Political Instability-Development Nexus: Empirical evidence from a small open economy

Owen Affor Maku

Department of Economics, Delta State University, Abraka E-mail: makuowen@gmail.com; makuaffor@delsu.edu.ng



he uncertainties connected with an unstable political environment may induce negative returns to investment and acceleration of development process. One important theoretical argument essential to this relationship is built on the outcome of uncertainty on productive economic decisions such as production and investment. In analyzing the relationship existing between political instability and economic development, the time-series analytical technique was adopted covering the period of 22 years (1996-2017). The Ordinary Least Square (OLS) technique was adopted, alongside other preliminary test; the unit root and Johansen cointegration test analysis. Thereafter, the Error Correction Method (ECM) was adopted to ascertain the long run relationship. Empirical result revealed that political stability and absence of terrorism showed a negative and significant relationship to real gross domestic product. It is thus recommended that for developing economies to be able to escape this cycle, making the necessary reforms in institutional structure and adapting policies of their own is a necessity confronting them.

Keywords: Political Instability, Development, Environment, Institution Quality, Nigeria

1. Introduction

Institutions exert robust influence on macroeconomic performances of economies by means of influencing transaction costs by decreasing uncertainty, re-directing economic activities to productive sectors and by developing trust and enhancing cooperation. The formation, development and effective functioning of institutions vary extensively among economies thus causing differences in development trajectories of countries'; making some countries relatively poor while making others rich Yildirim (2015). Development crisis has been and is still a penultimate issue in development states', coupled with series of contradiction which is prevalent in every facet of every economy, including Nigeria. Currently, the crisis of development poses serious problem due to the fact that the African continent remains largely under-developed amidst abundant human and natural resources. Several decades following the closing stages of colonialism, most economies in Africa including Nigeria are still facing inherent challenges such as basic infrastructural deficit; insecurity of lives and property (Alumona; 2009). For instance, Nigeria, being the most populous African country earning over US\$500 billion in oil revenue since the 1970 has remained mired in deepening poverty, rising unemployment, bourgeoning domestic and external debt, infrastructural deficit, abysmal education and health services and attendant unrest and social frustration (Suberu, 2007).

Since the individuals who provide the funds for capital accumulation must be realistically assured that they will be able to acquire the earnings generated by their savings, the security of lives and property is relatively seen as an important determinant of savings and capital accumulation. Increased levels of political violence reduce the security of property rights, leading to a decrease in savings and capital accumulation. In addition, political instability supports capital-flight, including 'brain drain,' and thus discourages the free flow of foreign capital. The quest for stability and development is without doubt, and continues to remain a major concern for many emerging and developing countries; a never ending, vet elusive search for that condition under which these countries would be able to develop institutions and concrete structures with the capacity to ensure growth, equitable distribution of nations' surpluses, political stability and accountability. As scary as they appear, it is probable to bicker that there are certain levels which all economies, emerging and even those which are developing, aspire to reach. Every country seeks to attaining high-quality of life for its citizenry, strong and diversified economic-base, internal cohesion and political stability. How and to what extent these aspirations are attained largely depend on certain critical factors. For one, human and natural resources are fundamental, but the capacity to effectively harness and utilize them is principally the realm of administrative capacity, technological expertise as well as political leadership (Orubu & Awopegba, 2004).

The aim of the study is to examine the relationship between political instability and the development process in emerging economies, with particular reference to the Nigerian economy. Specifically, it attempts to present additional evidence to show that political instability constrains economic development in Nigeria. For easy leeway, the study is structured into five sections. The introductory chapter which gives a general overview of the study is followed by chapter two which reviews relevant literature. Chapter three focuses on the research methodology. Chapter four constitutes empirical analysis; and statistical analysis. The results obtained are interpreted in the same section. Conclusively, chapter five presents the summary of major findings in the research study, policy recommendations of the findings and conclusion.

