Educación Pública developed the Mexican Qualifications Framework (Marco Mexicano de Cualificaciones – MMC), a technical education to improve education at all levels; the system offers indigenous and special education, training for worker, and adult education (IQAS, 2015).

In 2012, the upper secondary education became a constitutional obligation in Mexico from the 2012-13 school year, along with the provision for funding to promote completion rates. Also, the National Institute for the Evaluation of Education (INEE) established reform to make merit a prerequisite for the teaching profession began to address a malpractice being perpetrated among retiring teachers to bequeath their post to their offspring, with or without teacher credentials, also the position is sold to the best bidder. The reform further addressed the problem of corruption in teacher-hiring practices, compelled teachers to be accountable basing their pay, promotions, and tenure on their performance in standardized exams. The reform of the act initiated a census of teachers, students, and schools to sieve out ghost workers and absentee teachers. Also, it re-centralized many decisions and duties (Reimers, 2020).

An obstacle to the reform was attempted by the SNTE's leadership to retain its power, likewise the dissent teachers' group, National Coordinator of Education Workers (CNTE), states and local legislatures. The federal government responded by jailing the labor boss who had a notorious track record of corruption and wealth.

In 2013, the CNTE went on a nationwide strike in Mexico and staged very disruptive protests. Consequently, concessions were made to the General Education Act and in the constitution, amendments were made to law for the National Institute for Educational Evaluation (Ornelas 2014). The government made changes to public administration in the education sector through the Programa Sectorial de Educación (PSE) to establish objectives, strategies, goals and action plans. It aimed to develop the human potential of Mexicans with quality education; by strengthening the quality of upper secondary and higher education and vocational training to contribute to the development

of Mexico. The objectives also included a wider coverage of education, inclusion and equity and an intent of more attention to physical and sports activities, enhancing studies in art and culture, science and technology would be pathways to transform Mexico in a knowledge society (Ornelas, 2014).

In the same year, an approach of dual training system which combines company-based training and a part-time vocational school for apprentices was implemented. This training offers a benefit of readily available jobs upon completion of training and fully qualified skilled workers to the companies. The apprenticeship or dual TVET system combines theory and practice embedded in a real-life work environment and the approach is recognized worldwide (Valiente, López-Fogués, & Fuentes, 2020).

In 2014, the Secretaría de Educación Pública (SEP) organized symposiums; first of its kind, between the authorities and the teachers to review the educational model on January 15, 2014 and bring the central government within the reach of educators in a close setting to create mutual understanding with the basic education teachers, teachers' colleges, school principals and supervisors through the forums (SEP, 2014 as cited in Ornelas, 2014).

Furthermore, the program aiming to promote inclusion and educational equity was established to strengthen the capabilities of schools and educational services catering to indigenous children, migrants, students with special educational needs, and those with outstanding abilities. It prioritizes telesecondary and unitary multi-grade schools by providing financial and academic support and providing better to disadvantaged schools (OECD, 2018).

A reform of education in 2014 led to creation of a program called *Movimiento Contra el Abandono Escolar*; *Movement against School Dropout*. The program prioritizes publicity, participatory planning, and community outreach to ensure that students stay in upper secondary and to reduce the occurrence of social exclusion. Distribution of handbooks (digital and hardcopies) and yearly workshops were achieved under the program. There have been reports of significant impacts of the movement in reducing dropout, but with reinforced monitoring mechanisms to ensure the efficacy of the program (OECD, 2018).

The government offered scholarships to disadvantaged students through the National Scholarship Program to support primary, secondary, and tertiary education. An

online platform was developed to provide information on over 200 different Scholarships (OECD, 2018).

In 2015, Escuelas al Certificados de Infraestructura Educativa Nacional (CIEN), the National Certificates of Education Infrastructure for Schools program was initiated in 2015 and it aims at improving school infrastructure. Assessment of schools are carried out to ensure improvement in the structural safety, health services, furniture, internet services online facilities and physical equipment, drinking system, accessibility, administrative offices, multiple-use spaces and general operating conditions across all levels of education to cover 33,000 schools and thereby benefitting over 6 million students, out of which 1 in 3 belong to indigenous communities (OECD, 2018).

During the year 2015 in Mexico, fund for Education and Payroll Operating Expenses was set up in 2015 (National Fund of Allocations for the Teachers' Payroll and Operative Expenditure, FONE, Fondo de Aportaciones para la Nómina Educativa y Gasto Operativo, 2015). Education Performance Appraisal (Evaluación del Desempeño) for teachers in primary, lower secondary and upper secondary education was set up in 2015 as well (OECD, 2018). In this period as well, student to teacher ratio in primary education fell slightly to 26.93 in 2015 and continued to reduce to 26.55 in 2017.

In the same year, Mexico introduced the Estrategia Nacional para la Formación Continua Docente which is the national strategy for continuous training of teachers in primary and secondary education. Teachers whose qualifications fall below average in teacher appraisals (Evaluación del Desempeño) are to receive skill training under this program. The Fondo de Aportaciones para la Nómina Educativa y Gasto Operativo (FONE) which is the national fund allocations for teachers' payroll and operative expenditure was created within the same year (OECD, 2018). In 2016, the national scholarship program catered to an additional 30% of students in public schools. By 2017, various scholarships had been provided to 7.7 million (OECD, 2018).

Programa La Escuela al Centro; the School at the Centre Program began between 2015 and 2016 to ensure schools have principals who effectively exercise their leadership, teachers who improve their teaching methods, supervisors who have the resources to provide technical-pedagogical support to the schools and have ability to adjust to needs. Parents have opportunity to participate in an active and informed way to contribute to the improvement of education and classes dedicate at least 85 percent of the class hours to effective teaching time. Six lines of action are being employed to achieve the mandate of

the program with reduced bureaucracy being the number one step and strengthening of the School Technical Councils for monitoring; creating active social participation, better time management which involved maximizing summer vacation period among other actions (Mayer, 2016).

In 2017, a new educational model for compulsory education tagged as the “Educating for Freedom and Creativity Program” to define Mexico’s education goals for the 21st century and it encompasses learning objectives and the curriculum of basic and upper secondary education. With focus on pedagogical methods to develop students’ competences rather than rote learning; greater autonomy for schools, resources and support (with more priority to the most disadvantaged schools and students), reduced bureaucratic procedures, professionalism and continuous professional development; periodic assessment; equity and inclusion in the system. The new curriculum for basic education was launched in the 2017/18 school year (OECD, 2018).

In 2018, negotiations for teacher salaries shifted to the federal government and the National Educational Workers Union (SNTE). The goal was to enhance transparency and facilitate clear management and negotiation processes for teacher salaries. This change aimed to improve the overall system for determining and administering teacher compensation (OECD, 2018).

Nigeria’s Policy on Education

A glaring issue with Nigeria’s education is the high student to teacher ratio but many of the policies do address the problem. Most of the government efforts are centered around increasing the number of universities and rate of enrollment. Not much emphasis was put on the issue of quality besides adjusting the curriculum of primary school students. Also, the government attempted to generate a stream of revenue from companies to be used as funds for tertiary students.

In 1972, distance learning began in Nigeria (sandwich students or part-time students) to accommodate working students or those who could not gain admission into higher institutions. In 1974, the federal government of Nigeria eventually took over secondary education due to rampant poor performance of students in the final secondary examinations and also created the National Teachers Institute (Sunday & Kola, 2014) in preparation for the Universal Primary Education scheme and later took over academic

policies and administration of all universities in 1975 making universities non-autonomous. However, universities obtain funds from the state governments (regions at the time) while receiving subsidies from the Federal Government (Etim, 1976). Anti-intellectualism by the military regime permeated Nigeria in this era as demonstrated by the preceding head of state who dismissed striking lecturers from their jobs. The Universal Primary Education (UPE) expanded teacher-training institutions, seven new universities were established, terms of loans and scholarships to Nigerian students were improved, and investments in education increased in Nigeria (Ibukun, 1988).

Education policies were implemented to increase enrolment ratios in schools at all levels and expand teacher-training colleges by providing scholarships.

The state took responsibility for primary education to eradicate mass illiteracy and the federal government concentrated on financing higher education to achieve the production of high-level manpower. A manpower approach was implemented in educational planning through mass training of university and polytechnic graduates (Ibukun, 1988).

Between 1970-1977, student to teacher ratio in primary school education ranged between 34.08 and 34.79 students to one teacher by 1978. Students to teacher ratio in primary school education dropped slightly to 32.23 to 1. In 1971, the adult and non-formal education was created. Newly created states led to varying regulations of education. Eventually, voluntary agencies were disconnected, school management boards were created as well as a unified teaching service. The Universal Primary Education (UPE) was re-launched to make primary education free and compulsory throughout Nigeria but the curriculum concentrated on European content more than African content with subject areas emphasizing aspects that are irrelevant to the African context (Aboluwodi & Ibukun, 2010).

In Nigeria, the Unified Tertiary Matriculation Examination (UTME) began, issuing out application forms at a cost. School fees were increased in all universities in Nigeria which led to the insurrection of students in all tertiary institutions affiliated with National Union of Nigerian Students (NUNS). However, policemen and soldiers were unleashed to attack the agitated students and even other campuses that had not yet joined in the protests. Casualties and at least five deaths were recorded at the end of the incident (Madunagu, 2017).

The Nigerian constitution in 1979 split the control of post-primary, professional, technological and university education for the state government and teachers' salaries to

the local government but primary education remained the responsibility of both state and local government. During this time, student to teacher ratio in primary education rose to 33.86 and to 35.82 in 1980.

Students to teacher ratio increased in Nigeria from 35.27 in 1981 until it reached 44.1 in 1987. The free Universal Primary Education in Nigeria ended in 1981 because the federal government fully transferred responsibility to the states and local governments.

In 1984, a Nigerian military decree empowered government to sack lecturer, another decree placed priority on the education of the gifted and highly talented children in 1985 and the functions of the National Board for Technical Education (NBTE) were broadened to include accreditation of academic programs in all Technical and Vocational Education (TVE) institutions. By 1986, many state governments established adult education in Nigeria to improve adult literacy. The school calendar was changed and the link between Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) and the Nigerian Labor Congress (NLC) were removed to the discontent of the Academic Staff Union of the Universities and other non-elites who appalled the ability of government to impose vice-chancellors and sole administrators on the universities.

In 1988, a Nigerian military decree proscribed and prohibited the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) in Nigeria from participating in union activities (Fabunmi, 2005). The National Primary Education Commission (NPEC) was established as well as an independent national education fund to allocate fund to State Primary Education Boards other agencies responsible that manage special primary education projects. However, budget allocation to education and total capital allocations fell (Babalola, Lungwanga, & Adeyinka, 1999); (Olaniyan & Obadara, 2008) in this period while the National Mathematical Centre (NMC) was established to sustain interest in the Mathematical Sciences by conducting research activities and development of high-level personnel in mathematics for tertiary institutions in Nigeria.

In 1989, the federal government of Nigeria set up the Science and Technology Fund (STF) and the National Commission for Nomadic Education (NCNE) was established. However, general funding allocation per student by the government fell between 1975/76 and 1989/90 session while student to teacher ratio remained high at 41.18. During this period in Nigeria, a military decree lifted the ban on the Academic Staff Union of Universities, and the number of universities had expanded to 31. The Nigeria French Language Village was established in December 1991 as an Inter-University Centre

for French studies the National Commission for Mass Education (NMEC) was established to oversee the operations of adult education while allocations to tertiary education in this year remained stagnant.

The National Situation and Policy Analysis (SAPA) survey was conducted in 1992 and reports showed that study materials and facilities were insufficient and it reflected in the poor quality of education at all levels in Nigeria in this period (Oladipo, Adeosun, & Oni, 2009). Despite the situation, the policy implemented in the same year was the establishment of the Nigerian Arabic Language village, an inter-university center.

In Nigeria, the National Minimum Standards and Establishments of Institution Amendments in 1993 and a decree to allow non-governmental entities to found tertiary institution. Furthermore, under the Education Tax Decree 1993, Nigeria companies 100 staff size and more are required to contribute 2% of their pre-tax earnings to the Education Tax Fund for the funding of education at all levels for the restoration, rehabilitation, and consolidation of education in Nigeria.

In 1993, the Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria was created with a mandate to determine the standards of knowledge and skill requirement to be registered as teachers or related functions. Free primary education was provided, the National Primary Education Commission (NPEC) and funding of primary education were re-established to manage primary education via the national Primary Education Fund and further empowerment to recommend creation of private polytechnics and mono-technics in Nigeria.

Funds allocated by NPEC to the local governments through the SPEBs are used to finance teachers' salaries, allowances, and operating costs of the state primary education board. Secondary education, on the other hand, is provided free of tuition fees, although parents may still be responsible for various levies to cover the institutions' operational expenses.

Federal government took over ownership and financing of secondary schools and technical colleges and funded higher education along with state governments. All private institutions in the country charge tuition and boarding fees and therefore receive no public funds (World Data, 2006). Also, the Tertiary Education Trust Fund (the former Education Trust Fund (ETF)) was established under the Intervention Agency.

In Nigeria, by 1994, General Sani Abacha, the head of state, infringed upon academic freedom by detaining 534 individuals, including university professors, for expressing criticism toward the military regime. Moreover, the military regime's

mismanagement of national funds resulted in inadequate funding for universities, leading to financial constraints (Eribo, 1996). In 1995, the National Policy on Education required ratio was 1:40 but was at 37:1 (Olaniyan & Obadara, 2008). Regardless, student to teacher ratio in primary education was reduced to 22.78 from 41 in 1996.

In 1998, significant changes were implemented in the education sector in Nigeria. The minimum qualification for teaching was elevated to the National Certificate of Education (NCE) from the previous Teacher Grade II Certificate. Efforts were made to provide nomadic education for migrant ethnic groups, and institutions and universities of technology were established. Admission requirements for Nigerian universities were revised, with a focus on 60% science-based programs and 40% humanities, aiming to propel the country toward technological and industrial advancement. Additionally, the government diversified its sources of education funding, including the Education Tax Fund, and introduced the National Policy on Science and Technology to drive the development of indigenous technology (Taiwo & Agwu, 2016).

In 1999, Nigeria introduced Universal Basic Education to enhance educational access and standards. The program's objective is to provide free and compulsory basic education for all children, ensuring universal access to a complete 9-year formal education.

This includes six years of primary education and three years of junior secondary education. Furthermore, the program emphasizes the importance of Childhood Care Development and Education (ECCDE) to promote early childhood education. The main goals of the program are to reduce school drop-outs and enhance the quality, relevance, and effectiveness of education.

The student to teacher ratio continued to reduce from 39.09 to 31.01 students per teacher in 1990 but increased in Nigeria from 35.27 in 1981 until it reached 44.1 in 1987. In 1982, Mexico's expenditure on education increased while in Nigeria, the 6-3-3-4 education approach began.

By 2002, student to teacher ratio in primary education had increased from 39.01 to 40.28 and Nigeria's first open university, National Open University (NOUN) became fully functional (Adesoye & Amusa, 2011). In 2003, student to teacher ratio for primary education was 34.88 but continued to increase to 46.09 in 2007. Information and Communications Technology (ICT) in school system under the National Policy on Education was revised. French Language was included in the primary and secondary school curriculum as a second official language.

Primary education remained free and a minimum number of subjects were made mandatory to be taken by primary school candidates in 2003, which include one language of the environment, English, Arabic, French, Mathematics, Agriculture/Home Economics, Science, Social Studies, Religious Knowledge and Citizenship Education, Cultural & Creative Arts (Handicraft, Drawing, Music and Cultural Activities), Computer Education, Physical and Health Education.

In 2004, the Nigerian military Decree 41 was renamed as the Nomadic Education Act to provide education to the nomadic population, the socially excluded, the educationally disadvantaged and migrant groups in Nigeria. Concurrently, the Tertiary Education Trust Fund was created to enforce, manage and disburse tax to public tertiary institutions in Nigeria (TETFUND, 2021).

In 2005, the Unified Tertiary Matriculation Examination (UTME); an entrance examination, was introduced into universities in Nigeria which extracts a significant fee from each student to re-verify the quality of student's knowledge after taking JAMB examination. The cost of the form for this exam rose up to up to the level of N 3550. Early childhood care was introduced into the curriculum department of the faculty of education at only one university (World Data, 2007).

A survey was ongoing in Nigeria through the National Primary Education Commission (NPEC) and the findings established that the rehabilitation and renovation exercise for primary schools will require 80.54 million Nigerian naira. There is no record of such funds being disbursed to follow up on this finding.

The administration of Goodluck Jonathan, in 2010, embarked on the creation of universities such that between 2010 – 2015, a total of nine federal universities were created in addition to the existing thirty-four federal universities to increase access to quality education as well as to ensure that each state of the federation has a federal institution. By the year 2012 in Nigeria, the share of federal budget invested on education received a boost. The student teacher ratio primary education dropped to 37.55 and the total public spending on education in Nigeria increased in absolute terms between 2009 and 2013, especially at the state and local government levels (World Bank, 2015).

In 2004, the Nigerian government introduced the Tertiary Education Trust Fund (TETFUND) to oversee the allocation and distribution of education tax to tertiary institutions owned by the government. This initiative aimed to address the dilapidation of educational infrastructure resulting from neglect and insufficient resource allocation. The

fund is financed by a 2% tax on the assessable profit of companies involved in petroleum operations (Upstream). The funds in the Trust are allocated among universities, polytechnics, and colleges of education in the ratio of 2:1:1 respectively. Penalties, including fines and potential imprisonment, were established for non-compliance with the act. Meanwhile, during this period, the cost of applying for and taking the UTME (Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board) examination continued to rise.

In Nigeria, the crises of recession, decline of crude oil price, Boko Haram insurgency and endemic corruption in 2015 forced the government to slash education budgets. Tuition fees increased, basic infrastructure deteriorated, including electricity and water supplies. Scholarship funds for foreign study were in shortage, placing constraints on international student flows from Nigeria.

The implementation of a two-tier system in science technical schools introduced nationally certified programs that culminate in the acquisition of National Technical/Commercial Certificates (NTC/NCC) and Advanced National Technical/Business Certificates. The lower-level program, which lasts three years following Junior Secondary School, is considered equivalent to the Senior Secondary Certificate by the Joint Admission and Matriculation Board. The advanced program requires two years of prior industrial work experience and one year of full-time study, in addition to holding the NTT/NCC qualification. The National Business and Technical Examinations Board (NABTEB) is responsible for the issuance of these certificates. (WES, 2017).

The establishment of Vocational Enterprise Institutions (VEIs) and Innovation Enterprise Institutions (IEIs) aimed to deliver job-oriented education within the private sector. VEIs provide secondary and post-secondary level programs, while as of 2017, the National Board for Technical Education listed 137 approved IEIs and 72 approved VEIs on its website.

By the year 2017 in Nigeria, the cost of UTME jamb form had increased to 7500 naira while the cost of post UTME form varied in different universities ranging from N2000-7000 making it difficult for students to afford. During this year, the Federal Ministry of Education inaugurated a seven-person committee to probe the use of grants for 'take-off' projects in 12 universities established between 2011 and 2013 to meet capital expenditure and operational recurrent expenditure and to rebuild trust in the university system (Opara, 2017).

In 2018, the World Bank conducted a survey of 435 private and public primary schools, and a total of 2,968 teachers. The findings showed that a teacher was absent from class for approximately 25% of the scheduled teaching time causing a deficit of 33% in the teaching time scheduled on the timetable.

In conclusion, Nigeria's education system is plagued by a prominent problem of high student-to-teacher ratios, and although some policies have been implemented to address the issue, the focus has been primarily on increasing the number of universities and enrollment rates. Unlike Mexico, quality of education has not received enough attention, except for minor curriculum adjustments for primary school students. The government has also attempted to generate revenue from companies to support tertiary students' funds.

Policies on Employment and Income, Violence Deterring and Conflict

The policies on employment and income in the 70s in this section are mostly labor laws while the policies from 80s to early 90s are closely linked to the events in the periods of debt crisis, and neoliberal policies implemented in Mexico and Nigeria. Some of the policies are designed to cushion the discomfort caused by the structural adjustment program, or to control inflation and manage debt crisis, through various policies that affect taxes, wages, and even union laws. All these factors directly affect employment, availability of jobs, investment and earnings.

On violence in Mexico and Nigeria, a brief description of the events and government action and policies are all part of the policies on violence. For most part, the cases of violence in Mexico are related to political unrest due to marginalization in the 70s, till 90s and drug trafficking. In place of policies, government action stands out as the solution to every violent occurrence except in few cases.

Policies on violence compiled for the case of Nigeria comprises of extra-judicial killings, one – sided government violence against citizens, terrorist attacks and religious killings. From 70s to 90s, policies on violence are not accounted for because none were made due to continuous political instability. In fact, the Nigerian government itself perpetrated many violent acts through coup d'état and unjustified killings of movement spearheads that were seeking redress to environmental degradation and poverty. Also,

misguided government actions to fight religious uprisings that backfired and grew into a monstrous insurgence which led to massive deaths and destruction.

Policies on Employment and Income

To solve the problem of unemployment, Mexico and Nigeria implemented various programs and policies, including labor reforms, business subsidies, and employment programs. Mexico provided support to unemployed workers and adopted counter-cyclical fiscal policies, while Nigeria introduced tax and trade incentives, as well as programs such as SURE-P and the National Enterprise Development Program to encourage job creation. Both countries launched initiatives to promote infrastructure development and employment opportunities. However, the prevalence of low wages and widespread outsourcing highlights the need for further action to address these challenges.

Mexico's Policies on Employment and Income

The Mexican government has implemented various policies and initiatives to improve the country's economy and address challenges caused by the global economic crisis. The measures include expanding employment programs, providing subsidies for businesses, reducing social security contributions, implementing counter-cyclical fiscal policy, increasing support for unemployed workers and poor families, and introducing labor reforms.

In 1970, to attract investment and maintain low labor costs, Mexico introduced a relatively low minimum wage of 24 pesos (equivalent to US\$2 per day in 1969) (Cardenas Sánchez, 2016). A new Mexican Federal Labor Law became effective the same year that increased benefits granted to employees. Also, companies which are located outside towns or cities around three kilometers away, are required to supply housing to employees if no regular transportation service are not available. This applies also to companies located within towns or cities with a staff up to 100 employees.

Ample bonuses, premiums, employee profit participation (a percentage of a company's profit) and holidays were stipulated as employees' rights. Companies cannot act as intermediaries for employment and must be classified as employers when they are hire workers on behalf of other companies (Sandoval, 1970). In 1973, minimum wages were changed from biannual to annual convention (Bazdresch & Levy, 1991).

The following year in 1974, employers in every company or establishment in Mexico were mandated to have a staff that is comprised of at least, 90% Mexican workers, at least. The rule applied to technicians and professionals as well unless there are none in a specific specialty, in which case the employer (Sandoval, 1970) may temporarily employ foreign workers, but must maintain the ten percent quota. The employer and foreign workers are required to train Mexican workers in that particular specialty. Companies' doctors are required to be Mexican, but these laws do not apply to senior positions such as directors, administrators, and general managers (SGSSP, 1974).

In 1975, the average real industrial wage in Mexico increased by 150 percent between 1952 and 1975 as a result of the devaluations in the 1950s which triggered inflations and impacted relative prices leading to an increase in real wages even up till 1975 (Bortz & Aguila, 2005).

In 1976, stabilizing policies were implemented in Mexico, therefore, minimum wages were set according to calculated desired changes in prices and subject to budget adjustments (Fairris, 2015). A reform of tax system led to the introduction of value added tax and collection carried out at federal level (Ondetti, 2017), impacting the purchasing power of the people. This was during Lopez Portillo's "sexenio", when policies were favorable to urban workers such that employment grew consistently above average level, however, the real wage fell slightly, the middle classes were delighted by price subsidies and an exaggerated (overvalued) exchange rate (Bazdresch & Levy, 1991).

A huge output growth increased employment in the informal sector and in maquiladoras (Carrillo, 1990; Rendón & Salas, 1993); (Rendón & Salas, 1993). Informalization of labor in key sectors of the Mexican industry (Telmex, Pemex, Ford/Volkswagen) became rapid, eroding traditional corporatism; dissolution of collective bargaining contracts, and labor unions, thereby giving more power to the firms and government (Middlebrook, 1989) (Peters, 1996).

During the first two years of the oil boom in Mexico; 1978 and 1979, government expenditure increased by 13.7% in 1978, then by 14.1% in 1979 (and grew continually at high rates through 1981) to expand aggregate demand. Controls were placed on public enterprise prices and nominal wages based on a rationale that there is independence between the inflation, aggregate demand, and the budget deficit (Bazdresch & Levy, 1991). In 1981, nominal wages in Mexico were increased when the price of oil fell and it led to the economic problems (Bazdresch & Levy, 1991).

In 1982, minimum wages in Mexico were protected from compensation, discount, or reduction, except in the case of mortgage payment, which was however, limited to 1% of the salary. Wages increased in 1982, but after the collapse of oil revenues, real wages crashed along with a long-term impact on income distribution due to the implementation of wage and labor practices as a part of neoliberal policies, concurrently with an increasing differentiation of the manufacturing labor market (Casar, Fazio, Kosteci, & Sanguinetti, 1989); (Márquez & Ros, 1990); (Peters, 1996), therefore Mexican real wages declined from 1982 till the 1995 crisis. Meanwhile, the economic policies of Mexico under the reform in 1983 caused liquidation, cutting off some and opening trade to others (Ruiz Nápoles, 2011) .

Nominal wage growth ceilings were maintained to keep inflation rates low continued in 1987 in Mexico, real wages remained low as well in formal employment but sectors that employ higher labor skills between fared better between 1987 and 1994 (Bortz & Aguila, 2006). In 1989, foreign investment law of 1972 was adjusted to ensure employment in Mexico, import liberalization became crucial for cheap imported inputs. A 100% share of foreign capital was permitted for small and medium-sized firms on the condition that foreign investments could maintain a current account with a positive balance in the first three years, unfailingly provide employment and comply with environmental protection laws (Peters, 1996). In 1992, National Agreement for Increasing Productivity and Quality (ANEPC) was signed in Mexico. It included programs such as Pactos Económicos (sector agreements) and several programs that commenced since the late 80s regarding labor issues.

In 1994, Mexico allowed low wages to encourage investments in manufacturing and maquila activities which were created through NAFTA (Cervantes & Fujii, 2012) to generate employment, hence, maquiladora companies were allowed no longer restricted to the northern part of the country (Ruiz Nápoles, Recent evolution of Mexico's employment and unemployment, 2011), the responsibilities of labor unions and collective contracts were modified to increase flexibility of labor and pensions became partially privatized as part of worker contributions were diverted into private accounts (Ondetti, The Power of Preferences: Economic Elites and Light Taxation in Mexico/El poder de las preferencias. Las élites económicas y tributación baja en México, 2017).

In 1995 the “Action Program to Reinforce the Unity Agreement to Overcome the Economic Emergency” (PAAUSEE) program was initiated in Mexico to reduce account

deficit, control inflation to maintain the financial sector through decreased real wages; therefore, inflation rate for 1995 was allowed to rise to 55%, hence, the loss in real wage was around 25% all in an effort to secure employment. Up to 1996, the government made no concerted efforts to design clear and long-term labor policies in Mexico (Peter, 1996). Mexico implemented policies in 1997 that placed restrictions on labor organizing and limited the utilization of advanced labor processes and technologies (Tunal, 2002) including decline in taxes on income until 2007. In year 2000, the legal minimum wage in Mexico fell, dropping by 75 percent in two decades and the decline in real wages took effect across various industries.

In 2001, the Mexican government's congress passed a law establishing a flat tax rate of 35 percent for high-income individuals and businesses, with a gradual reduction of 1 percentage point per year until 2005. Additionally, a landmark ruling by the Mexican Supreme Court in the same year restricted companies from terminating employees who opt not to join a labor union (Economist Intelligence Unit , 2001).

In 2003, the Vicente Fox's administration launched a US\$10 million fund to support new startup companies, for employment creation and to resist Chinese competition in the same manufacturing sectors that Mexico explores.

In Mexico, a maximum income tax rate of 33 percent was fixed for people in the highest income bracket, in 2004 (Huesca Reynoso & Araar, 2016) while real minimum wage was kept constant for approximately 10 years; 2005-2014 (Martinez Gonzalez, 2020). The following year 2006 in Mexico, a minimum income tax was introduced by President Calderón and a tax on bank deposits were introduced to reduce tax evasion while VAT rose from 10% to 16% (Ondetti, *The Power of Preferences: Economic Elites and Light Taxation in Mexico/El poder de las preferencias. Las élites económicas y tributación baja en México*, 2017). In 2006 adherence to minimum wage was enforced and required to meet basic needs of a head of household and basic education for children. Salary is required to justify the quantity and quality of work compulsory education of children (Parece, 2015). By 2007, only minimal resources were available for active labor-market policies (less than 0.1% of GDP).

In 2008, income tax rate was reduced for people in the highest income bracket in Mexico by 28 percent (Huesca Reynoso & Araar, 2016). The wage subsidy was replaced by the employment subsidy but was not adjusted to inflation which lowered the benefits accrued to reduce real incomes every year (Gonzalez, 2020). In 2009, the Mexican

government created a 70% expansion in the Temporary Employment Program, which provided jobs to 700,000 individuals for 10-12 weeks each in 2009, subsidies were provided to businesses that had been forced to cut production, mainly in the automotive sector. With OECD support, the government provided a one-stop shop to fast-track the completion of the procedures required to start a business, and special mortgage relief was provided. Funding for job-search assistance and training programs were provided to the National Employment Service to support the agency (OECD, 2010).

For people in the highest income bracket, the maximum income tax rate rose to 30 percent in 2010 (Huesca Reynoso & Araar, 2016). In 2011, the National Minimum Wage Commission authorized a daily micro-increase of 2.53 pesos in the minimum wage (Referencia Laboral, 2011).

In 2012, the Federal Labor Law Reform in Mexico eliminated the union's right to exclude discontented workers from membership and get them fired (Parcero, 2012). The reform reduced regulations that causes high transaction costs; a precursor of informality in the labor market, increased access to formal jobs for young population, and limited the compensations in employment related legal processes (STPS, 2012); (Parece, 2015). The following year in 2014, real minimum wage was increased to US\$1951.9 annually and it continued to rise till 2018.

In 2015 in Mexico, the general law on transparency of public information law was instituted and created new rules for labor unions hence, the major structural obstacles that prevent workers from exercising their trade union rights in Mexico remained firmly in place (Clewer, Martinez, & Rothenberg, 2017).

However, in 2016, the collective bargaining agreements (CBA) under the Mexican labor was reformed by creating new steps to be taken to ensure enforcement. Furthermore, the government organized a labor inspection protocol to ensure that employers post and disseminate collective bargaining agreements in the workplace (Clewer et al, 2017). In the same year, the national minimum wage was increased by 4.2% but was insufficient to afford the "basic basket of goods" for one person (Cardenas Sánchez, 2016).

In 2018, the Mexican government recognized and implemented the ILO Convention 98 that protect right to organize, the constitution's emphasis on human rights and international standards has led to improved HR management and enhanced working conditions.

Outsourced workers are entitled to all statutory benefits and severances, with restrictions on their composition and key roles within a company. The maximum working hours are 48 per week, with overtime paid at 100% of the normal rate for up to nine hours and 200% for subsequent hours. Employers must register with the Mexican Social Security Institute (IMSS), and the national minimum wage was set at MXN\$88.36 per day in 2018.

In summary, the Mexican government has introduced several policies and initiatives. These measures comprise the expansion of employment programs, lowering requirements for starting businesses, reduction of social security contributions, counter-cyclical fiscal policy, increased support for unemployed workers and low-income families, and labor reforms.

Nigeria's Policies on Employment and Income

The policies implemented regarding employment and income in Nigeria does not reflect the demand of its population] size and demographic characteristics. The Nigerian government has made limited modifications to policies related to employment and income. These include labor reforms, minimum wage increases, tax and trade incentives, as well as the creation of programs like the Decent Work Country Program and the National Enterprise Development Program. While there was a significant raise in the national minimum wage in 2018 after a prolonged period of inactivity, the increase did not adequately address the impact of higher inflation rates.

To settle labor discontent in Nigeria, the government always set up temporary commissions to consider the review of bonuses or wage during such events. As a result, minimum wages were set on nine different occasions.

According to the 1971 labor law in Nigeria, workers traveling more than sixteen kilometers to another worksite are entitled to free transport or a transport allowance. The law strictly prohibits the establishment of fee-charging employment agencies without written consent from the Minister.

The 2nd national development plan for 1970-74 aimed to enhance income and employment by increasing per capita income, promoting income distribution, reducing unemployment, and diversifying the economy. However, the plan's execution was disrupted by factors such as the global oil slump, tight fiscal policies, and other challenges (Ukah, 2008). The trade union act was created which allowed collective bargain, however, powerful employers could still trample on this right (Adeogun, 1980).

Public service review commission was implemented in Nigeria in December 1974 which led to increased wages between 30 to 40% which applied to the private sector as well (Adeogun, 1980). The Udoji Commission conducted a review that resulted in the official backdating and implementation of wage and salary increases, ranging from 12% to 30%. As a result, the minimum monthly pay was raised to N60 (equivalent to approximately US\$100 in 1974) (Aminu A. , 2011).

In 1975, the military created a new national labor policy which limited government intervention in certain areas of labor activity such as strike (Adeogu, 1980) and the income tax management. The military combined the rates, created reliefs and labor laws throughout the country (Odusola, 2006). Under the third National Development Plan (1975-1980), executions completed are the creation of cement plants, four commercial vehicle assembly plants, two sets of passenger car assembly plants, petroleum refineries, iron and steel plants, industry for pulp and paper projects were created in three cities, an international airport, four sea ports and over 10,000 kilometers of roads built or rehabilitated across three cities. By 1976, embargo on union action was reversed but restrictions on the freedom to strike and various penalties were set for defying the restriction according to work categories.

In 1977, an agency for productivity, income and wages analysis was established in Nigeria to resolve wage and salary problems. Employers became empowered to withhold payments of workers when they embark on industrial action and to lay workers off but the rule does not apply when workers are locked out; hence, workers can stage industrial action as an lockout but such a case can be settled by the commissioner (Adeogun, 1980).

During the early 1980s, there was a decline in real wages for employees in formal sectors, indicating a decrease in the purchasing power of their earnings due to inflation. (Bortz & Aguila, 2005) in response to the collapse of the oil market and a devastating economic crisis. In Nigeria, taxes were utilized to boost the productivity and competitiveness of businesses, mitigating the impact of the structural adjustment program (SAP). As a result, there was a focus on promoting the export of manufactured goods and reducing the tax burden on individuals and companies. Additionally, fringe benefits were monetized, and greater tax relief was provided to low-income earners (Odusola, 2006). This period, the national minimum wage was fixed at N125 per month (US\$200) by an act of parliament (Aminu A. , 2011).

Nigeria was facing the same situation due to neoliberal policies in 1982, IMF conditions for granting \$2 million loan to Nigeria in 1982 included wage and employment freeze but ironically, after the implementation of Structural Adjustment Program (SAP), the rate of employment in the agricultural sector began to rise again and reaching 61% in 1990 (Ukah, 2008). By December 1983 in Nigeria, the Udoji commission was established for public sector restructuring of salaries according to grade levels.

In 1984, the Nigerian military regime embarked on mass sacking and retirement after gaining control of the country through a coup and installing General Murtala Muhammed. In 1985, the Finance (Miscellaneous Taxation Provisions) Decree of 1985 granted tax authorities the authority to access individual information from banks and altered the method for calculating capital allowances. Personal income tax was increased by 10 percent on lower income group and by 12.5 percent on higher income group (Oduola, 2006). Taxes were deducted ranging from 2% to 15% from all incomes at source (rents, dividends, wages and salaries) across all sectors and were diverted to the Economic Recovery Fund at the Central Bank of Nigeria, however, junior staff workers were exempted (Aminu A. , 2011).

In 1986, the government revised the national minimum wage, excluding individuals or companies with fewer than 500 employees and those working in agricultural projects. However, due to widespread labor protests in major cities, the amendment was repealed on April 24, 1987 (Benin, Enugu, Ibadan, Kaduna, and Lagos) across the country (Aminu, 2008).