2. Literature review

2.1 Africa's political structure and leadership problem

The political composition and other related issues is today essentially a fundamental consequence of its leadership problem. At internal levels, governments in developing economies are patterned in dimensions which have been regarded as far from modern, upon which they are modelled (Tutu, 2004). However, it should be noted here that leadership is not a new concept to the cultural practices and traditions in developing countries. The context may be dissimilar, but systems of governance had characteristics which can be exemplified in modern systems of governance. These internal factors have contributed appreciably in shaping economic and political transitions in Nigeria. As argued by O'Donnell and Schmitter (1986), 'Domestic factors play leading role in this transition'. These domestic factors repeatedly range from 'corrupt rulers, repression, a colonial legacy, 'swollen' states, and inefficient political arrangement and the obliteration of democracy from above (Diamond, Linz & Lipset, 1989; Lipset (1989). However, the international contexts seldom play an important role in the transition and the presence of violence in particular (Lupo, 2004). Conversely, Linz & Stepan (1996) stress the relevance of 'international influences', which includes foreign-policies and the distribution effect which adversely affect the stability of developing countries. Nonetheless, positive developments have witnessed the reversal of some of these negative situations in terms of people involvement in bringing change. For this rationale, many economies have witnessed increased level of political awareness, as citizens are demanding full accountability of their governments.

The pace is somewhat slow and occasionally experience setbacks, particularly by the few remaining big guns, including Nigeria. However, it is important to be cautious about these developments, as global events keep unfolding, thus generating new challenges for the African economy. In this regard, concerted efforts towards fast-tracking critical political processes, establishment and formation of institutional and legislative frameworks that can withstand international and domestic pressures, needs to be sped-up. The political stability generated from these framework and re-distributive systems is therefore critical to Africa's development.

2.2 Comparative analysis of institutional structure in emerging/developing economies

Institution-developing countries are usually plagued by lack of ample activity in supporting-productive investments and at the same time solving the lowefficiency problem. The effect of institutions on development performance takes shape in relation to the qualifications present (Edison, 2003). The immaturity of bureaucratic institutions performing economic-operations increases the cost-of-doingbusiness. Particularly in Latin-America and Africa, the fundamental weakness in terms of growth and development is the political institutions arrangements, which are usually inconsistent with the

interests of its citizens, thus providing irrelevant public services. In aforementioned regions, the applicability and reliability of contracts are limited. The uncertainties and manipulative white-spaces in the judicial system, bribery, ill-defined property rights, tax evasion and the existence of in-efficient institutions causes those countries to become risky and unattractive (Luiz, 2009; Fosu, Bates & Hoeffler, 2006; Baliamoune, 2005; Birdsall, 2007; Charnock, 2009).

According to the data on the table 2.1; Taiwan and Chile draw attraction as emerging countries having the strongest institutional structure in relation to all six institutional indices while Nigeria and Venezuela are having the weakest institutional structure from all six indicators of institutional quality. According to table 2.1, while Taiwan and are at a more successful point in being politically stable, Nigeria and Venezuela have displayed a bad performance. The data contained in table 2.1 reflects the weakness of institutional structures in developing and some emerging countries. Nevertheless, when the aforementioned countries are appraised among themselves, the striking-point is that, Taiwan always takes precedence among the stronger nations in terms of institutional development, while Nigeria and Venezuela are always among countries with increasing weak institutional development.

Table 2.1: Institutional Indicators in Developing/Emerging Countries (2017)

	Asian Economies		African Economies		Latin America (Majors)				
	China	India	Taiwan	Nigeria	Senegal	Egypt	Venezuela	Brazil	Chile
Voice and Accountability	-1.45	0.38	0.98	-0.41	0.24	-1.28	-1.41	0.39	1.05
Political Stability and Absence of violence	-0.26	-0.96	0.85	-2.19	-0.09	-1.16	-1.34	-0.36	0.43
Government Effectiveness	0.48	0.28	1.36	-1.02	-0.27	-0.58	-1.58	-0.45	1.08
Regulatory Quality	-0.14	-0.18	1.36	-0.88	-0.11	-0.87	-2.33	-0.31	1.34
Rule of Law	-0.20	0.03	1.11	-0.88	-0.21	-0.41	-2.34	-0.28	1.12
Control of Corruption	-0.27	-0.19	1.03	-1.04	-0.02	-0.59	-1.47	-0.42	1.01

Source: World Governance statistics; N.B: Estimate of governance (ranges from approximately -2.5 (weak) to 2.5 (strong) governance performances)

2.4 **Empirical Review**

Relevant literature as regards political instability and other institutional performance index and economic development nexus are summarised in the table 2.2

Research Methodology 3.