During this year in Nigeria, the 1987 amendments to wages favored increase in personal allowances, review of capital allowances, and treatment of withholding taxes on rent, interest, dividends, and royalties (Oduola, 2006). The Establishment of National Directorate of Employment (NDE) in 1987, National Farmers Credit Program, Industrial Development Centers (IDCs) and the amendment of the Nigerian Enterprises Promotion Decree were all aimed at increasing employment.

In 1988, foreign trade created employment in unskilled labor-intensive manufactures and non-tradable goods and service sectors (Cervantes & Fujii, 2012)) while corporate asset tax was introduced (Ondetti, 2017). Federal law reform required outsourcing companies to ensure workers have similar working conditions and benefits as those of the beneficiary company with consideration for the established minimum wages in the geographic areas. A policy was made to set minimum wages annually and will take

effect on the first of January of the year but is subject to revision according to economic circumstances that justify the revision (Cervantes & Fujii, 2012).

Adjustments were ongoing in Nigeria at this period; the Income Tax Management Act (ITMA) of 1961 changed from a 'pay as you earn' (PAYE) system to a 15% withholding tax, on various categories of deposit and incomes (Oduola, 2006). In 1990, minimum wage received a boost and reductions were made in personal income tax from 1% to 0.5%, earners of N3,000 and downward were exempted from submitting tax returns (Oduola, 2006) while company income tax was introduced.

To generate employment during economic reforms, the Nigerian government enforced privatization, and monopolies in the export of crop business were disintegrated. Two study groups were subsequently set up in 1991 to review and improve tax collection and to eradicate multiple taxation on individuals. Minimum wage was applied to total emoluments but government department/level was permitted to pay according to its ability (Aminu, 2008), and child allowance as part of income was increased.

In 1992, Nigeria in this year made changes to personal allowances; they were increased to reduce the tax burden of individuals while the monetization and taxation of fringe benefits were introduced. In 1993, personal income tax was increased nationwide under the state government (Oduola, 2006) and to mitigate the inflationary impact caused by the devaluation of the naira following the deregulation of the foreign market, salaries of public sector workers were raised by 45% to provide a cushioning effect (Aminu U. , 2008).

In 1994, in Nigeria, the implementation of value added tax actually began in January 1994 with several amendments and the revenue generated was to be shared 20:80 between the federal and state government along with tax allowances on income and company tax, tax free status for rural area companies and incentives based on the infrastructure available in the areas. On the other hand, gross earnings of companies were taxed for research and development, VAT of 5% applied and withholding tax was increased from 5 to 10 percent. Directors' fees payable by property and investment companies were raised from N 3,000 to N 10,000.

In 1995 in Nigeria, tax reliefs were implemented especially for low-income earners, tax-free income bracket and disability allowances increased.

In 1996, an agreement was reached to implement labor reforms that would incorporate the utilization of new technology in the work processes. Remunerations would

be linked to productivity and competitiveness rewarding group and individual profit. Prioritization of training, strict enforcement of health, safety, and environmental rights (Kohourt, 2008). During the same year in Nigeria, consumption tax replaced sales tax while individual marginal taxes reduced to 25% and child allowance was increased to N 1,500 per child payable up to four children, personal income tax paid by self-employed taxpayers was extremely low.

In 1997 in Nigeria, the Joint Tax Board (JTB) of Nigeria were required to publicize the taxes each tier of government, levy and collect to reduce the multiplicity of taxes. In addition, an employed handicapped worker using special equipment is entitled to an allowance of N 2,000 or 15% of earned income (Odusola, 2006).

In 1998, the Nigeria's tax system allowed several tax allowances and increased minimum wages to match general increase in prices for workers at state and federal government level. In 2000, in Nigeria; in response to an agitation by the Nigerian Labor Congress (NLC), a new limit of wages for state government workers led to an increase of 83% in minimum wages (Aminu U. , 2008).

In 2002, the Nigerian government amended the 1993 Personal Income Tax Act, to penalize non-compliance of employers to register their employees and to remit personal income taxes to relevant authorities, and for inaccurate record keeping, totaling up to N 25,000. In 2003, the Mexican Federal Labor Law (LFTL) established a minimum amount of wage that must be paid to all employees on a weekly basis in cash, without deductions or withholding and to be reassessed frequently by the National Minimum Wage Commission. In Nigeria, policies focused on tax and trade incentives, including exporter grants, duty drawback and manufacture-in-bond schemes (MIBSs), pioneer tax status, and other tax incentives provided to industry (excluding oil and gas exploration, development, and production) to last for five years before the benefits are assessed based on annual evaluation of its performance regarding job creation by the Nigerian Export Promotion Commission and the Nigerian Investment Promotion Commission (NIPC).

Field visits were organized to assess the current status of 16 of the 17 existing Free Trade Zone services (FTZs) which are small duty-free and low-tax areas designed to support trade, typically with restricted entry of the quantity of goods allowed into the domestic market.

The Bank of Industry (BOI) portfolio which focuses on Small & Medium Scale Enterprises was reviewed with a focus on sectors of agro-industries; textiles and leather,

polymer-based industries and solid minerals, oil and gas, telecom, and ICT services. The criteria to support businesses were high local content; SMEs and projects with strong backward or forward links or both; high job creation potential and the ownership by women.

In 2005, the Nigerian government required trade unions to elect representatives for collective bargaining procedures thereby recognizing terms and conditions of employment (Noah & Zakariya, 2011). The Decent Work Country Program I (2005 – 2009) was also launched to drive job creation (7 million jobs by 2007) especially for women and youths by ensuring self-employment.

In 2012, a partial removal of subsidy removal was implemented in Nigeria and the new funds were diverted into the Subsidy Reinvestment and Empowerment Program (SURE-P) to invest in critical infrastructure projects and social safety net programs with direct impact on the citizens of Nigeria. The strategies implemented under SURE-P include Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) designed to train youths in ICT/telecoms, and other various sectors. The objectives were classified into different empowerment categories, and participants are required to offer teaching, instructional, and advisory solutions in four main areas: agriculture, health, power, technology, and community education (Obadan, 2017).

In 2013, the National Enterprise Development Program was designed to create more employment in Nigeria through mechanisms that encourage technical/business and entrepreneurship skills acquisition, provide access to finance, improve market access and the business environment for small and medium-sized enterprises.

In 2015, The Decent Work Country Program II (2015-2018) in Nigeria started to encourage employment and wealth creation with a focus on deficits of youth unemployment and mitigating the impact of the global financial crisis by supporting government agencies responsible for gender, youth, agriculture, and rural development, labor markets and income-related issues in the country, development of resources allocation tools that favor job creation.

In 2017, the federal labor law enforced the establishment of a new decentralized and autonomous federal level institution for the registration of all unions and CBAs which will be responsible for labor conciliation at the federal level, and all related administrative processes (Clewer, Jeffcott, Briseño, & Weisbart, 2017). By 2018, after a strike action staged by the Nigerian Labor Congress (NLC), the government increased the national

minimum salary by 67% to 30,000 Naira (US\$ 83). In summary, the Nigerian government made minimal changes to policies that affect employment and income. However, initiatives taken include labor reforms, minimum wage hikes, tax and trade incentives, and the establishment of programs such as the Decent Work Country Program and the National Enterprise Development Program. After a long period of dormancy, a notable increase in the national minimum salary in 2018 was made but the increase does not correspond or ameliorate the effect of a higher level of inflation.

What Both Countries Have Done About Employment

Mexico has taken various steps to enhance its global economic competitiveness by implementing policies like economic reforms, labor reforms, and trade agreements. These policies are geared toward attracting foreign investment, generating employment opportunities, and improving the overall welfare of the populace. For example, NAFTA has facilitated cross-border trade between Mexico, Canada, and the United States, while labor reforms have aimed to ensure better working conditions and stronger workers' protections.

In contrast, Nigeria has been focusing on tackling labor issues and improving employment conditions within its borders. The country has put in place policies like increasing the minimum wage, tax and trade incentives, labor reforms, and initiatives like the National Enterprise Development Program and the Decent Work Country Program. These policies are geared toward promoting better working conditions and ensuring a better standard of living for workers in Nigeria. The inadequate minimum wage and unequal distribution of income in Nigeria led to several resistances through strikes and debates which eventually led to a notable increase of minimum wage in 2018 but by then, the inflation level eroded the effect of this increase.

Policies on Violence Deterrence

Unfortunately, both Mexico and Nigeria have struggle with rampant violence in their countries obstructing development. Mexico has been grappling with drug-related violence for decades, causing a significant impact on both the country's economy and lives. The government has employed a range of strategies to combat this issue, including military

force and administrative and legal reforms. While some measures have been successful in reducing crime rates and improving transparency in the justice system, others have been controversial and met with criticism. Recently, the government's focus has shifted toward addressing the underlying causes of the drug trade, such as social and economic inequality. However, drug lords continue to use tactics to gain the support and loyalty of the poorest communities, perpetuating gang activities, femicide, and extortion. In a similar vein, Nigeria has a history of conflicts and violence, ranging from the civil war to current challenges with Boko Haram and Niger Delta militant groups. Despite employing comparable strategies each year, including military action and amnesty programs, corruption among army ranks and politicians has hindered progress. Mexico has also reported collusion between politicians and drug cartels.

Policies on Violence in Mexico

Mexico has had a long-drawn battle with drug-related violence for decades, leading to a heavy toll on both lives and the country's economy. The government has tried various approaches to tackle this issue, from the use of military force to administrative and legal reforms. While some efforts have been successful in reducing crime and increasing transparency in the justice system, others have been met with controversy and criticism. In recent years, the focus has shifted toward addressing the root causes of the drug trade, including social and economic inequality. The persistence of violence and drug activities in Mexico is the strategy that drug lords employ, acting as messiahs to the poorest communities and winning their admiration and loyalty, hence their cooperation to hide trails of activities. Unfortunately, the prevalence of gang activities also manifests in other forms such as femicide and extortion of businesspeople. The policies enforced against violence, however, did not start as a drug war, it began as a resistance against the movement of the poor masses to protest marginalization and impoverishment.

During the 1970s, the Guerrero rebels formed a guerrilla group, fighting for reforms in social welfare among the campesinos and consistently challenged the Mexican regime, particularly after the Tlatelolco and Corpus Cristi massacres. The government under the regime of Díaz Ordaz made significant efforts to suppress the guerrilla forces of Guerrero, with all four military battalions stationed in the region engaged in operations against the rebels by early 1971 (Doyle, 2003).

In June 1971, a report from the Departamento de Investigación Políticas y Sociales revealed that Mexican President Luis Echeverría, with the support of the United States, deployed 12,000 troops to Guerrero under the pretext of combating drug trafficking. This extensive military operation, known as "Operación Telaraña" or "Operation Spiderweb," aimed to crush the rebel forces. However, the failure of the troops in the field led to increased secrecy, confusion, and cover-ups by the regime, which sought to conceal its setbacks from the public. Despite occasional victories by the guerrillas against the government forces, the regime persevered in its efforts to undermine the rebels (Woolley & Peters, 2012).

The rebels carried out three notable kidnappings in 1971, resulting in substantial ransom payments. As the Mexican armed forces gained more freedom to operate in Guerrero, the lives of innocent Mexican civilians caught in the crossfire became increasingly disregarded (Doyle, 2003).

Tragically, on February 2, 1972, Genaro Vazquez, the organizer of the rebel movement, died in a car crash while attempting to evade authorities. In late January and early February, security forces conducted mass detentions in Guerrero, reportedly employing extensive torture during interrogations. By mid-1972, the Party of the Poor, a faction within the rebels, launched two separate ambushes against army troops operating in Guerrero, resulting in the death of 26 soldiers and the capture of over 50 weapons. Mexican human rights organizations have documented approximately 650 cases of civilians disappearing in Guerrero during this period, referred to as the "dirty war."

In response to the uprising, some changes were made in tax, labor, and social security laws; however, the benefits of these reforms barely trickled down to the masses. Despite the government's continuous efforts to combat the rebels between 1973 and 1974, it failed to achieve success due to the significant support the uprising received from the campesinos in Guerrero (Doyle, 2003).

Clearly, most of government's response in the 1970's to political violence consists of intensive police work and massive application of military manpower, a mix of public spending and political rhetoric. The Figueroa kidnapping, for example, brought forth a huge publicity effort to demonstrate how much the Echeverría government has done for Guerrero.

In the 1980s, drug-related violence became a major concern in Mexico as cocaine transport routes shifted into the country. With the crackdown on drugs by the South Florida

Drug Task Force, traffickers turned to Mexican marijuana smugglers to move cocaine across the U.S.-Mexican border. The government responded with military raids, including a significant one on November 6, 1984. In this raid, a large marijuana cultivation and processing complex in the Chihuahua desert was targeted, resulting in the destruction of 5,000-10,000 tons of high-grade marijuana valued at \$2.5 billion. The owner of the complex was arrested in 1985 and later released by the administration of Enrique Peña Nieto on August 9, 2013 (Doyle, 2003).

In 1985, drug cartels expanded their power and corruption but regardless, anti-drug policy operations focused mainly on destroying marijuana and opium crops in mountainous regions. There were no large-scale high-profile military operations against their core structures in urban areas until the 2000 Mexican election. The Mexican government focused on dismantling the powerful drug cartels and left the prevention of drug trafficking and demand to U.S. functionaries.

In 1988, election related violence leading to two recognized killings and an eventuality of fraudulent electoral result and winning. Within this year, the President-elect Bush admonished the President-elect Salinas to demonstrate a cooperation with the drug war—a process called certification, pressuring Mexico to arrest a drug lord believed to have been responsible for the murder of DEA Agent Enrique Camarena (Doyle, 2003). By 1989, the relatives of the drug lord moved up to Tijuana on the U.S. border from their home state of Sinaloa to smuggle tons of cocaine into the lucrative Californian market.

In 1991, President Carlos Salinas granted permission for DEA officers to conduct investigations in Mexico, albeit with certain limitations. These restrictions included constraints on the number and locations of agents, the denial of diplomatic immunity, the prohibition of weapons, and the requirement to share all collected information with Mexican authorities (Doyle, 2003).

In 1993, a drug baron was apprehended in Guatemala and extradited to Mexico, where he was sentenced to 20 years in prison for charges related to murder and drug trafficking. However, due to bribery, prison guards allowed him to escape from a federal maximum-security prison in 2001 (Helsel, 2017).

In 1994, the government was compelled to modify agricultural laws in favor of large transitional companies and privatization due to the NAFTA agreement with the U.S. and Canada. The denial of autonomy to indigenous populations aimed to prevent the fragmentation of the country. Coinciding with the implementation of NAFTA on January

1, 1994, the Zapatista Army of National Liberation (EZLN), an indigenous armed organization, declared war on the Mexican Government, seeking various demands. Following 11 days of violence resulting in numerous casualties, negotiations between the Mexican Government and the indigenous rebels commenced, leading to a ceasefire. (Reyes, 2014). By 1995, the Law establishing the Coordination Bases of the National System of Public Security, along with its principles, matters, instances, and instruments, was published in Mexico on December 11, 1995 (Rodriguez & Paul, 2019).

In August 1998, decentralization occurred making the National Public Security System an independent body with a purpose to establish a national public security policy, strengthen the Mexican State in the field of public security, coordinate all public security institutions of the federation, states, and municipalities with consideration to their areas of competence.

The National Academy of Public Safety joined together the 126 academies and public security institutes across the country, including judicial training institutes, to establish basic standards in the different levels of professionalization of all areas of public security and the Public Safety Labor Competition Committee was created, to obtain recognition and minimum standards for staff that works in the field of public security and to promote certified labor competency for self-development of people.

During Ernesto Zedillo's administration, the number of intentional homicides declined fairly steadily from 15,839 in 1994 to 10,737 in 2000. The policy and execution of this administration took into cognizance the fact that highly placed officials and politicians were affiliates of drug dealers in Mexico. An opposition party member Antonio Lozano Gracia attorney general was appointed, the Colosio investigation was re-opened and some perpetrators were arrested including a former deputy general Anand (Lloyd, 1995).

Important institutional reforms were made under President Ernesto Zedillo such as in 1995, when the National System of Public Security was established to coordinate the combat against crime at the three levels of government: local, state and federal. The military was delegated to take a greater role in the anti-drug fight, including the use of air force jets to intercept planes loaded with cocaine. The military deployed its F-5 jet fighters and T-33 trainers in pursuit and military pilots were trained to track the traffickers' jets.

In 1996 the Congress approved a new Law against organized Crime which increased the penalties against organized crime, and punished the criminal association, like

the RICO law in the United States, allowing telephonic interception, protected witnesses, covert agents and seizures of goods. In 1997, a Special Unit against Money Laundering was established within the Attorney-General's Office.

In December 1998, the Federal Preventive Police was established comprised of some other Federal Police forces, including the Highway Police, the Fiscal Police and the Migration Police (Chabat, 2010). In July 1998: The U.S. actions in Operation Casablanca led to the Brownsville Agreement -a pledge between US and Mexico to disclose any sensitive cross-border law enforcement operations.

The aftermath of the Zapatista insurgency was social instability to Mexico's economy and a loss of confidence by international investors which led to devaluation of Mexican peso by 50 percent. To rectify this, the Mexican Government took military action in Chiapas to obstruct the uprising to reestablish foreign investor's confidence, and stability of the Mexican economy (Iker, 2014). Hence, the establishment of the Mexican Secretariat of Public Security in 2000 had the objective of upholding freedom, maintaining order, and ensuring public peace, as well as protecting the integrity and rights of the people.

In the year 2000, Vicente Fox presidency passed with relative peace with a general decline in homicide rates from 2000 to 2007 but for the exception of peasant unrest in San Salvador Atenco which was poorly handled. During this period, the security initiatives achieved a temporary perception of enhanced citizen security by conducting purges of corrupt officers, establishing new forces, and prominently relying on the military, leading to short-term tactical successes. Additional measures were introduced, such as increased transparency in handling reported crimes, publicizing crime statistics, and eliminating corrupt officers.

President Vicente Fox created reforms during his administration including the creation of the Secretary of Public Security and ascribed the Federal Preventive Police to the new office, (an existing part of the Secretary of Governance (Gobernación).

At the end of 2001, the Federal Agency of Investigation (AFI)-was created (Mexican version of the FBI) to use modern and scientific techniques of criminal investigation.