This section empirically describes the procedures employed for the analysis of data. The core purpose of employing this method is to facilitate a comparison of our results with those of other cross section studies in the recent literature such as those of Barro (1991). Despite the probable draw-backs mentioned experienced in several literatures, if adopted accurately, the time-series analysis presents the advantage of revealing dynamic changes which occurs within an economy due to policy (political) and development interactions. Such analysis was conducted by Burkhart & Lewis-Beck (1994), Przeworki et al. (2000) and Gasiorowski (1995). As a quantitative model, the time-series approach of analytical methods was adopted (Barro, 1991, 1996;

Przeworki, 2000; Feng, 2003) with relevant modifications. The multivariate equation is thus:

(1);

$$X_t$$

$$x_t y_t$$

The variable t refers to the time-period, x represents sets of economic variables adopted in the model, y represents sets of institutional index (political instability) which determines the occurrence of government change with a mix of economic-variables which will capture the interplay of policy variables on other variables, and ε is the error term. In its explicit form:

$$RGDP_{t} = {}_{0} = {}_{1}POLS_{t} = {}_{2}INF_{t} = {}_{3}GDS_{t} = {}_{t} (2);$$

Where

RGDP= Gross Domestic Producper capita (measured in millions)

POLS = Political Instability and absence of violence/stimate of governance (ranges from approximately-2.5 (weak) to 2.5 (strong) governance performances)

INF = Inflation rate (measures in percentage)

GDS = Saving rate (percent of GDP) ₃ = coefficient of parameters

= error term

 \boldsymbol{g}_t

S /N	Authors	Period	Country(ies) Studied	Results
1	Grossman and	1960-1990	118 market	Institutional struc ture has a meaningful and
	Elhanan (1991)		economies	significant impact on economic growth
2	Amja and Yeats	1950-1982	113 countries	The impact of democratic institutions was not
_	(1995)			found significant to the economic development
3	Ali & Crain (2002)	1975-1989	119 countries	Aside from economic freedom, political regimes
				and civil freedom was found to be insignificant to
				growth.
4	Dollar and Kraay	1980-2004	102 countries	There is minimal evidence to suggest that
	(2003)			institutions have negative impact on development
7	Asiedu (2005)	1984-2000	22 African countries	The countries can attract more FDI by less
				corruption, political stability and good legal
				system
8	Busse & Carsten	1984-2003	83 developing	Democratic rights, government stability and
	(2007)		countries	ensuring law and order are highly significant
-		1001 0000		determinants of FDI
9	Lindert (2004)	1984-2002	145 countries	Corruption must be analyzed as a directly
				unproductive profit seeking activity, such as tariff
10	F1 141 1/	1006 2000	1.15	evasion or smuggling
10	Fabro and Aixala	1996-2000	145 countries	Institutional quality was found to exhibit
	(2009)			significant effect on economic development level
				in high income countries than in poor countries
11	Valariani & Daluga	1050 2000	191 countries	Institutional quality had a neg itiya affect on
11	(2011)	1930-2009	181 countries	aconomia growth. The magnitude of the effects
	(2011)			differs when considered in terms of emerging and
				developing countries
12	Favissa & Neiah	1995 to 2004	39 SSA countries	Their results suggested that all governance
12	(2013)	1995 10 2004	59 SSA countries	indicators had signific ant effects on per capita
	(2015)			income growth of SSA countries such that the
				magnitude and significance of this impact
				depends on the proxy of good governance
				indicator used.
13	Orubu C.O (2013)	1996-2012	35 countries (20	The findings reveal that countries with relatively
-			African countries and	strong degree of effective government exhibit
			15 others)	upward intercept shifts, thus underscoring the
			,	relevance of the role that governments could play
				in reducing the level of corruption in the
				economy
14	Leyaro (2016)	1996 to 2012	46 SSA countries	His finding shows that institutional improvement
				matters for the recent growth in Africa.
15	Oluwatoyin and	1985 to 2012	30 SSA countries	Their findings reveal that institutions have
	Folasade (2014)			significant effect on gr owth while openness only
				has little significance on economic growth in the
				selected SSA countries.
16	Kilishi, Mobolaji,	1996 to 2010	36 SSA countries	Their findings reveals that institutions really
	Yaru, & Yakubu			matter for SSA economic performanc e, among
	(2013)			which regulatory quality and rule of law appeared
				to be core and as such, economic performance of
				the region could be enhanced by improving these
1				institutional development indicators.