In January 2005, the "National Security Law" was approved by the congress that established the requirement for judicial authorization for telephonic intervention made by

CISEN. In 2002, Mexican police eliminated a notorious drug lord in Sinaloa and weeks later arrest his brother. Rival gangs attempted to capitalize on the weakened Tijuana cartel.

In 2004/5, a captured drug lord deployed henchmen to seize control of the Gulf cartel's border territory, triggering violent drug clashes in cities like Nuevo Laredo and Monterrey. However, their efforts were ultimately thwarted and repelled (Emmot, 2010).

In 2006, amidst ongoing drug cartel killings, the Mexican government initiated Operation Michoacán as a collaborative effort involving the Secretariats of Defense, Navy, Public Security, and the Attorney General's Office. It is important to note that the military's involvement in this operation exceeded its constitutional authority.

Under the administration of Felipe Calderón (2006-2012), Mexico witnessed a period of heightened violence, largely attributable to Calderón's military-led campaign against powerful drug cartels. Consequently, significant public funds were allocated to drug policy during this time. According to data released by the Secretariat of Finance and Public Credit, an estimated MX\$814,033.6 million pesos were invested in drug policy between 2006 and 2012. Purón-Cid (2014) categorizes these expenses into three groups: (i) law and order, (ii) prevention, treatment, and human rights, and (iii) health and environment (Heinle, 2015).

During Calderon's administration in Tijuana, efforts were made by federal, state, and local forces to regain control of the city's most dangerous areas. Officials took action by purging the municipal police and encouraging the public to provide anonymous tips about criminal activities to the army. This approach fostered goodwill among the population, which had greater trust in the army than in the police. With information received from the public, authorities specifically targeted the newly separated faction of the cartel. Tijuana was divided into quadrants, and the government implemented tactics in an unsystematic manner to restore order. This strategy aimed to build trust between civil society and government authorities (Rios, Stamp, & Gomez, 2014).

In 2006, President Felipe Calderon discharged tens of thousands of troops and federal police across Mexico to try to stem growing drug violence sparked by Guzman's territorial ambitions across Mexico. In 2007, on March 23, the Mexican police had found \$205 million in U.S. dollars and millions more in currencies from other countries in a drug dealer's residence in Mexico City who claims that Mexican authorities attempted to extort

him to use this money for the PAN's electoral campaigns (Beltrán, Redondo, & Rodríguez, 2022).

In 2007, January 2, the Mexican government launches Operation Baja California to fight the Tijuana Cartel without any short-term results. Also, in 2007, October 22; the Merida Initiative, also known as Plan México, was established collaboratively by the United States and Mexico. It is a long-term security cooperation agreement aimed at combating drug trafficking, transnational organized crime, and money laundering. As part of this agreement, the U.S. government pledged financial aid, equipment, training, and intelligence support to Mexico and Central American countries. In that particular year, Mexico was allocated \$400 million, while Central American countries received \$65 million from the United States (Doyle, 2003).

Mexico extradited a Gulf Cartel kingpin to the United States and seized 23-tonne cocaine. U.S. President George W. Bush pledged a \$1.4 billion anti-drug package for Mexico and Central America but the violence escalates. In 2008, January, the Mexican government launched the joint Operation Nuevo León-Tamaulipas to combat two notorious Cartels—founded by former high-ranking officers of the Mexican army's elite troops. The operation led to the capture of a drug lord. On March 27, the Mexican government launched the joint Operation Chihuahua to confront the Juárez Cartel and other criminal syndicates operating in the state. On September 17, Operation Solare (a.k.a. Project Reckoning), a major transnational anti-drug trafficking operation across Mexico, Guatemala, Italy, and the United States, leads to the capture of over 200 suspects. On October 26. The Mexican army leader of the Tijuana Cartel, after a shootout in Tijuana, Baja California.

On November 7, the Federal Police arrested a founding member of Los Zetas cartel, founded by former high-ranking officers of the Mexican army's elite troops. On November 30, clash between Guatemalan and Mexican drug cartels in the border zone leaves 18 people dead. Mexico captured hundreds of drug gang members, disrupting smuggling routes but unleashing yet more violence causing about 6,000 deaths across Mexico as rival gangs fight each other and security forces in the worsening drug war. Lastly, the Justice System (Sistema Nueva de Justicia Penal, NSJP) was established in the constitution this year.

Since 2009, the Mérida Initiative has played a central role in bi-national security cooperation, providing over \$2.6 billion in U.S. assistance to address Mexico's security

challenges and enhance the rule of law (Heinle, Rodríguez, & Shirk, 2017). On January 1, 2009, President Felipe Calderón enacted the General Act on the National Public Security System (SNSP), which establishes coordination mechanisms between federal and state governments to combat crime and oversee law enforcement personnel. The Act aims to ensure shared responsibility and effective collaboration among different government levels in matters of public security. It also establishes the National Council of Public Security, which promotes policies to assist crime victims, enhances ministerial and police models, and evaluates the fulfillment of security objectives (Diario Oficial de la Federación, 2009).

Additionally, the Act mandates the creation of the Unique System of Crime Information, a national database that includes information on suspects, indictments, criminal records, identification methods, and operational details. Furthermore, it sets the objective of establishing the National Center of Accreditation and Trust Control and the National Center of Crime Prevention and Civic Participation (Diario Oficial de la Federación, 2009).

In 2009, Forbes magazine glorified a kingpin on its list of the world's billionaires. Mexican elite Navy squad tracks down and eliminated the head of the popular cartels. On February 17, shootout in the city of Reynosa between the Mexican Army and members of two Cartels led to the death of at least twelve people, including one cartel leader which provoked the split between a Cartel and its paramilitary army in 2010. On March 19, the Mexican military captured a drug boss of another Cartel and was extradited to the United States in 2010 becoming an informant for the DEA in exchange for immunity. On May 27, Mexican authorities arrested 27 high-ranking officials suspected of collaborating with drug dealing group, including eleven city mayors, fourteen civil servants, a judge, and an aide of the governor of Michoacán.

In 2010, January the federal police arrested two drug lords. On August 24, in San Fernando, Tamaulipas, an armed confrontation between the Mexican army and members of a cartel results in four dead and gruesome discoveries of homicides. A confrontation of gun shots occurred between Mexican security forces and a Cartel in the border city of Matamoros, Tamaulipas, more than 100 people died, including a co-leader of the cartel. On December 3, in Cuernavaca, Morelos, Mexican authorities captured a 14year old Mexican U.S. citizen who had engaged in heinous and murderous activities. He served three years, and was eventually deported to the U.S.

In 2011, President Felipe Calderón Hinojosa, as well as peace and human rights activists including the poet Javier Sicilia, gathered in Mexico City to initiate a national discussion on the country's military-led strategy against the drug cartels and the victims of the drug war.

On August 12 in Mexico City, the Mexican police arrested a supreme leader of yet another Cartel who had been the cause of 600 deaths. On October 7, the Mexican Navy allegedly eliminated another kingpin of a Cartel. An armed group takes his body from the funeral home.

In December 2012, despite significant irregularities in the presidential elections, Enrique Peña Nieto from the Institutional Revolutionary Party (PRI) was elected as the 57th President of Mexico. Widespread protests erupted across the country, including violent riots during Peña Nieto's inauguration on December 1. However, Peña Nieto prioritized the reduction of the impact of crimes on the population by implementing police training programs and altering public security strategies.

Although the Mexican government reported a decrease of 5.4% in crime rates between 2013 and 2014 according to the SESNSP, this decline did not align with the increase in the number of crime victims, which rose from 24.5% to 30.8% during the same period. This contradiction in apparent progress from 2013 to 2014 suggests the possibility of a rise in unreported or inadequately investigated crimes (Heinle, 2015).

In 2013, President Enrique Peña Nieto dissolved the Secretariat of Public Security, as part of his planned administrative reforms, on January 3, 2013, and was replaced by the "National Security Commission. On February 24, a number of self-defense militias emerge, and some of them initially collaborate with the Secretariat of National Defense. On June 6, the Mexican Army rescues 165 kidnapped immigrants from a safe house in Gustavo Díaz Ordaz, Tamaulipas.

In 2014, the Mexican Army executed 22 alleged gang members in a warehouse in Tlatlaya, State of Mexico. The National Human Rights Commission confirms that the victims were shot after they had surrendered. In 2015, the military force continued activities heavily against drug cartels costing the government financially. In January 2015, the Institute for Economics & Peace reported that Mexico ranks 144 out of 162 in the Global Peace Index and indicates that the national cost of violence amounts to more than \$220 billion Dollars. The downside also included the death of unarmed civilians as a result

of military action but in 2016, the notorious kingpin leader of the Sinaloa Cartel, Joaquín “El Chapo” Guzmán, was arrested.

The NSJP’s objective was not aimed at decreasing crime and violence particularly, but to strengthen the judiciary and rule of law in Mexico, in order to have a positive influence on the overall security. For this purpose, Mexico’s criminal procedure was changed from the traditional ‘mixed inquisitorial’ model of criminal procedure to an ‘adversarial’ model, by introducing greater transparency through oral trials, or public court proceedings during hearings. The new system proved to be more efficient than the traditional model. Secondly, an alternative dispute resolution (ADR) method and plea-bargains was created to reduce overloaded dockets of courts that clogged up the court system. Lastly, by respecting due process ultimately, more fairness to the administration of justice was set up.

In 2016 and 2017, the US government appropriated over \$130 million annually to support the Mérida Initiative due to the important role that Mexican suppliers have played in the unprecedented U.S. heroin epidemic.

In 2018, the president, Andrés Manuel López Obrador (AMLO)’s strategy for peace was to give amnesty to all Mexicans involved in drug production and trafficking as a way to stop the drug trade and the resulting turf violence to the disapproval of the majority. Pointing out that the past approaches failed due to lack of understanding of the core problem which is Mexico's great social disparities that should have been the focus of previous governments' economic policies (Agren, 2019). Therefore, on January 30, 2019, President López Obrador declared the end of the Mexican war on drugs (Emily, 2019) and decided to focus on reducing spending (Lopez, 2019). Consequently, more military and police concentrated on the armed gasoline theft rings called “huachicoleros” that have been stealing more than 70 thousand barrels of oil (Argen, 2019), diesel and gasoline daily, costing the Mexican economy around 3 billion dollars every year (Iniguez-Montiel & Kurosaki, 2018).

In summary, Mexico has a long history of political and drug-related violence. The government's response to these issues has often been military force, resulting in civilian casualties and human rights violations. The implementation of the New Criminal Justice System aimed to improve the judiciary and rule of law in Mexico, and the US government provided support through the Merida Initiative. However, Mexico still ranked low on the Global Peace Index, and the cost of violence remained high. In recent years, President

López Obrador's strategy has been to focus on reducing spending and targeting gasoline theft rings instead of giving amnesty to those involved in drug production and trafficking. It remains to be seen how effective this strategy will be in achieving lasting peace and stability in Mexico.

To tackle violence, Mexico employed the use of military force, Merida initiatives from USA to administrative and legal reforms. Some of the efforts were recorded to have been successful in reducing crime and increasing transparency in the justice system, military force has been reported to exacerbate the problem. However, since the latest administration, efforts had been shifted toward addressing the root causes of the drug trade and more efforts have been concerted on fighting oil theft.

Policies on Violence in Nigeria

Nigeria began to experience only pockets of violent incidents based on religious reasons after the major civil war but that escalated gradually then rapidly in the mid-2000s. The escalation can be blamed on the failure of the government to understand sociological dynamics of the Nigerian society especially the northern region. Also, politics in Nigeria is worryingly intertwined with religion as demonstrated by the implementation of Sharia law in some northern states in 1999. This section will discuss the government actions to curtail violence in Nigeria.

Starting from when three eastern states seceded from Nigeria to form the Republic of Biafra in 1967 sparking three-year civil war from July 6, 1967, to January 15, 1970, when General Ojukwu finally surrendered and the war ended. However, the political scene of Nigeria continued to be riddled with coup d'état in the 70s, such as the ousting of General Gowon in 1975, who begins process of moving federal capital to Abuja. Violence in the north and east ensued for a long time until the country transitioned into a democratic state.

On Wednesday, December 25, 1975, soldiers from 8 Battalion, Nigerian Army, stationed at Ugep (a town professed as the largest west African native town), launched a retaliatory attack on the countryside community located about 100 kilometers from Calabar in Rivers state over the alleged killing of a soldier by unidentified persons. The aftermath of the attack was the death of over 100 villagers, 300 houses and property worth millions of Naira. The ruling state administrator at the time ordered an autopsy on the

deceased soldier and result showed the death was due to epilepsy. The military officer, Col. Shuwa who ordered the attack on Ugep was only removed as Commandant and replaced by a Captain. He was later named Federal Commissioner of Trade and Works between 1975 to 1979 and dies as a general in 2012 at war front with Boko Haram.

In the 1980s, serious outbreaks between Christians and Muslims occurred in Kafanchan in southern Kaduna State in a border area between the two religions which was caused by extremist leaders who incited young, educated group of individuals through public speeches and demonstrations. Politicians continued to use religious dissension to hold on to power. The military is usually discharged to intervene but no lasting policies were formed to curb religious violence in Nigeria.

The Maitatsine (or “Yan Tatsine”) riots of December 18 - 29, 1980 claimed thousands of lives and set into motion the riots that followed. Prior to the 1980 attack, the leader of the group Muhammadu Marwa was arrested in 1973, Governor Audu Bako of Kano State to protect peaceful urban development. After completing his term of imprisonment, Marwa went back to Kano and became more aggressive in his fundamentalist religious activities.

Government police and members of the Muslim fundamentalist (Yen Izala) sect headed by Malam Mohammadu Marwa clashed in Kano in northern Nigeria on December 18-31, 1980, resulting in the deaths of some 1,000 civilians and 50 government policemen. The police again, clashed with members of the Yen Izala sect in Maiduguri in the state of Borno and Kaduna in north-eastern Nigeria on October 26-31, 1982, resulting in the deaths of some 100 government policemen and 400 civilians.

In 1982, Muslim mobs protested the construction of a church in Kano’s Muslim heartland in October 1982, destroying churches and properties. Therefore, the government banned the Yen Izala sect on November 18, 1982. The government expelled some 2.2 million illegal immigrants from the country between January 17 and February 28, 1983. Yet again, government troops clashed with members of the Muslim fundamentalist sect headed by Musa Makaniki in Yola in the old state of Gongola on February 27, 1984, resulting in the deaths of some 1,000 individuals.

During the election in which Shagari was re-elected as head of state, death of eight individuals in a political violence in Ibadan city, Oyo state on July 8, 1983, eighty-two individuals were killed in political violence in the state of Ondo on August 18-20, 1983. No institution was set up to address political mayhems instead, on December 24, 1983,

General Mohammadu Buhari carried out coup d'état and dissolved all political parties which ended the plan for Nigeria to transition to a democratic rule.

Government police clashes continued with members of the Muslim Fundamentalist sect Yen Izala headed by Yusufu Adamu in Gombe on April 26, 1985, resulting in the deaths of 150 individuals while General Buhari was deposed in a military coup led by Major General Ibrahim Babangida on August 27, 1985, resulting in the death of one government policeman. In 1987, a relapse into Inter-group strife began on 5 March 28, 1987, when a preacher at Kafanchan College of Education ventured into topics in the Islamic book in attempt to prove the veracity of the gospel. The oversight led to the loss of lives and properties that came to be known as the Kafanchan-Kaduna ethno-religious riots which revived age-old tensions between the Muslim Hausa-Fulani and non-Muslim communities throughout the north and beyond.

Since the Kafanchan-Kaduna crisis, the subsequent intergroup crises can be classified into four main types: ethno-religious clashes, inter-ethnic violence, intra-ethnic and/or intra-religious conflicts, and inter-group economic clashes, sometimes overlapping.

In 1991, the former colonial administration set artificial demarcation of boundaries in Tafawa Balewa local government area in Bauchi state by the former colonial administration, the region is abundant with natural resources which include minerals and agricultural resources; therefore, it is a strategic place for commercial purposes and agriculture owing to its fertile land for farming, attracting many people from near and far for commercial activities. However, the demarcation resulted in the existence of different ethnic groups distinguished by religion, norms and values living within the same area and the consequences are ethno-religious conflict over decades, in 1991 and 2011 (Suleiman, 2019).

To reduce conflicts, the government embarked on the creation of states, the 12 states in Nigeria were divided further into nineteen states in 1976, twenty-one states in 1987, and to curb the incessant religious conflicts division of regions into states reached its peak with the division of Nigeria into of 30 states in 1991(14 states in the south, and sixteen states in the North). Out of the sixteen states in the North, three have a substantial Christian majority and have Christian governors and legislatures. While five others have significant Christian minorities. The other eight are predominantly Muslim but have sizeable pockets of Christian communities.

While the strategy of creating new states proved to be effective, it also generated other problems and, in some places, it exacerbated existing problems because Muslims in the new states that are predominantly occupied and controlled by Christians began to resent the erosion of their powers and felt threatened while the few Christians in Muslim-controlled and predominantly Muslim states are not at ease. On the other hand, intense rivalry erupted in states with equal proportion of people from the two religious communities (Ikenga-Metuh, 1994).

Zagon-Kataf is a local government area in Southern-Kaduna where the chain of Christian-Muslim clashes began in February 1992. Kaduna state is evenly divided between Christians and Muslims. The clashes that occurred between Christians and Muslims began as a land dispute between the minority Christian and the mainly Muslim Hausa people, and quickly turned into a religious conflict. Churches were destroyed and thousands of Christians converged on a military academy and police stations in the town to seek protection. As many as 800 people were killed in the violence.

Religious leaders that the government incited the riot to retain power in the region. (UNHCR, 2022). The February 1992 riots in Zangon-Kataf LGA led to 95 deaths and injuries to 233 persons. In the May 1992 riots, the death toll increased, with 1,528 persons killed in Zangon-Kataf and 305 others in Zaria, Ikara and other parts of Kaduna state to which the rioting spread. To curb the uprising, on 18 May, the state authorities imposed a curfew on the affected areas, and some persons were detained and prosecuted. But the Kaduna State government failed to produce a White Paper to set out its official position on the recommendations of the Judicial Commission of Inquiry.