 Table 2.2:
 Summary of related literature review

Source: Author's Computation

 Table 2.2 (contd.):
 Summary of related literature review

S /N	Authors	Period	Country(ies) Studied	Results
17	Zureiqat (2005)		25 countries (Africa,	The empirical results confirmed that the
			Eastern and Central and	measured instable indices had significant impact
			Europe, Latin -America,	on growth of the economies of these countries
			the Middle -East, and	
			South-East Asia)	
18	Farida and Ahmadi		Lebanon	The results revealed that corruption has adverse
	(2008)			and indirect effect on GDP
19	Aisen & Veiga	1960-2004	169 nations	The study fo und that political instability was
	(2013)			dependent on gross domestic product in the
				economy. The lower the rate of growth of GDP,
				the greater the stability of political systems.
20	Kaplan &	1984-2012	28 countries	The results also found that political-instability has
	Akçoraoğlu (2017)			a depressing effect on growth levels, while
				democracy had no significant impact on the
				growth of such countries

Source: Author's Computation

S /N	Variables	Definition	Expected sign	Source
1	Per capita GDP	This indicates the individual performance of the		World Development
	(RGDPg)	economy. And as such, the higher the per capita		Indicator
		GDP, the better the quality of life.		
2	Political stability	It measures perceptions of the likelihood of	Negative (-)	WDI
	and absence of	political instability and/or politically -motivated		
	violence (POLS)	violence, including terrorism, as the value ranges		
		from approximately -2.5 (weak) to 2.5 (strong)		
		governance performances.		
3	Inflation rate (INF)	The effect of price change on development	Negative (-)/	WDI
		depends on the trade -off between the variables	Positive(+)	
		which the economy can achieve.		
4	Savings rate	Savings is expected to have a positive effect on	Positive (+)	World Development
		growth. Support for this intuition can be observed		Indicator
		in Lewis's (1955) traditional development theory		
		which showed that increasing savings would		
		accelerate growth		

Table 3.1: Definition and Nomenclature of variables

Source: Compiled by Author

4. Empirical Results

The empirical analysis commences with the trend analysis which is adopted to buttress the of policy variables as it affects the functioning of the economy under the period of review. For long run analysis under the Johansen cointegration test analysis is conducted after testing for the unit root.

Trend Analysis

The graphical analysis in figure 1a and 1b captures the trend analysis for each variable which include real



Figure 1a: Trend analysis of Macroeconomic Variables for Nigeria



Figure 1b: Trend Analysis of Political Statility and Absence of Violence for Nigeria Descriptive Statistics

gross domestic product, political stability and absence of violence, inflation rate, and gross domestic savings as a ratio of GDP. From the trend analysis, it is seen that political stability and absence of terrorism which is used as a core policy variables show decline overtime. This implies that policies have had negative effect on its target variables which include both growth and developmental variables. It is generally said that an unstable economy throws off unstable data which reflects in the performance of the economy. This is typical to the Nigerian economy.

> The descriptive statistics of the variables shows that economic growth has a mean value of (6.89) with maximum and minimum values (8.07) and (6.95)respectively. The implication of this is such that the economy on the average can experience growth greater that is current mean value. The standard deviation of (0.91) suggests that there is little or no deviation in the true relationship as expressed by the mean value. Gross domestic savings has a mean value of (7.03) with maximum and minimum values (15.04) and (1.48) respectively. The implication of this result suggests that gross savings can increase far above the mean value and can also experience low decline. Political stability and absence of terrorism has a mean value (-1.68) with maximum and minimum value (-0.59) and (-2.21). The implication of this is that the political structure and policy structure overtime have yielded negative outcome on the average. Its impact on the economy could be far deteriorating as seen by the maximum value.

	RGDP	GDS	INF	POLS			
Panel A: Descriptive Statistics (level value)							
Mean	1413.227	7.039	11.521	-1.680			
Median	1053.352	6.538	9.750	-1.870			
Maximum	3203.244	15.045	29.300	-0.590			
Minimum	273.869	1.485	5.070	-2.210			
Std. Dev.	1099.156	3.764	5.585	0.470			
Jarque-Bera	2.797	1.598	15.033	5.441			
Probability	0.246	0.449	0.000	0.065			
P	anel B: Descripti	ve Statistics (1	natural log value,)			
Mean	6.894	1.797	2.350	-			
Median	6.959	1.873	2.276	-			
Maximum	8.071	2.711	3.377	-			
Minimum	5.612	0.395	1.623	-			
Std. Dev.	0.914	0.602	0.430	-			
Jarque-Bera	2.265	1.198	0.937	-			
Probability	17.563	7.624	3.893	-			
	Panel C	: Correlation	Matrix				
	RGDP	GDS	INF	POLS			
RGDP	1						
GDS	0.709**	1					
INF	-0.368	-0.406	1				
POLS	-0.706**	-0.137	0.161	1			
~	. ~ .						

 Table 4.1: Summary Statistics for period (1996-2017)

Source: Author's Computation using E-views 10

Table 4.2: Stationarity Test

0.1		At le	vel	First Difference			
		ADF (prob.)	PP (prob.)	ADF (prob.)	PP (prob.)	DW	Decision
RGDP	(-4.467)*	-2.308	-2.255	-5.331	-5.322	1.93	I(1)
	(-3.644)**	(0.411)	(0.437)	(0.001)	(0.002)		
	(-3.261)***						
GDS	(-4.532)*	-0.842	-0.356	-5.532	-7.986	1.91	I(1)
	(-3.673)**	(0.942)	(0.982)	(0.001)	(0.000)		
	(-3.277)***						
INF	(-4.467)*	-5.268	-5.086	-6.899 (0.000)**	-17.733	2.25	I(1)
	(-3.644)**	(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.000)	(0.000)		
	(-3.261)***						
POLS	(-4.467)*	-1.936	-1.916	-5.418	-8.754	1.88	I(1)
	(-3.644)**	(0.000)	(0.010)	(0.002)	(0.000)		
	(-3.261)***						

Source: Author's Computation using Eviews 10

Table 4.3:Johansen Co-integration test for model

Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test (Trace)							
Hypothesized No. of CE(s)	Eigen-value	Trace Statistics	0.05 Critical value	Prob. (**)			
None*	0.750	48.179	47.856	0.046			
At most 1	0.396	20.399	29.797	0.396			
At most 2	0.261	10.313	15.494	0.257			
At most 3*	0.191	4.251	3.841	0.039			
Unrestricted	Cointegration .	Rank Test (Ma	ximum Eigen Valı	ue)			
Hypothesized No. of	Eigen-value	Trace	0.05 Critical	Prob. (**)			
CE(s)		Statistics	value				
None*	0.750	27.779	27.584	0.047			
At most 1	0.396	10.085	21.131	0.736			
At most 2	0.261	6.062	14.264	0.605			
At most 3*	0.191	4.251	3.841	0.039			

Source: Author's Computation using E-views 10

From the correlation analysis, political stability and absence of terrorism show negative relationships to gross domestic savings with correlation coefficient (-0.137). This implies that political instability affects domestic savings negatively. With regards to change of government and policy inefficiency, bulk of the country's resources is being wasted and underutilized leading to a decline in per capita income and having a multiplier effect on the savings and consumption function. And once savings reduces overtime, this affects the investment position of the economy.

Unit root Test

The Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) unit root test was adopted to access whether or not the variables are stationary and their order of integration. The result of the ADF unit root test is shown below;

The result of the ADF unit root test for gross domestic savings, real gross domestic product and political stability were originally nonstationary but became stationary at first difference. Other variables such as inflation rate and political stability and absence of terrorism were stationary at level, I (1). This thus permits us to proceeds to the next stage which is the cointegration test.