Protests were staged by the people and rallies held by the Movement for the Survival of the Ogoni People (MOSOP) and demand for political autonomy to participate in the affairs of the Republic as a distinct and separate unit, and for the right to control and use a fair proportion of economic resources for Ogoni development, since a large quantity of oil is derived from their land – Ogoni land (an estimate of the 404 square miles they inhabit produced 634 million barrels of oil between 1958 and 1995 worth \$5.2 billion or more) causing an adverse effect of environmental damage due to oil spills and gas flaring to the land besides the marginalization and underdevelopment the area suffered (International Crisis Group, 2006).

The oil company, Shell stopped the 3% of its oil production from the land and pulled out its staff, although oil pipes still run through the land. Oil Minerals Producing

Areas Development Commission (OMPADEC) was created on July 23, 1992, by General Ibrahim Babangida to create development and eradicate poverty, the program failed to be effective due to corruption and poor project execution.

On 30th November 1994, the military administrator of Kaduna State, Colonel Lawal Jafar Isa, appointed the Committee for Reconciliation and Search for Peace in Zangon-Kataf community which included the Atyap and Hausa communities. In its 1995 report, the committee stated that it could not resolve three burning issues of ownership of disputed farmlands, release of White Paper on the report of the Cudjoe Commission of Inquiry and release of detainees (Adekeye, 2020).

On May 4-13, 1992, government police clashed with anti-government demonstrators in resulting in the deaths of seven individuals. On June 12, 1993, the Military Head of state, General Ibrahim Babangida, wrongfully annulled the elections that was clearly won by Chief Moshood Abiola. Protests on the street in Lagos state led to the killings of a policeman and about 11 people were killed. Within the same year, a Christian was beheaded and another lynched by crowds of Muslims in northern Nigeria some days after Muslims distributed a leaflet calling for violence against Christians in Lagos on February 21. The only response to the dastardly occurrence is that the Nigerian authorities issued an appeal for moderation.

In 1994, the Federal Military Government arrested the winner of the 1993 elections on the grounds of treason after declaring himself President on June 11, 1994. This led to strikes on July 5, 1994, by natural gas and petroleum workers, plunging the nation into a monumental fuel crisis and more riots out in the Southwestern states. On August 18, 1994, the military head of state responded to the workers' strike by sacking the Executive Council of NUPENG and PENGASSAN, and NLC and also closed down three newspapers; *Punch*, *Concord group* (owned by the winner) and *The Guardian*. However, he partially lifted the ban on politics, allowing individuals to 'canvass political ideas' but not to form political parties at the time, he further arrested some former military men and former politicians.

On August 24 – 26, 1994, the military government promulgates decrees which put its actions beyond legal challenge in the courts and dissolved boards of state-owned corporations and agencies. Also, the National Constitutional Conference was organized with the presence of American officials led by Rev. Jesse Jackson in Abuja to discuss the political gridlock between the tyrant ruler and the rightful winner of the election.

Furthermore, pro-democracy activists who were also an Attorney General and the Minister of Justice were dismissed for disowning eight decrees promulgated by the Government and on September 27, 1994, the Government expanded the Provisional Ruling Council (PRC) to 25 and excluded civilian Council members. Finally, Abacha failed to relinquish power on the appointed date (Gboyega, 2001). Meanwhile, yet another clash on 31 May led to the death of five persons and injured people when Hausa and the Ibo ethnic groups clashed in Kano with no recognizable government intervention to avert future occurrences.

Instead, on May 15, 1995, the National Democratic Coalition (NADECO) emerges as a protest movement for the revalidation of the annulled June 12, 1993, presidential elections and on May 31, 1995; a bomb blast at the launching of the Family Support Program (FSP) at the Ilorin stadium killed two people. Finally, on June 27, 1995, the cohort of Americans from the Constitutional Conference present final report and recommended a multiparty system and rotational presidency. Instead, the military ruler sentenced a number of former military rulers to death on the allegation of coup plotters, and on October 31, 1995, a Special Military Court sentenced Ken Saro-Wiwa and eight other Ogoni activists to death in a hasty trial.

Ken Saro-wiwa was the spearhead of the 500,000-strong Ogoni community in Rivers State, Saro-Wiwa and played a key role in drafting the Ogoni Bill of Rights to protest the marginalization of the community despite intense crude oil-related activities by rich oil company, Royal Dutch shell. The communities suffered lack of political representation, absence of pipe-borne water, electricity, job opportunities, or federal government projects in the region, and worse, environmental degradation; soil and water pollution that completely impeded their source of livelihood.

The Movement for the Survival of the Ogoni People (MOSOP), put pressure on oil companies and the government to clean up the environment and pay adequate compensation and royalties to the oil producing regions. The struggle eventually led to the death sentence of the eight prominent leaders of the movement under Abacha's military rule through Provisional Ruling Council (PRC) on November 10, 1995.

In a sort of shallow attempt to appease Nigerians, on December 28, 1995, Abacha inaugurated the National Reconciliation Committee (NARECO) and freed four political that were previously arrested. Several violent events followed starting from January 1996; bomb blasts happened in three northern cities. Abacha's first Minister of Internal Affairs

who was at the time the publisher of Guardian Newspaper was shot and wounded by gunmen suspected to be hired assassins. Bomb explosions at Ikeja Military Cantonment person killed one person and injured two. Two more explosions occurred within two days in Lagos and injured a number of people. The government only focused on charging some politicians and activists and with treason.

On March 17, 1997, Warri indigenes riot over local election results. Three bomb explosions occurred in three southern states consecutively. More violent attacks occurred happened in 1998 even against a pro-Abacha rally and three persons were killed. Followed by two bomb explosions in Lagos and Sabo area in Ife; south western areas. Once again, the government only went ahead to sentence four previously arrested military officers to death. On May 1, 1998, a public protest happened against the adoption of Abacha as consensus presidential candidate by all parties; Abacha's elite supporters were targeted and seven people died in the protest. In response, security agents went after prominent pro-democracy activists. However, on June 8, 1998, the tyrant military ruler died mysteriously and was replaced by Gen. Abdusalami Abubakar.

The new head of state sent delegations comprising of all the military service chiefs to the geo-political zones to have a meaningful dialogue with various interest groups on how to resolve the country's festering political impasse but the winner of the 1993 elections died mysteriously in detention which led to highway riots in three south western cities in which 45 people died. Only a curfew was imposed in Ogun State, Abiola's home state. On July 20, 1998, the new head of state, Abubakar relinquished power, freed all political prisoners and reversed death sentences.

In 1999, scores of people were massacred in the delta town of Odi by security forces after the killing of 12 policemen by delta militants in the oil producing state, Afterward, the Niger Delta Development Commission (NDDC) was established in 2000 with the same mandate as OMPADEC. Though OMPADEC and NNPC are the most outstanding responses to a deepening crisis, they remain inadequate and ineffective. Environmental degradation, excruciating poverty and ethnic militias persisted in the oil producing River state (Shola, 2007).

In 2000, adoption of Islamic Sharia law by several northern states in the face of opposition from Christians led to tension and resulted in hundreds of deaths in clashes between Christians and Muslims. A tribal war in Benue State, in eastern-central Nigeria, displaces thousands of people. Troops sent to quash the fighting kill more than 200

unarmed civilians, apparently in retaliation for the abduction and murder of 19 soldiers. Although no exact figures of casualties are available, the Kaduna riots of 2000 and the Jos riots of 2001, each claimed several hundreds of lives and generated violent ripple effects beyond Kaduna and Jos, respectively.

In 2002, February, around 100 people were killed in Lagos in clashes between Hausas from mainly Islamic north and Yorubas from predominantly Christian south-west. By November, more than 200 people died in four days during a riot by Muslims over the planned Miss World beauty pageant in Kaduna in December, the pageant was finally relocated to Britain. Likewise, in 2003, the election was characterized by violence, corruption, and the falsification of results, these re-occurred in 2007 except for the 2011 round, which was reported to have been well-run relative to past elections. Nonetheless, “violence claimed 800 lives over three days in Northern Nigeria and displaced 65,000 people, making the elections the most violent in Nigeria’s history” (Bekoe, 2011).

In 2004, a Niger-Delta militant Mujahid Dokubo-Asari from the oil producing state and his men battled Nigerian troops from their jungle hideaways and only disarms after the government brokered a peace accord with a rival militia. However, government eventually locked up the militants and their arm supplier (Financial Times, 2006). In 2006, a Niger Delta militant group called Movement for the Emancipation of the Niger Delta (MEND) unleashed serious attacks against oil facilities. Four foreign oil workers were kidnapped in January and later released. Hence, the government deployed the military force to attack the militant groups and remained in the cities to carry out military operations.

In retaliation, the Niger Delta militant groups stepped up attacks in February taking nine more hostages and destroying part of an export terminal, and demanded for release of Dokubo-Asari, a corrupt governor, Alamiyeseigha and also demanded \$1.5bn in compensation payment for environmental damage from Shell oil company (Financial Times, 2006).

In 2004, a state of emergency was declared in the central Plateau State after more than 200 Muslims were killed in Yelwa in attacks by Christian militia and a revenge attack by Muslim youths in Kano. Between August-September, deadly clashes between gangs in oil city of Port Harcourt led to strong crackdown by government troops. The Amnesty International cited 500 deaths while the authorities reported only 20 deaths.

In 2006, more militants' attacks in the Niger Delta were launched on pipelines and other oil facilities, they kidnapped foreign oil workers and demand more control over the region's oil wealth. In 2008, conflicts occurred between Muslims and Christians over election outcome. The government only deployed military intervention; no concrete policy was implemented.

In 2009, the Niger Delta militant groups were finally offered an amnesty deal – Presidential Amnesty Program (PAP), each former militant was entitled to 65,000 naira (\$206) a month with job training. Militant leaders were appeased with lucrative contracts in the oil industry and other sectors. Afterward, ex-militant leaders gained political power and influence in their respective cities. Cash stipends were provided to militants, on the condition that bursting of oil pipeline attacks and kidnappings ended in the volatile region. In 2017, an additional 35 billion naira (\$111 million) was added to the budget for an amnesty program for the militants (Iaccino L. , 2017).

The amnesty agreement was made at a time when global crude oil prices soared to over \$145 per barrel. Concurrently, the Niger Delta Militants severely disrupted Nigeria's oil production, reducing it by 900,000 barrels per day or roughly 30% in 2007 impacting the nation's finances negatively. Former militants, amounting to about 30,000 individuals from the Niger Delta region participated in the Presidential Amnesty Program (PAP). However, only 2,700 weapons were surrendered as part of the disarmament process (Golden-Timsar, 2018).

The leader of Boko haram Islamic sect was arrested and killed in police custody on 30 July 2009, the Nigerian government failed to prosecute those security personnel that were responsible for the extrajudicial killing of the Boko Haram leader (Agbiboa, 2013). Islamist movement launched an enduring campaign of violence soon after in which hundreds of died. While the government frees the leader of the Niger Delta militant group, MEND, Henry Okah, after he accepts an amnesty offer.

During the year 2010, a wave of religious riots erupted in the city of Jos in Plateau State. In response, the government acted by apprehending over 300 individuals involved in the violence. Governor Jonah Jang implemented a 24-hour curfew in four districts of the city, and soldiers were given the permission to use lethal force to suppress further unrest. Consequently, over 130 cases of extrajudicial killings occurred as documented by Human Rights Watch.

In January 2012, a series of premeditated bombings and shootings in Kano resulted in the tragic loss of over 100 lives. This incident occurred shortly after Boko Haram issued warnings to Christians, urging them to leave the northern region. In spite of the government's allocation of \$9 billion in 2017 to strengthen the military, the frequency and severity of terrorist attacks continued to escalate. As a response, in May, the government declared a state of emergency in three northern states, namely Yobe, Borno, and Adamawa, and deployed military troops to combat Boko Haram. In 2014, the widely reported abduction of more than 200 girls was perpetrated by Boko Haram in a boarding school in the northern town of Chibok. By 2013, federal prosecutors had successfully obtained convictions for at least 129 individuals involved in the 2010 Jos riots.

Due to the ongoing desertification of the Sahel region in Nigeria, Fulani herdsmen that rear cow for a living began to move toward the south in their nomadic lifestyle reaching the middle belt first in search of green plants and grasses to feed their cows. They would enter farms without permission, and their cows would feed on farm crops and trample on growing crops. Soon, reports began on how they began to kill farmers and it became a huge conflict between the two groups. To resolve the problem, the president proposed the implementation of Rural Grazing Area (RUGA) settlement, but it was rejected by southerners and failed to be executed eventually.

During 2014, Boko Haram launched a series of assaults in northeastern Nigeria, seizing control of various towns in closest to Lake Chad. In early 2015, they expanded their raids into neighboring Chad and Cameroon. In the same year, Boko Haram made a change in their allegiance, switching from being affiliated with al-Qaeda to pledging their loyalty to the Islamic State group. In 2015, electoral reforms were implemented to reduce conflicts over election results. A coalition of Nigeria, Chad, Cameroon, and Niger to form a military coalition and push Boko Haram out of all towns back into Sambisa Forest.

The resurgence of a militant group in the Niger Delta was triggered by the failure to pay the stipends as promised for several months in 2016. Allegedly, the federal government of Nigeria made an initial lump sum payments to former commanders, who were responsible for distributing the funds among their ex-combatants. However, in 2015, mid-level commanders raised concerns about corruption in the payment system and the unequal distribution of large pipeline security contracts to high-ranking commanders, resulting in minimal benefits for others.

In December 2017, a new system was devised to directly deposit the payments to the former Niger Delta combatants, but the ex-militants accused commanders and the banks of collusion and short-changing payments. Therefore, the lump sum cash payment system was resumed in 2017 (Golden-Timsar, 2018).

Furthermore, with the support of the International Organization for Migration (IOM), the Nigerian government implemented an initial strategy known as the “Action Plan for Demobilization, Disassociation, Reintegration, and Reconciliation”, targeting individuals affiliated with Boko Haram. The government considers it important in achieving the Prevention of Conflict and Violent Extremism (PCVE) Policy Framework and National Action Plan of government but in 2018, Boko Haram attacks escalated from August onwards, targeting army bases.

In conclusion, Nigeria has a history of conflict and instability, with challenges like the Niger Delta militant groups, Boko Haram, Fulani herdsmen, and election result conflicts. The Presidential Amnesty Program (PAP) launched in 2009 aimed to address violence but faced challenges like incomplete weapon surrender and corruption. The government's response to the Boko Haram crisis drew international condemnation for extrajudicial killings and kidnappings. Despite an initial plan supported by the IOM for the “demobilization, disassociation, reintegration, and reconciliation” of Boko Haram affiliates, increased attacks were recorded in 2018. Finding lasting solutions to these conflicts is crucial for Nigeria's peaceful and prosperous future.

In summary, Nigeria's history of conflicts and violence, from the civil war to recent challenges with Boko Haram and Niger Delta militant groups shows the government continued to apply similar strategies from year to year to end religious conflicts by unleashing military action. The government's response to these challenges, including military action and the Presidential Amnesty Program if they had any positive effect at all, such effect could not be sustained due to hinderance by corruption.

Conclusion

The section discusses the economic and security challenges faced by Mexico and Nigeria, and the policies implemented by both countries to address them. Mexico has implemented measures such as expanding employment programs, subsidies for businesses, and labor reforms to improve its economy, while Nigeria has focused on improving labor conditions

and employment through policies such as minimum wage increases, tax and trade incentives, and enterprise development programs.

Both countries have a history of conflicts and violence, and the section highlights the heavy reliance on military action to address these issues. However, Nigeria has implemented amnesty programs, law enforcement agencies reforms, and through support and re-strategizing the means of reporting crime, while Mexico has focused on addressing the root causes of the drug trade.

The years when strategies changed from unleashing the military force to address violence were during the administration of Vicente Fox in Mexico and AMLO. In Nigeria, it was during the administration of Goodluck Jonathan especially in the case of Niger Delta militants. Despite these efforts, both countries continue to struggle with corruption and collusion between politicians and criminal organizations such as the alleged cases of unveiled interactions between certain northern governors and Boko Haram in Nigeria as evident in the chieftaincy titling of an indicted leader of Fulani herdsmen with a self-acclaimed record of numerous massacres.

CHAPTER 6 POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONSTRAINTS

Chapter 6 consists of the solutions to objective 2, 3 and 4 in that the recommendable policies, new recommendations and constraints are presented here accordingly. Also, the compilation of policies, regression analysis and the results of statistical analysis and structural change detection culminated in various recommendations in this chapter. The recommendations are the selection of the policies that have been identified as effective based on the analyses made and new recommendations. It should be noted that a few of the variables are not assigned new if the existing policies related to them are already sophisticated existing ones in Mexico and Nigeria.

RECOMMENDATIONS

In this section, the steps to meet objective 2 are taken and the outcome are the selected policies which are recognized as effective in creating the desired outcomes in each of the variables under the development category by using standardization in a statistical analysis and using structural detection analysis in the case of education. The selected policies are therefore presented as the recommendable policies for the other country. In addition, to meet objective 4, constraints of that might hinder the recommended policies are outlined as well as new recommendations.

Recommendable Policies on External Debt

The regression analysis shows that external debt contributed to economic growth in Mexico but not significantly. The result indicates that external debt does not reduce GNI but the test of significance showed a low result. In the case of Nigeria, the result showed a significant positive effect on growth.

Based on the knowledge that the inability to repay loans due to low debt/revenue ratio is the true challenge that external debt poses, the trend of debt/GNI ratio were compiled and the policies in the years that reflect low GNI/debt ratio were selected. The identified policies on debt that pushed down GNI/Debt ratio are loan rescheduling in 1984, debt for equity bonds in 1987 with an adverse effect of inflation, Brady Plan in 1990, US Bonds exchange for debts in 1990, retreat of banks from commercial credit in 1997 and allowing foreign banks into the market. Non-implementation of devaluations in 2000 and

implementation of procyclical macroeconomic policies and the structural reform agenda. PIDIREGAS (domestic loans) in 2001, debt amortization through PRONAFIDE in 2002 to reduce financing costs; widening of the investor base, development of euro and yen yield curve, management of liability operations to alleviate interest and exchange rate risks were prioritized.