Cointegration Test

The Johansen methodology which has the advantage over other cointegration techniques will be used to test for the long-run relationship among the variables. A key advantage is that it allows for more than one cointegrating equation. The result of the Johansen cointegration test is shown in the table 4.3 below;

The guideline for selecting or deciding whether co-integration exist or not is that if the probability value is greater than 0.05, then we accept the null hypothesis, implying that there is no co-integration among

Panel D: Ordinary Least Square (OLS) Estimates							
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Stat.	Prob.			
GDS	0.663	0.122	5.413	0.000**			
INF	-0.100	0.171	-0.584	0.566			
POLS	-1.556	0.138	-11.236	0.000**			
С	3.321	0.603	5.498	0.000			
R-Squared = 0.9	909						
Adjusted R-Squ	ared = 0.894						
D. W Stat. = 1.7	77						
	Panel E: O	ver-Parametized	Estimates				
LNGDS	-0.094	0.215	-0.439	0.667			
LNGDS(-1)	0.764	0.251	3.035	0.010**			
LNGDS(-2)	-0.080	0.165	-0.488	0.633			
LNINF	-0.155	0.181	-0.855	0.408			
LNINF(-1)	0.242	0.194	1.251	0.234			
POLS(-1)	-1.551	0.127	-12.145	0.000**			
ECM(-1)	-0.860	0.229	3.752	0.002**			
С	3.131	0.676	4.631	0.000			
R-Squared = 0.963							
Adjusted R-Squared = 0.942							
Schwarz criterion = 0.405							
Akaike info crit	erion = 0.007						

Table 4.4: Inferential Statistics

Source: Author's Computation using E-views 10

Inferential Statistics (OLS and Over-Parametized Error Correction Method (ECM) Results)

The Ordinary Least Square and over-parametized ECM result involving two (2) lags of each independent variable is presented in table 4.4 below;

The R^2 indicates that 96 percent of the total variation in economic growth has been explained by the changes in political stability and absence of terrorism, inflation rate, and gross domestic savings. The result further shows that political stability and absence of terrorism at lag one shows a negative and significant relationship to economic growth with probability value (0.000)less than 5 significant level. The implication of this is that for every policy at any point of administration initiated and targeted towards improving the performance of the economy ends up contributing negative to the development of the economy and this distortion or nonperformance of these policies affects the economy significantly. Therefore, policy instability erodes developmental stride of the economy. Gross domestic savings at the current period shows a negative and insignificant relationship as compared its previous value which shows a positive and significant relationship to economic growth with probability value (0.094). The implication of this relationship is that the workability of quality institutions can effectively translate policies into productive outcome, but in situations were there is absence of quality institutions, positive outcomes experienced in previous periods can be rendered

the variables. From the table above, given that the lag length selection criterion chosen is 2, from the trace statistics, a long-run relationship exist between the variables. This is because the prob. (value) for the co integrating equations is less than 0.05. From the trace statistics, it shows that there exist two (2) cointegrating equation. The same holds using the maximum-Eigen value, which implies that there exist two cointegrating equation and there exist a long-run relationship between the variables being specified. The result from both the trace statistics and Max-Eigen statistics suggests a long run relationship among the variables.

null and void. So policy shifts affect the performance of variables in the economy which describes both the short run and long run periods. The result of the Error Correction suggests that the short-run to adjust to the long-run period by 86%.

1. Conclusion and Recommendation

Most solutions which have been prescribed in recent times seem to view Nigeria through the prism of the natural-resources and the competition to acquire the benefit of their exploitation intervention (interventionist approach). However, what needs recognition is the fact that the economy is beginning to see the emergence of new social actors, different form of social and political mobilisation. In the process, the political and economic play field is also changing. Long term solutions to instability problems will basically be determined by a new type of leadership where policy issues whose repercussions heavily impact on the development of the Nigerian economy and other developing economies are made. Although much expectation is placed on the leadership structure which serves as a solution to its perennial problems, partners within the developing regions and also in the developed regions need to realise that marriage between these regions, whether through default or reinforced further by an integrated global economy and human security concerns, demand an in-depth understanding of its interest, which in essence require supporting Nigeria to lead itself. Key to this process is strengthening the domestic institutions that promote democracy and accountability with an input from the local perspectives. The persistent ignorance of developing nations views on how they crave to solve their problems, inform the missteps that continue to bug

economic and political policies, often peddled as good for the economy.

In terms of development in Nigeria, a most valuable offshore asset of developing regions is the human, and social and intellectual capital (i.e policy and managerial expertise) possessed by the Diaspora (ADPC, 2008). Such potentials can be of greater value to the on-going development initiatives but also to the advantage of destination countries. However, it is the policies prescribed for the economy from the developed regions that is likely to reverse these trends, if coupled with domestic and international visionary leadership, political will and its influence on its institutions.