In Nigeria, the successful policies on debt are between year 2000 – 2004 which were the debt management office setup for proper debt recording, debt relief deals and exit from the Paris club to stop contraction of new loans completely. While accumulation and high level of debt occurred in Nigeria because of corruption, waste, and poor record keeping of loans and hence excessive payments and the solutions proffered, external debt burden in Mexico on the other hand were mostly as a result of political and economic crisis, shocks and in particular, the decision to devalue the peso in 1994. The results indicate that despite Mexico having higher growth and exportation, the Debt/GNI ratio was lower in only 20 years.

New Recommendations

It is, however, recommended that Nigeria should adopt policies such as the exchange of US bonds, hence it is important for Nigeria to invest more in buying bonds in richer economies such as USA and China. The PIDIREGAS domestic loans and PRONAFIDE projects are highly recommended as well.

Recommendable policies on Foreign Direct Investment

In Mexico, 1% increase in foreign direct investment will cause an increase of 35.4% in GNI, significance of test is at 0.00 which shows the effect of FDI on GNI is positive and highly significant. In Nigeria, 1% increase in FDI will cause 58% increase in GNI and it is highly significant at 0.00. Therefore, the null hypothesis will be rejected for both countries. Despite the claims that foreign companies smother local businesses, this result implies that they increase income, but this should not be misinterpreted as an increase in purchasing power.

Recommendable policies from Mexico can be deduced in the periods when Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) grew, which between 1981 to 1988, it then grew steadily and slowly until 2001 but not till the end of 2018. Policies implemented between 1981 and 1988 were the Foreign Investment Law (the "Calvo Clause", Geographical Limitation: the

Restricted Zone, some economic activities limited to the State), import licenses and prices were replaced by tariffs, the pace of liberalization was accelerated in 1987 and tariffs were reduced to a maximum of 20% ad valorem, daily and pre-announced depreciation of 1 Peso per day. The purchasing power slowed down from the last policy but never grew beyond 10 points till the end of 2018 and remained constantly high.

Recommendable policies from Nigeria were determined by using Household Consumption Expenditure (HHCE) in the place of PPP. It is recommended therefore, that the government provides incentives to local companies, ensure transfer of product and process innovation, support local producers until they can compete with foreign companies. The policies created in 1990 are recommendable and it includes the facilitation of access to foreign capital, devaluation of the overvalued Naira, elimination of import licensing requirements, rationalization of import policy; formulation of a comprehensive set of incentives to promote non-oil exports; creation of export processing zone, policy for widespread privatization and commercialization of state-owned enterprises. In addition, in 1999, FDI increased during the first year of President Obasanjo and the implementation of the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) that was designed for a private sector led growth strategy.

Constraints

The implementation of these policies might become an ad hoc, case-by-case approach, and might also be stifled by government bureaucracy. Political instability can impede recommendable policies such as the highest reign of tyranny in 1993 in Nigeria when FDI remained and continually in 1995 till 1998 even though foreign investors were allowed to set up a business with 100% ownership starting from 1995. Consequently, gross national income fell the same year to the lowest at \$25.41 billion (Current US).

Recommendable Policies on Government Expenditure

In Mexico, 1% increase in level of government expenditure on health, education and welfare will cause an increase of 48% in GNI, significance of test is at 0.00 which shows the effect of LGS on GNI is highly significant. In Nigeria, 1% increase in LGS will cause 13% increase in GNI and but it is not highly significant at 0.10. Therefore, the null hypothesis will be rejected for both countries.

In the case of Mexico, the benefit of increase in government expenditure on education, welfare and health is evident in the case of poverty levels between 1996 and 2012 in Mexico. Between 1996 and 2006 devoted most of the government spending to welfare with a resultant drop in basic-needs and extreme poverty.

The third National Development Plan in Nigeria (1975-1980) implemented policies to enhance the economy by increasing per-capita income, reducing unemployment, and diversifying industries. It involved the establishment of cement, pulp and paper, automobile, oil refinery, and metal plants across the country. Transportation infrastructure like expressways and airports were also developed. Government expenditure on social welfare and development projects during this period positively impacted poverty levels, leading to a decrease in poor consumption.

New Recommendations

The government policies regarding welfare in Mexico should not be reduced or abolished, rather, the various welfare programs, especially the Progresa should be adopted in Nigeria while continual infrastructure renewal and maintenance should be maintained. In the aspect of government expenditure, there is no policy recommendable to Mexico from Nigeria.

The constraint of this recommendation is corruption and political clientelism, therefore, Mexico should fully incorporate Progresa into the national constitution and fully legalize it so it will not be subject to any political regime and administration.

Also, corruption can only be hindered through systematic designs, hence, an online platform should be created and made public where the amount of funds released for various welfare project will be clearly displayed, the details of contractors to execute the projects, the receipts and waybills should be uploaded and names of the beneficiaries, pictures and videos as evidence should be uploaded as well.

Recommendable Policies on Income

In Mexico, the variables that have a reducing effect on unemployment are Percentage of Workers Nationality at -63.1%, Value Asset Tax at -10.5%, Pactos Económicos at -69.5%, Action program to Reinforce the Unity Agreement to overcome Economic Emergency (PAAUSEE) at -0.479 (using standardized result), Confederation of Mexican Workers (New Labor Culture) (CMW) at -1.024, Unemployment fund at -16.4%, International

Labor Organization Standard -0.130, Taxes on Personal Income, Profit, and Capital Gains at -8.1%.

In 1974, employers in every company or establishment in Mexico were mandated to have a staff that is comprised of 90% Mexican workers, at least. The rule applied to technicians and professionals as well unless there are none in a specific specialty, in which case the employer may temporarily employ foreign workers, but not exceeding ten percent.

Mexico implemented the Value-Added Tax (VAT) in 1976 and centralized its collection at the federal level and under Pactos Económicos in 1987, ceilings on nominal wage growth were established. The National Agreement for Increasing Productivity and Quality (ANEPC), signed in May 1992, consolidated various labor-related programs initiated under Pactos Económicos in late 1980s, including the National Employment System (SNE), the Program for Capacitating Small and Medium Firms (PCMO), the Project on Modernization of the Labor Market (PMMT) and the Program of Integral Quality and Modernization (CIMO). These programs, along with Pactos Económicos, addressed labor issues and aimed to improve productivity and quality.

In response to the 1994 crisis, Mexico introduced the PAAUSEE program to reduce the account deficit, control inflation, and support the financial sector. The program involved a 27% wage increase, leading to a 25% reduction in real wages and through a targeted inflation rate of 55% in 1995. These measures were justified as necessary to maintain employment and prevent inflation. Also, unemployment funds were provided during 2008-2010 to fund job-search assistance and training programs were provided to the National Employment Service to support the agency.

In 1996, the Confederation of Mexican Workers (CTM) and COPRAMEX signed the New Labor Culture pact, which excluded the government until after it was signed. The pact ended the CTM's resistance to labor reform and prioritized the application of new technology, remuneration, work environment, conflict management, training, health, safety, and environmental rights. Remunerations were linked to productivity and competitiveness and government released its duties to workers as stated in the constitution and federal labor law.

In 2018, the Mexican government recognized and implemented ILO Convention 98, which protects the right to organize and elevates human rights and international standards in the constitution. This has led to better HR management and working conditions. Statutory benefits and severances were made mandatory for outsourced workers, and a

company's workforce cannot be entirely composed of outsourced workers or fill key roles. The limit for working hours is 48 hours per week, with overtime limited to nine hours per week and the payment is 100% of the normal rate. Any subsequent hours worked would require 200% of the normal hourly rate.

Additional policies from Mexico are those that were implemented in 1982 to 1984 are the following. In 1982, Mexico exempted minimum wages from reductions except for workers paying housing loans from the National Housing Fund. Such workers can have a maximum of 20% of their salary deducted, with their agreement, to cover expenses for the administration and maintenance of the housing complex.

Policies from 1982 to 1984, Mexico implemented neoliberal economic policies that focused on promoting export growth and business-friendly policies while suppressing wages. The period saw significant changes in Mexico's industrial organization and employment structure, marked by the segmentation of the manufacturing labor market and state intervention to keep real wages low.

In Nigeria, the policies implemented in the period of lowest unemployment were the second national development plan 1970-74, which was the second phase of a previous development plan which expanded in to seven more specific objectives with a focus on income and employment. The goals were to raise per capita income, achieve a more equitable income distribution, decrease unemployment, enhance the availability of skilled workforce, diversify the economy, promote balanced development, and foster the localization of economic activities.

Third National Development Plan (1975-1980): The implementation of the plan includes the creation of plants and the development of transportation systems and infrastructure. Automobile and Oil Refinery industries were created; four commercial vehicle assembly plants, two passenger car assembly plants two petroleum refineries at Warri and Kaduna; metal Plants were created; two Iron and Steel plants at Ajaokuta and Aladja; and three steel rolling mills at Katsina, Jos and Oshogbo.

Development of transportation Sector; construction and refurbishment projects were carried out on more than 10,000 kilometers of roads resulting in the creation of expressways like the Lagos-Ibadan, Lagos-Badagry, Enugu-Port Harcourt, and Benin-Shagamu were established. Furthermore, numerous state capitals saw the establishment of new airports, while a new international airport was constructed in Lagos. In addition, the development of new seaports took place in Lagos, Warri, Calabar, and Port Harcourt.

In 1989, amendments to the 1961 “Pay as you Earn” act led to the introduction of a 15% withholding tax on savings exceeding N50,000, the expansion of the scope of rental income tax to include vessels and aircraft while directors' fees were subjected to a 15% tax. In 1990, further changes were implemented, including individual tax allowances, a reduction in minimum taxation from 1% to 0.5% and a tax exemption for individuals earning N3,000 or less from filing tax returns and company income tax were introduced.

The National Rolling Plans in 1990: the time range of 5 years set for development plans hindered an adequate evaluation of the economic problems of the economy. Therefore, a long range 15–20 year plan was introduced through the rolling plans that were designed in 1990 by taking a critical analysis of the performance of the plan that lasted from 1990 – 2009. As part of the government policy to generate employment during the execution of economic reform programs, attempts were made to create conducive environment for the growth of private investments and job creation such as reducing inflation, maintaining a simple market determined exchange rate, a liberalized trade regime. These strategies were set to encourage savings and productivity to accelerate economy recovery. As a result, the monopolies in the export of crop business were disintegrated and public enterprises were privatized.

In 1994, the Value-Added Tax (VAT) was introduced in Nigeria to be charged on 17 categories of goods and 24 categories of service and the revenue generated would be shared between the federal and state governments. In the same year, personal income tax was reduced by increasing tax allowances and reducing tax rates, and through the monetization and taxation of fringe benefits. The rate of withholding tax was raised to 10%, and child allowance increased to N1,000. In 1995, individual marginal taxes were reduced and the minimum tax-free income was increased. From 1995 to 1998, tax liability was reduced for low-income groups, while it was reduced for high-income earners from 1995 to 2002. Nigeria's tax system was covered by the Taxes and Levies Decree No. 21 of 1998.

New Recommendations

The foreign companies have undoubtedly provided jobs and Mexicans are able to obtain a source of income, however the income is not sufficient to experience abundance or sufficient comfort. Yet, an increase in the minimum wage will cause a decline in the availability of the jobs. To rectify this low purchasing power, the government has to

remove devaluation from its monetary policy, ensure that a transfer of innovative knowledge occurs between local companies and foreign companies, that a network is formed among local producers –horizontal and forward linkages and promote product and process innovation, encourage the creation of cooperatives and unions to effectively reduce importation.

The government must devise a means of measuring technological transfer and leverage on agglomeration (a cluster of sites, cities, etc.) which drives economic growth at a rapid rate in metropolitan regions as they are the center point of national growth and where export-oriented industrialization is likely to occur due to available capital-intensive infrastructure. More so, agglomerations are characterized by significant economies of scale and other factors that favor growth in urban areas such as the interplay of backward and forward linkages among firms in industrial systems, the concentration of labor markets around workplaces, and the emergence of idea exchange, including feedback from consumers, contribute to the dynamic nature of agglomerations. interactions between firms, producers and suppliers leading to innovation and quality improvement of Mexican products.

In a nutshell, concentrated clusters of businesses enable convenient access to essential resources for both suppliers and buyers. Therefore, the government must intensify efforts in the improvements of transport systems in Mexico to encourage spatial widening and achieve widened market range which will help to spark off specialization in established urban areas. More importantly, the transportation system should feature a link from home to bus or train stations in all cities which will serve as new opportunities for jobs in the transportation sector as well. A feature that is existent in form of motorbikes or tricycles in Nigeria but has downsides, a better version will be privately owned cars registered by the local government that can be assigned time periods and number of streets for loading vehicles with four passengers to drop them off at bus stops and pick commuters up at designated bus stops to transport them to workplaces in designated areas and at assigned times.

The recommendations for Nigeria have to begin with the overhauling of the electricity system in Nigeria and re-establishing the manufacturing plants in Nigeria without introducing privatization but should remain government owned as they were in their days of glory.

Constraints

The National Rolling Plan eventually failed because Nigeria shifted focus from agriculture sector (which drove job creation) to petroleum as a source of revenue. However, the revenue from petroleum dwindled, as a result, the plans in the rolling plan project could not be properly funded. Other factors such as corruption, and issues in the roll over plan were never addressed.

Recommendable policies on Interest rate

The successful policies on interest rate that were identified in this research were identified under President Fox and Calderon's administrations; specifically, Banco de Mexico's inflation-targeting scheme that announced target interest rates eight times annually.

New Recommendations on Interest Rate

In Mexico, high interest rates to control inflation can discourage local businesses and lower profit margins due to income restrictions that attract foreign investment. Also, the reliance on imported capital goods increases production costs and hurts local businesses, limiting employment and innovation. The inflation targeting scheme should be maintained in Mexico and is also recommended to Nigeria for adoption.

Recommendable Policies on Health

Based on the statistical analysis of the health index of both countries, the years that have an index closest to 1 are 2000-2006 in Mexico. The Crusade for Health Care Quality was initiated in 2001 for high quality care to the general populace. Between 2001-2007, a health reform initiative was designed to address inequities in access to health care quality and the improvement of it. Seguro Popular was implemented in 2004 to provide health insurance coverage to about adults and 50 million children for over 7 years, and to achieve universal coverage by 2010. Seguro Popular increased public resources for health and distributed them more fairly, increased access and utilization of health-care services, and improved financial protection indicators. The 2001-2006 National Health Program aimed to enforce equity in financing and access to health care, introducing Health Insurance for a New Generation to provide protection beginning at birth for 5 million children.

In 2002, the program oportunitade was launched to benefit 5.8 million poor households with free health packages. Vaccinations for rotavirus and pneumococcus and

strategies for permanence of the project were set up. In 2008, the general tobacco control law was approved, as well as a governance structure for the Mesoamerican Public Health System (SMSP). Therefore, trainings were organized for 332 staff members from the countries of the region (PAHO, 2012).

In the case of Nigeria, from 1998-2010, the health index remained high at 1 constantly and from 1986-1997, the index remained between 0.95-0.98. The index remained relatively high also from 2013-2018 the index but stayed between 0.983-0.987.

Between 1999-2007 in Nigeria, the Integrated Disease Surveillance and Response (IDSR) strategy was initiated for public health surveillance, but its functionality varied from state to state. The first phase of comprehensive health sector reform implementation in Nigeria covered 2004-2007, with a decline in government expenditure on health, leading to households bearing the burden of health expenditure. In 2005, antiretroviral therapy was implemented in Nigeria with the support of Global Fund, PEPFAR, and the World Bank. The National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS) was also launched in 2005, with three main social health insurance programs and five additional programs, but only 3.73% of the population enrolled after five years of operation, with coverage limited to federal government employees and their families in two states.

In 2009, the Nigerian Midwives Service Scheme (NMSS) was launched to reduce maternal and infant mortality rates in rural areas. The government employed and deployed midwives to clinics, provided training in basic emergency obstetric care, and reached over 10 million people in Phase 1 across all 36 states. The program aimed to increase skilled birth attendance and decrease maternal and infant mortality by 60% in target areas by December 2015, funded through the MDG-DRG Account.

New Recommendations

The health programs in Mexico and Nigeria should not be centralized because regions tend to have peculiar needs, challenges, and demographic characteristics that are better managed by zonal boards. Both countries need to increase the number of health practitioners by providing incentive to study medicine such as opening more areas of specialization for study. Lastly remuneration of doctors and other medical personnel should be reviewed upward to attract younger generation into the workforce in medicine.

Recommendable Policies on Food and Agriculture

Based on the statistical analysis in this research, the food and nutrition index for Mexico was high in 1980-1982, and 1983-1985, reaching above 0.8 in the latter three years, while the lowest was in 1970. The index stayed high and steady between 2009-2013 at 0.7- 0.8 index. Therefore, the selected recommendable policies were taken from 1980 to 1982 when Mexico implemented the Sistema Alimentario Mexicano (SAM) program to support small farmers and increase staple crop production. However, the program was discontinued due to various reasons. Mexico also launched programs such as Incentivo Complementario al Ingreso Objetivo, CADENA, and Contract Farming & Rural Supply Program to support small farmers. The government removed tariffs on food imports, launched a pilot program for cash transfers and savings accounts, and implemented school feeding programs. Mexico's Strategic Project for protected agriculture aimed to boost growth.

In 2013, Mexico launched the National Crusade Against Hunger (Sin Hambre) to combat extreme poverty and food insecurity. SAGARPA implemented agricultural support programs, including subsidies for investments in equipment and infrastructure, income enhancement, and risk management.

To improve public health, Mexico introduced taxes on sugary drinks and junk food in 2013 and implemented regulations on food advertising and labeling. Sin Hambre was reformed and renamed PROAGRO Productivo in 2014 to improve its effectiveness. Mexico also adopted a program to promote consumption and distribution of aquaculture products.

In 2016, SEDESOL supplied 4,937 soup kitchens, providing 592,440 people with two healthy meals daily. From 2013 to 2018, agricultural support programs were implemented under the 2013-2018 National Development Plan.

In Nigeria, during the mid-1970s, drought and an oil boom in Nigeria caused stagnant crop production, increased food prices, and a shift toward imported foods. The government implemented policies, including the "back to earth mobilization program," to address rising prices and imports.

Additionally, various policies were implemented between 1972 and 1983 to boost agricultural production, including the establishment of Operation Feed the Nation, River Basin-Development Authorities (RBDAs), and the Green Revolution Program (GRP). The RBDAs aimed to increase agricultural production through large-scale irrigation facilities,

and Operation Feed the Nation included measures such as subsidized fertilizer distribution and establishment of agricultural estates. The GRP aimed to increase food and raw material production, as well as enhance production and processing of export crops for the expansion foreign exchange earnings.

New Recommendations on Food and Agriculture

As the younger population continue to abandon farming in several regions, both Mexico and Nigeria should shift focus to latest technological development in farming and facilitate the application in both countries. Some of the latest technologies are bee vectoring techniques, automated farming, precision agriculture, vertical farming (hydroponics and aeroponics), livestock farming technology, minichromosomal technology among many others to attain high productivity.

A recommendable policy from the US entails paying farmers per ton of harvest for export and storage to ensure the sector is perceived as profitable and to avoid loss of harvest especially in Nigeria.

Recommendable Policies on Education

In the case of Mexico, the structural change was detected between 1977-1984 and in the regression result for those years, only secondary education has a negative impact using the standardized coefficient, a decrease of -1.6 in GNI per capita occurred for every unit increase in secondary enrolment. Therefore, the policies on primary and tertiary level of education between 1977-1984 are selected as successful. However, many other possible factors can be responsible but within the scope of this study, the policies are hereby presented.

In 1977, Mexico established the Coordination of Educational Services for the Zones to provide educational services to remote and marginalized areas and opened its first pedagogical university. The government also offered one year of free preschool education to all children. In 1980, Mexico changed the requirements for teacher training programs to a requirement of bachillerato for admission, with an aim to improve teacher quality. Mexico also established the National Literacy Program to improve literacy rates.

In 1981, Mexico established the National Literacy Program (Pronalf) to provide literacy education for illiterate individuals aged 15 and over. That same year, the National Institute for Adult Education (INEA) was created as an independent institute to provide

adult education services. Pronalf and INEA were coordinated under the Ministry of Public Education. Mexico reduced the student to teacher ratio from 39.09 to 31.01 students per teacher in primary education. Investment in education increased to 306.5 million pesos in 1982, resulting in a continued improvement in the student to teacher ratio and better access to education for marginalized areas. However, due to the debt crisis in 1983, Mexico's expenditure on education declined from 4.3% of GDP in 1982 to 2.1% in 1988. The reduction in spending was not consistent across the levels of education, with the primary and secondary education sectors experiencing larger cuts than the higher education sector.

Structural change was detected and regression result in 1985 to 1991, shows that only tertiary education did not yield positive returns to schooling, a negative value of -45.7% in GNI per capita for a unit increase in tertiary school enrolment.

The government's efforts to increase expenditure on primary education, enforce basic educational reform, and achieve efficiency in the education system while combating repetition in primary schools. The government expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP was 2.3% in 1990 and gradually rose to 3% in 1992. By 1991, Mexico ramped up effort to reduce students to teacher ratio in primary education from 30.54 to 26.66 students per teacher by 2013.

The structural change detection and regression result for 1992-1999 shows that only tertiary education had a negative effect on GNI per capita at -9.5% for every unit increase in tertiary enrolment. In Mexico, the decentralization of basic education was implemented through the 1992 National Agreement on the Modernization of Basic Education. As part of this process, financial and administrative management as well as teacher training were delegated to the State Departments of Education, while primary and secondary programs remained under national control. The General Law of Education, Ley General de Educación, was enacted in 1993, which enforced compulsory nine years of education; six primary school years and three secondary school years. The law also addressed the needs of special education students by integrating special education into regular education. Additionally, in 1994, the National Center for the Evaluation of Higher Education (Centro Nacional de Evaluación para la Educación Superior – CENEVAL) was established to evaluate the knowledge of graduates from secondary and upper secondary education.

The structural change and following regression analysis result for 2013-2018 shows that only secondary education had a positive impact on secondary education at 0.52

increase in GNI per capita for every unit increase in secondary enrolment (using the standardized coefficient). During these periods, the CNTE led a school strike in Mexico, leading to changes in the General Education Act and the Law for the National Institute for Educational Evaluation through the Constitution, laws, and public administration.

The government introduced the Education Sector Program (PSE) 2013-2018, which established objectives to improve education quality, coverage, and equity, and promote art, culture, and technology education. The government also introduced the Dual TVET training system, which combines company-based training with part-time vocational school. The “Program for Inclusion and Educational Equity” has a mandate to support disadvantaged schools and students, and the government offered scholarships through the National Scholarship Program. The National Certificates of Education Infrastructure for Schools program aims to improve school infrastructure.

In Nigeria, Structural change was detected in 1991-1997 and result of the regression analysis shows that only tertiary education had a negative impact on GNI per capita at - 32.8% decrease for every unit increase in tertiary enrolment.

Policies pertaining to Nigeria in the above-mentioned years encompassed various aspects. In 1991, the National Commission for Mass Education (NMEC) was established to provide adult education, but allocations to tertiary education remained stagnant. The National Minimum Standards and Establishment of Institutions Amendments Decree No. 9 was enacted in 1993 and it allowed private individuals, religious bodies, and non-governmental organizations to participate in providing tertiary education. Additionally, the Education Tax Decree of 1993 mandated companies with up to 100 employees to contribute 2% of their pre-tax earnings to the Education Tax Fund for education funding. To manage the fund, the government established an Education Fund and Board of Trustees.

The Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria Act, 1993 was created to determine standards for teacher registration, and free primary education was provided through Decree No. 96 of 1993. Costs of operating the State Primary Education Board (SPEB) were assigned to be funded by state governments, while the funding of primary schools were assigned to local government councils in each jurisdiction. Higher education in Nigeria was predominantly funded and provided by the federal and state governments, with insignificant contribution from the private sector. To address this, the Education Tax

Act No. 7 of 1993 was enacted, leading to the establishment of the Tertiary Education Trust Fund as an Intervention Agency.

The findings from the analysis of structural changes and regression for 2017 to 2018 are not definitive for primary and secondary education, but they indicate that tertiary education had an adverse effect on GNI per capita.

New Recommendations on Education

To improve education in Mexico, the government should increase investment in primary and secondary education while addressing the negative impact of tertiary education. To address the negative impact of tertiary education, the school curriculum at this level needs to be changed and should be centered more around innovation and managerial skills. In other words, Mexico should elevate technological studies. As already mentioned in this paper, there should be a networking between companies and universities for transfer of innovative skills and the rate of transfer should be ascertained or assessed through practical methods.

Recommendable Policies on Violence

In Mexico, the rate of homicide reduced slightly between year 1981-1985 and then remained constant until 1995. The recorded government action shows that until 1985, the primary focus of anti-drug policy operations was on the eradication of marijuana and opium crops in mountainous areas but no significant large-scale military operations were conducted against the core structures of drug trafficking organizations. Afterward, homicides remained high until five years later, when homicide reduced significantly in 2000-2007. In 2000, the Secretariat of Public Safety was established and assigned the Federal Preventive Police to the new office and the government recognized that highly placed officials and politicians were affiliates of drug dealers in Mexico and therefore appointed an opposition party member as an attorney general was appointed and the once neglected 'Colosio' investigation was reopened leading to the arrest of some perpetrators were arrested including a former deputy general.

Furthermore, in an effort to enhance transparency, measures were introduced to increase the disclosure of crime handling procedures and make crime statistics publicly available. Starting from 2001, the Federal Agency of Investigation employed new modern

and scientific methods for criminal investigations. From 2002 to 2004/2005, law enforcement faced challenges from drug cartels, leading to an investment of MX\$814,033.6 million pesos in drug policy. This funding aimed to support various areas such as law enforcement, prevention, treatment, human rights, and health and environmental aspects. In January 2005, the National Security Law was enacted, requiring judicial authorization for phone interceptions conducted by CISEN. The government also commenced a purge of the municipal police and encouraged anonymous tips from the public to the army in the Tijuana case during Calderon's administration. However, military involvement and joint efforts with the United States under the Merida Initiative (Plan México) continued until 2012, with heavy military operations persisting in 2007.

In Nigeria, during the year 1975-1979, the number of massacres recorded were around 60 but in 1985-1989, the recorded number was around 100. By 1995-1999, massacres shot up to 2000 and between 2005-2009, the number of massacres were around 1150. Regardless, these are the lowest recorded figures compared to the rest of the 48 years in this study. Let us see a fuller picture of the seemingly effective policies that were recorded in the years mentioned.

In the period 1975-1979, massacres were few since the civil war just ended and therefore, no policies were recorded that necessarily kept massacres low. By 1985-1989 religious conflicts had started on a very low scale and policemen were mandated to seize control. The recorded government actions within the period 1990-1994 show that starting in 1991, creating demarcations and creation of states to divide up regions to separate people of different languages and religions. Also, the OMPADEC program was created to alleviate poverty among the Ogoni people whose lands and water bodies were polluted by oil refineries.

The period 1995-1999 was a period of oppression by the military ruler in Nigeria, however, the Movement for the Survival of the Ogoni People (MOSOP), exerted pressure on both oil companies and the government to address environmental pollution, to provide appropriate compensation, and enforce regular payments of royalties are paid to the oil-producing regions. The tyrant military ruler inaugurated the National Reconciliation Committee (NARECO) and freed four political that were previously arrested.

In 2009, the Nigerian government offered an amnesty deal to Niger Delta militant groups through the Presidential Amnesty Program (PAP) which provided monthly

stipends and job training to former militants. The leaders of the groups were also given lucrative contracts in the oil industry and other sectors. The amnesty came during a period of high crude oil prices and militant attacks had significantly impacted Nigeria's production capacity. Approximately 30,000 people enrolled in the PAP, but only 2,700 weapons were surrendered. In the same year, the leader of Boko Haram was killed in police custody, leading to an enduring campaign of violence by the Islamist movement. The leader of the Niger Delta militant group was freed after accepting the amnesty offer.

New Recommendations on Ending Violence

The factors fueling violence in Mexico as identified during this research are the lack of financial resources, a mental state that invoke in individuals the need to show off a final life outcome of accomplishment to personal inner and outer circle; lastly, a fully evolved rebellion against a government that is perceived to be corrupt.

The recommendations for violence will therefore target immediate needs by borrowing the recommended policy related to transportation system under the title of government expenditure and combining it with housing policy.

The Mexican government need to improve the existing housing assistance system which simply creates a pool of donation from workers' salaries and provides credit then continues to withdraw from payments from workers, mostly meagre salaries. This system should be replaced by subsidized housing. Contractors should be assigned to construct two-storey buildings in industrial areas that are close enough to workplaces with all the basic infrastructure at an agreed cost while the government pays subsidy on housing for every individual that is recorded in the database of the government. This should apply to existing buildings that are within a certain price range. The housing law should allow the purchase of apartments by splitting up apartments within a building for individual ownership while maintaining subsidies for house ownership as well. The housing subsidy should be made available to those who can prove they have both formal and informal jobs by presenting turnover evidence in their bank accounts after 3 – 5 years.

To address the “socio-mental” factor that fuels the problem, a re-orientation through TV propaganda, social activities, and school programs. The government of Mexico has to strike an agreement with the US government to restrict and discourage film productions that glamourize Narcotics. Imported luxurious items such as vehicles should

be taxed heavily through the vehicle registration office of Mexico and should attract scrutiny such as sources of income declaration.

Lastly, Mexico must punish corruption in governance as hard as drug trafficking, offenders must be publicly reprimanded to engender trust in the hearts of citizens.

Constraint to the Selected Recommendable Policies

The creation of new states and demarcation of land can lead to new types of crises. As recorded in the case of the demarcation of the Tafawa Balewa local government area in Bauchi state led to ethno-religious conflicts due to the presence of various ethnic groups with different beliefs. Although the creation of new states was effective in reducing conflicts, it also brought about other issues. For example, in 1992, the Zangon-Kataf local government area in Southern-Kaduna witnessed a series of Christian-Muslim clashes that began as a land dispute and resulted in many deaths.

Corruption is a major constraint as recorded in the OMPADEC project that was created to alleviate poverty in Ogoni land where the indigenes formed movements against the environmental pollution of their land and water which are the sources of their livelihood, but corruption and poor project execution caused the program to fail. Lastly, “the Committee for Reconciliation and Search for Peace” in Zangon-Kataf community was formed in 1994 but failed to resolve critical issues, including the release of detainees.

Lastly, massive housing projects could trigger inflation as seen in China’s housing bubble that led to expanses of land with abandoned high rising structures.

FINAL CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this research, according to the objectives, a detailed description of the differences in the economic conditions and standard of living between Mexico and Nigeria have been presented. The highlight of the problem statement is that both countries have similar historical backgrounds politically and economically, but Mexico has managed to grow observably better than Nigeria over the past 48 years, between 1970-2018. The study was divided into two categories; growth and development to capture the essence of Dr. Amartya Sen’s concept of development and Collier Paul’s writing on developing countries.

Following the research questions and problem statements, and to guide the distinguishing of policies that are effective in creating (in this case), Chapter 3 unravels the effect of FDI, interest rate, external debt, government expenditure (on health, education, and welfare) and income on GNI and a regression analysis was run for both the cases of Mexico and Nigeria. The results show that all the variables have a positive effect on GNI except income and interest rate in Mexico while only interest rate had a negative impact in Nigeria. Therefore, in Chapter 6, the recommendations made to ensure increased economic growth are the policies that support the variables. In the case of external debt, the policies that allowed obtaining loans during the periods of low debt/GNI ratio were recommended. For recommendations on FDI, the recommended policies are those that support FDI during the periods of high purchasing power parity; for government expenditure, the policies recommended are those that involved government intensified investment on social welfare in Mexico and infrastructures in Nigeria. Only one policy stood out regarding interest rate policies which is the inflation targeting policy that began during Vincente Fox's administration in year 2000. On income, the recommendation is to maintain a fixed level of minimum wage while ensuring that no devaluations are implemented.

In the development category, income is also featured in combination with employment and by using dummy values in a regression analysis based on a structural change detection analysis. The policies that indicate effective impact are policies that aim to create job opportunities for Mexican nationals through protectionism, compliance with labor standards, financial support to the unemployed and fiscal policies in both countries, and investment in infrastructure and the creation of manufacturing sites. The recommendations made revolved around three concepts: technology transfer, agglomeration, and improved transportation system in Mexico while for Nigeria, investment in public infrastructure and resuscitating the manufacturing sector. On the issue of health, latest technologies for farming were recommended and a shift from rural small-scale farming. For education, increased investment in primary and secondary and promoting technological and managerial studies at tertiary level. Finally, the recommended policies on violence are to ramp up subsidy programs and win back the trust of the people by fighting corruption openly to the same extent in the case of drug trafficking.

ANNEX 2

A2.1 Rate of Crime per 100,000 Habitants, Common and Federal Law, Mexico 1926-2001

Period	Homicides
1926-1930	25
1931-1935	35
1936-1940	38
1941-1945	31
1946-1950	29
1951-1955	22
1956-1960	18
1961-1965	15
1966-1970	14
1971-1975	12
1976-1980	11
1981-1985	9
1986-1990	9
1991-1995	9
1996-2001	7

Source: Pablo Piccato, Estadísticas del Crimen en México: Series históricos, 1901-2001.
<http://www.columbia.edu/~pp143/estadisticascrimen/EstadisticasSigloXX.htm>

A2.2 Rate of homicides per 100,000 people 1990- 2018

1990	17.2652594
1991	17.6909558
1992	19.0571049
1993	18.0986408
1994	17.5683598
1995	17.0319001
1996	15.5721526
1997	14.3239146
1998	14.2166606
1999	12.5650328
2000	10.8564376
2001	10.2544262
2002	9.92085697
2003	9.78550659
2004	8.92599712
2005	9.35897493
2006	9.71735305
2007	8.12215732
2008	12.6390521
2009	17.6083192
2010	22.5754506
2011	23.5212325
2012	22.1421333
2013	19.4088627
2014	16.6257964
2015	17.0378286
2016	19.9126953
2017	25.7089978
2018	29.0710616

Source: World Bank

A2.3 Dummy Variable and Numeric Variables for Income and Employment Policy Analysis, Mexico

Variable	Year	Mexico	PSI	PW	VAT	PE	CAT	EWCCOC	IL	NATFALE	PAUSE	CMW	FER	NP	BMW	NUE	WMMW	Fund	RL	UP	EFES	PEFA	PRE	ILO	TICPG	UNEMP
ABB	1970	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
BI	1971	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
PSI	1972	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
PW	1973	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
VAT	1974	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
PE	1975	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CAT	1976	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
EWCCOC	1977	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
IL	1978	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NATFALE	1979	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
PAUSE	1980	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CMW	1981	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
FER	1982	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NP	1983	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
BMW	1984	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NUE	1985	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
WMMW	1986	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Fund	1987	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
RL	1988	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
UP	1989	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
EFES	1990	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
PEFA	1991	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
PRE	1992	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
ILO	1993	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
TICPG	1994	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
UNEMP	1995	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	1996	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	1997	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	1998	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	1999	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	2000	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	2001	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	2002	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	2003	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	2004	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	2005	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	2006	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	2007	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	2008	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	2009	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	2010	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	2011	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	2012	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	2013	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	2014	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	2015	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	2016	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	2017	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	2018	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Source: TICPG: Dummy variable listed from compiled policies by author, Taxes on Personal Income, Profit, and capital Gains obtained from International Monetary Fund, Government Finance Statistics Yearbook, and data files.

Unemployment: Employment & Unemployment in Mexico, Monthly Labor Review Nov. 1994. Continuous labor force survey, National Urban Employment Survey Provided by Mexican Statistical Institute.

A2.4 Dummy and Numerical Variables on Income and Employment Policy Analysis, Nigeria

ABB	Variables	Year	Nigeria	RCTCE	NIP	TR	SAR	UC	VAT	EBFC	MWA	MWAM	MWA2	NDE	PTP	FTZ	BOI	DCW	STRE-P	NEDP	CTR	TCIT	UNEMP	
BI	Benefit Increase	1970	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6411997	3.1
RCTCE	Restricting the Changing Employment Agency	1971	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8837692	4.9
TR	Trade Union Act	1972	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1222088	3.2
SAR	Strike Act on Rule	1973	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	114766	114.76
UC	Unlaji Commission	1974	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2325943	6.2
VAT	Value Added Tax	1975	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4255066	4.1
EBFC	Economic Recovery Fund Collection (5 months)	1976	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3546116	4.3
MWA	Minimum Wage Act	1977	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5785627	2.1
MWAM	Minimum Wage Amendment	1978	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8294085	1.6
MWA2	Minimum Wage Act 2000	1979	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9549751	2
NDE	National Directorate of Employment	1980	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1059291	1.9
PTP	Peace Tax Program	1981	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6524116	4.1
FTZ	Free Trade Zones	1982	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	451816765	4.2
BOI	BOI Review	1983	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	457751137	5.3
DCW	Decent Country Work	1984	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1026669	7.9
STRE-P	Stability Restoration & Empowerment Program	1985	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	451123662	6.1
NEDP	National Enterprise Development Program	1986	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	456283759	5.3
CTR	Corporate Income Tax Rate	1987	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	403025609	7
TCIT	Total Company Income Tax	1988	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	403418413	5.1
UNEMP	Unemployment	1989	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	402592929	4.1
		1990	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	40372878	3.5
		1991	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	403862862	3.1
		1992	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	353181613	3.1
		1993	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	32313499	3.2
		1994	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	35456060	3.2
		1995	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	359092385	1.9
		1996	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	301008281	2.8
		1997	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	301187571	3.4
		1998	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	301187571	3.5
		1999	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	301187571	3.5
		2000	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	301187571	3.5
		2001	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	301187571	3.5
		2002	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	301187571	3.5
		2003	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	301187571	3.5
		2004	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	301187571	3.5
		2005	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	301187571	3.5
		2006	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	301187571	3.5
		2007	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	301187571	3.5
		2008	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	301187571	3.5
		2009	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	301187571	3.5
		2010	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	301187571	3.5
		2011	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	301187571	3.5
		2012	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	301187571	3.5
		2013	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	301187571	3.5
		2014	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	301187571	3.5
		2015	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	301187571	3.5
		2016	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	301187571	3.5
		2017	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	301187571	3.5
		2018	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	301187571	3.5

Source: Dummy variable listed from compiled policies by author, Company Income Tax Rate (CTR) obtained from Nigeria data, <https://taxfoundation.org/publications/corporate-tax-rates-around-the-world/>, Taxes on income, profits, and capital gains (% of total taxes) (TCIT): CBN, Statistical Bulletin, Vol 2007, Unemployment: National Bureau of Statistics)

A2.5 Data on School Enrollment, Mexico, 1970-2018

Year	GNI	Government expenditure on Education (current US dollars) billion	Primary Enrollment	Secondary Enrollment	Tertiary Enrollment
1970	700	0.61	6470110	528725	97157
1971	750	0.64	6825958	598769	109357
1972	840	0.78	7182956	702508	140848
1973	1010	0.83	7639989	742408	174528
1974	1230	0.89	8070182	862096	197100
1975	1480	1.11	8336690	922048	222100
1976	1560	0.75	8669654	1024929	246150
1977	1490	4.84	2691217	1102217	1359711
1978	1600	6.13	9248290	1584342	1405452
1979	1900	6.67	9711496	1757018	1569142
1980	2570	6.81	10195167	2017093	1697974
1981	3280	12.09	10762665	2289850	2226419
1982	3010	3.24	10999713	2554041	2700626
1983	2420	3.55	11461415	2938972	3036542
1984	2230	4.19	12148221	3263507	3082584
1985	2310	4.73	12560035	3502830	3558921
1986	2110	3.79	13536265	3914251	4058957
1987	2090	3.63	14126414	4285016	4669576
1988	2140	4.18	14666257	4741850	5115121
1989	2430	5.05	14981028	5332131	5498459
1990	2860	6.07	15222916	5716238	5752895
1991	3330	7.98	15376153	6064264	6094815
1992	3860	10.91	15219245	6247856	6269127
1993	4590	25.04	15124160	6549105	6666433
1994	5420	19.25	14994642	6702732	6764027
1995	4880	13.30	14768008	6806073	7278130
1996	4700	19.73	14656357	6865763	7286553
1997	4730	24.02	14493763	6795244	7314872
1998	5070	17.72	14401588	6704297	7280470
1999	5580	21.22	14396993	6704188	1306621
2000	6280	28.26	14425669	6782886	7354213
2001	6800	32.09	14469450	6977086	7791691
2002	7150	34.40	14574202	7264620	8292550
2003	7410	37.00	14623438	7589414	9119011
2004	7860	36.97	14650521	7914165	9672906
2005	8100	42.52	14647797	8406782	10491451
2006	8750	45.84	14697915	8721726	11329661
2007	9330	49.38	14765603	9094103	12291607
2008	9880	53.50	14792528	9357144	13030697
2009	8940	46.69	14843381	9692976	13824250
2010	9170	54.57	14857191	10188185	14592874
2011	9430	60.27	14781327	10403853	15382816
2012	10180	61.29	14700005	10564404	16053860
2013	10400	59.85	14595195	10883455	16762642
2014	10640	69.20	14631498	11122276	17550200
2015	10310	61.35	14699146	11444055	18413136
2016	9530	52.95	14861232	11474843	19139653
2017	9060	52.42	14906476	11681530	20236502
2018	9350	42.09	14934663	11836424	21208078

Source: Secretaría de Educación Pública

A2.6 Data on School Enrolment, Nigeria 1977-2018

Year	GNI/CAP	Govt. Expenditure	Pry Enrolment	Sec. Enrolment	Tertiary Enrolment
1977	570	39.57	3515827	356565	3894.53
1978	560	5.85	9248290	395575	4746.08
1979	650	7.22	9711496	451042	6400
1980	760	10.88	10195167	516658	11521
1981	980	39.14	10762665		14100
1982	1260	72.12	10999713		252409
1983	1460	82.27	11461415		285973
1984	1130	38.29	12148221	745717	373757
1985	970	22.72	12560035	904931	431350
1986	790	18.81	13536265	1131112	611751
1987	710	15.72	14126414	1451242	718794
1988	680	0.27	14666257	1864713	927120
1989	550	0.28	14981028	2345604	1090685
1990	560	0.22	15222916	2880280	1193237
1991	510	0.26	15376153	3393186	1282033
1992	510	0.29	15219245	3561207	1486549
1993	360	0.15	15124160	2988174	1591707
1994	310	0.06	14994642	3088711	1601441
1995	310	0.32	14768008		1820747
1996	380	0.41	14656357	2956376	2002404
1997	440	0.3	14493763	3125192	326557
1998	440	0.13	14401588	516196	368897
1999	450	0.02	14396993	618139	376122
2000	460	0.4	14425669	636777	383488
2001	530	0.34	14469450	757223	
2002	630	0.45	14574202	531117	391035
2003	700	0.53	14623438	4201334	689619
2004	860	0.68	14650521	5578255	862023
2005	1020	0.62	14647797	5795807	941329
2006	1330	0.47	14697915	3844585	3901384.195
2007	1600	0.57	14765603	4104345	1032873
2008	1950	0.36	14792528	4601105	1136160
2009	2030	0.67	14843381	5124270	1249776
2010	2130	0.5	14857191	7091376	6860299.466
2011	2180	0.58	14781327	6279562	7197712.558
2012	2450	0.63	14700005	6397581	7806660.738
2013	2700	0.93	14595195	6436449	1096059
2014	2970	1.2	14631498	6068160	661493
2015	2850	1.38	14699146	6888700	577029
2016	2440	0.92	14861232	7827318	605068
2017	2070	1.14	14906476	9056768	8075474.565
2018	1980	2.18	14934663	9591205	8799453.164

Source: National Bureau of Statistics

A2.7 Data on Health, Mexico, 1970-2018

Year	Life Expectancy	Adult Mortality Rate	Child Mortality rate under 5
1970	61.36	262.10	106.6
1971	61.83	258.55	102.8
1972	62.33	255.06	99.1
1973	62.85	252.04	95.4
1974	63.38	249.83	91.8
1975	63.92	248.77	88.3
1976	64.47	248.59	84.8
1977	65.01	248.59	81.4
1978	65.54	247.99	78.1
1979	66.06	245.97	74.8
1980	66.55	241.76	71.6
1981	67.03	235.47	68.4
1982	67.49	227.96	65.4
1983	67.94	220.10	62.5
1984	68.38	212.60	59.7
1985	68.81	206.11	57.1
1986	69.23	200.79	54.5
1987	69.65	196.47	52.1
1988	70.06	192.95	49.7
1989	70.47	190.03	47.5
1990	70.87	187.53	45.4
1991	71.25	185.21	43.3
1992	71.61	182.86	41.3
1993	71.95	180.22	39.4
1994	72.28	177.05	37.5
1995	72.60	173.14	35.8
1996	72.93	168.52	34.1
1997	73.27	163.55	32.5
1998	73.63	158.56	31
1999	73.99	153.86	29.6
2000	74.34	149.72	28.3
2001	74.66	146.31	27
2002	74.92	143.73	25.9
2003	75.12	142.02	24.8
2004	75.24	141.26	23.8
2005	75.30	141.63	22.9
2006	75.30	142.72	22.1
2007	75.26	144.36	21.3
2008	75.19	145.93	20.5
2009	75.13	146.81	19.8
2010	75.07	146.33	19.2
2011	75.01	144.48	18.5
2012	74.97	142.19	17.9
2013	74.93	140.43	17.3
2014	74.91	140.10	16.8
2015	74.90	142.06	16.2
2016	74.92	146.21	15.7
2017	74.95	150.77	15.2
2018	74.99	153.61	14.7

Source: Life Expectancy, Adult Mortality Rate: World Bank

Child Mortality Rate: UNICEF Data Warehouse

https://data.unicef.org/resources/data_explorer/unicef_f/?ag=UNICEF&df=GLOBAL_DATAFLOW&ver=1.0&dq=MEX.CM.E_MRY0T4.&startPeriod=1970&endPeriod=2021

A2.8 Data on Health, Nigeria. 1970-2018

Year	Life Expectancy	Child Mortality	Adult Mortality Rate
1970	41.18	293.40	409.681
1971	41.60	285.35	405.22
1972	42.04	277.11	400.758
1973	42.49	268.82	395.959
1974	42.94	260.44	391.159
1975	43.40	252.35	386.36
1976	43.86	244.80	381.56
1977	44.32	237.55	376.761
1978	44.76	231.37	373.172
1979	45.18	226.00	369.583
1980	47.70	221.70	365.994
1981	48.10	218.77	362.405
1982	50.00	216.76	358.816
1983	48.00	216.06	358.977
1984	49.30	216.16	359.137
1985	49.70	216.82	359.298
1986	51.00	217.85	359.459
1987	50.50	218.85	359.62
1988	51.00	219.53	359.761
1989	51.00	219.90	359.901
1990	52.00	219.78	360.042
1991	52.00	219.16	360.183
1992	52.00	218.36	360.324
1993	52.00	217.17	363.801
1994	52.00	215.70	367.277
1995	52.00	213.57	370.754
1996	53.00	210.67	374.231
1997	53.00	206.90	377.707
1998	54.00	202.53	380.914
1999	54.00	197.36	384.12
2000	54.00	191.81	387.326
2001	54.00	186.25	390.532
2002	54.00	180.43	393.739
2003	54.00	174.77	389.439
2004	54.00	169.26	385.14
2005	54.00	163.78	380.84
2006	54.00	158.76	376.541
2007	54.00	154.00	372.241
2008	54.00	149.81	368.101
2009	54.00	146.26	363.961
2010	54.00	143.30	359.82
2011	47.60	140.83	355.68
2012	47.60	138.76	351.54
2013	52.50	136.96	346.913
2014	52.90	135.31	342.287
2015	52.90	133.59	337.66
2016	53.40	131.74	333.034
2017	53.90	129.30	328.407
2018	52.55	113.34	324.961

SOURCE: Adult Mortality Rate: World Bank. Child Mortality Rates: <https://data.unicef.org/topic/child-survival/under-five-mortality/FOS> Socio economic Profile of Nigeria 1996, CBN annual report various issues.

A2.9 Food Supply: Calories, Protein and Fat per capita per day 1970-2018

Year	Food & Nutrition Index	Food supply (kcal per capita per day)	Food supply (Protein g per capita per day)	Food supply (Fat g per capita per day)
1970	0.7	2013.1825	45.869854	50.465927
1971	0.8	1886.2361	43.53708	49.106834
1972	1.0	1673.639	37.285236	44.596664
1973	0.9	1788.1567	41.164017	45.128704
1974	0.7	1900.4778	45.08957	50.925518
1975	0.8	1856.8772	44.27782	45.542038
1976	0.9	1774.8524	41.963017	46.73913
1977	0.8	1801.3169	39.610744	50.67786
1978	0.8	1808.8646	39.641075	50.467934
1979	0.9	1757.315	39.47885	48.143955
1980	0.8	1878.0244	42.904625	50.02677
1981	0.8	1894.8771	43.84107	48.777218
1982	0.8	1884.2888	44.10401	49.778976
1983	0.9	1734.2091	40.1802	45.08341
1984	0.9	1762.428	41.622658	42.7889
1985	0.8	1870.0598	43.845524	45.58208
1986	0.7	2015.3438	45.46567	51.939262
1987	0.8	1980.2605	45.38934	45.951683
1988	0.7	2027.4374	46.49643	48.756954
1989	0.7	2112.885	48.949005	49.76281
1990	0.6	2201.272	49.8098	53.173973
1991	0.5	2348.569	50.58611	53.959858
1992	0.5	2443.9602	51.419556	55.666862
1993	0.4	2533.075	53.66225	59.27235
1994	0.4	2507.038	53.73084	58.53432
1995	0.4	2566.6194	56.433556	57.706345
1996	0.4	2560.8333	57.238033	58.94125
1997	0.4	2603.2898	57.81527	59.548126
1998	0.3	2634.979	59.24947	60.471313
1999	0.3	2636.0012	59.567818	61.810375
2000	0.4	2610.5315	58.89199	59.58213
2001	0.3	2609.9412	58.211773	62.306976
2002	0.3	2597.8025	58.77715	63.045326
2003	0.3	2596.8367	59.00634	63.53687
2004	0.3	2640.287	60.204514	64.49063
2005	0.3	2687.5806	61.75971	66.290344
2006	0.2	2705.841	62.854946	67.06514
2007	0.3	2699.6948	63.949024	65.40805
2008	0.3	2702.012	63.15941	64.61808
2009	0.3	2662.1875	63.52338	57.16311
2010	0.4	2597.847	61.164623	55.797577
2011	0.4	2589.7078	60.423237	55.77908
2012	0.4	2577.1265	59.880585	56.134357
2013	0.4	2555.952	59.180122	54.726864
2014	0.4	2589.346	60.086987	58.936386
2015	0.4	2583.2305	58.67398	57.65999
2016	0.4	2573.5383	59.267277	56.86228
2017	0.4	2570.6748	60.094208	59.45302

2018	0.4	2545.349	59.358566	57.94668
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Source: Our World in Data; UN Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO).

A2.10 Food Supply: Calories, Protein and Fat per capita per day 1970-2018

Year	Food & Nutrition Index	Food supply (kcal per capita per day)	Food supply (Protein g per capita per day)	Food supply (Fat g per capita per day)
1970	0.571478826	2675.2515	70.31097	58.931396
1971	0.58252639	2670.3682	71.0202	58.04232
1972	0.688516912	2711.1318	72.07566	60.510693
1973	0.691118495	2752.5754	72.41569	62.117226
1974	0.618975942	2776.2847	73.14321	64.944855
1975	0.719580886	2854.5212	73.66032	66.8368
1976	0.705783606	2822.8816	73.292	67.30598
1977	0.665723735	2859.3774	74.86999	70.5935
1978	0.691835781	2935.555	76.508354	74.46005
1979	0.734932598	2966.374	76.40913	75.61754
1980	0.71017046	3116.285	86.59926	78.639694
1981	0.746054254	3259.5713	91.10803	83.109726
1982	0.768605747	3254.3076	87.77903	89.72205
1983	0.867738643	3228.7185	86.514694	92.46726
1984	0.879766764	3165.6362	81.85773	85.026474
1985	0.82948699	3222.6335	85.44814	87.01839
1986	0.72924107	3182.6775	84.395645	87.32308
1987	0.814104353	3080.016	82.00843	83.24085
1988	0.776266445	3154.9026	83.38705	86.41416
1989	0.73811763	3129.9272	80.10848	82.41021
1990	0.664721034	3127.2795	81.93704	78.966705
1991	0.68906552	3151.7476	83.132744	84.78824
1992	0.66431216	3168.1843	84.18922	84.664444
1993	0.630849767	3181.768	84.74842	86.51489
1994	0.642766667	3182.8745	85.36035	87.15039
1995	0.64542211	3145.853	84.65281	85.32079
1996	0.643101752	3174.387	84.57603	87.88732
1997	0.642807662	3151.2266	86.45428	88.65281
1998	0.632042349	3156.335	87.23213	88.62385
1999	0.607132615	3167.176	88.91884	86.89023
2000	0.633295315	3223.1963	91.37873	88.258484
2001	0.609134064	3269.543	92.91437	89.92568
2002	0.612303718	3281.5513	92.9579	92.16474
2003	0.605063526	3279.7837	92.16942	91.66305
2004	0.608911812	3267.386	91.88668	94.03337
2005	0.603782204	3218.758	91.42743	95.47057
2006	0.586717135	3229.6624	92.32701	93.57524
2007	0.609128906	3250.6636	92.92851	95.53869
2008	0.618241053	3227.3154	92.43812	95.44636
2009	0.694838905	3190.2478	91.07356	94.1034
2010	0.729448298	3173.4067	89.62593	97.523964
2011	0.735458789	3148.026	88.59271	98.251656
2012	0.733243616	3154.8386	88.9312	98.91037
2013	0.751603072	3146.6836	90.17589	98.797356
2014	0.695894472	3183.2952	90.88759	98.6406
2015	0.716500085	3195.796	91.096924	100.24515
2016	0.730203316	3215.2852	91.67825	101.654976
2017	0.703405692	3220.0056	91.91744	102.58308

2018	0.730162022	3225.6511	92.556854	105.09314
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Source: Our World in Data; UN Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO).

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