Based on our findings, governments should employ policies to promote political stability to improve economic development. However, as stated earlier on, ineffective and inefficient institutions are basically the limitation to policy stability. As such, it is recommended that efficient institutions must be put in place so as to improve policies for the development of the economy.

REFERENCES

- African Diaspora Policy centre, Fact Sheet (June, 2008) Tapping the Diaspora perspective in policy dialogue, accessible at http://www.diaspora-centre.org /DOCS/ ADPC_Factsheet_Jun.pdf
- Ali, A., and W. M. Crain. (2001). Political Regimes, Economic Freedom, Institutions, and Growth. Journal of Public Finance and Public Choice 19, no. 1: 3–22.
- Alumona, I. (2009) Understanding the Crisis of development in Africa: Reflection On Bedford Umez's analysis: Anambra State University Press
- Amjad, A. and Yeats, A. (1995). Have transport costs contributed to the relative decline of sub-Saharan African exports? Some preliminary empirical evidence. Policy Research Working Paper 1559. Washington DC: World Bank.
- Asiedu E (2005). On the determinants of foreign direct investment to developing countries: Is Africa different? World Development, 30 (1): 107-119
- Asien A. & Veiga, F.J (2013). "How Does Political Instability Affect Economic Growth?," IMF Working Papers 11/12, International Monetary Fund.
- Baliamoune, L.M. (2005). Institutions, Social Capital, and Economic Development in Africa: An Empirical Study. ICER Working Paper, International Centre for Economic R e s e a r c h , 1 8 / 2 0 0 5 , http://www.icer.it/docs/wp2005/ICERwp18

-05.pdf, (12.06.2009).

- Barro, R.J., (1991). Economic Growth in a Cross-Section of Countries, Quarterly Journal of Economics 106.
- Barro, R.J., (1996). Democracy and Growth, Journal of Economic Growth.
- Birdsall, N. (2007). Do No Harm: Aid, Weak Institutions and the Missing Middle in Africa. Development Policy Review, 25 (5), 575-598.
- Burkhart, R.E., & M.S. Lewis-Beck, (1994). Comparative Democracy: The Economic Development Thesis, American Political Science Review 88.
- Busse. M., and Carsten H. (2007), Political Risk, Institutions and Foreign Direct Investment. European Journal of Political Economy, 23(2), 397-415.
- Charnock, G. (2009). Why do Institutions Matter? Global Competitiveness and the Politics of Policies in Latin Amerika. Capital Class, 33(2), 67-99
- Diamond, L, J.J. Linz and S.M. Lipset, eds. (1989) Democracy in developing countries: Africa (Volume II). Boulder: Lynne Reinner Publishers, Inc.
- Dollar, D. and Kraay A. (2003) 'Institutions, trade, and Growth, Journal of Monetary Economics 50(1): 133-162.
- Fabro, G., & Aixalá, J. (2009). Economic Growth and Institutional Quality: Global and Income-Level Analyses. Journal of Economic Issues, 43(4), 997-1023. http://dx.doi.org/10.2753/JEI0021-3624430409
- Farida, M., & Ahmadi-Esfahani, F. Z. (2008). Corruption and economic growth in Lebanon. In 52nd Annual Australian Agricultural and Resource Economics Society Conference paper.
- Fayissa, B., & Nsiah, C. (2013). The Impact of Governance on Economic Growth in Africa. The Journal of Developing Areas, 47(1), 91-108
- Feng, Y. (2003). Democracy, Governance, and Economic Performance – theory and evidence, The MIT Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts, London, England
- Fosu, A., Bates, R. & Hoeffler, A. (2006). Institutions, Governance and Economic Development in Africa: An Overview. Journal of African Economies, 15 (1), 1–9.
- Gasiorowski, M.J., (1995). Economic Crisis and Political Regime Change: An Event History Analysis, American Political Science Review 89.
- Gilpin, R. (2001). Global Political Economy: Understanding the International Economic

Order. Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press.

- Grossman, G. M., and E. Helpman (1991): Innovation and Growth in the Global Economy. MIT Press, (37-39,59,67)
- Hong E. (2000) Globalisation and the Impact on Health, A Third World View - Impact of SAPs in the Third World, Penang; Third World Network
- Kaplan, E. A., & Akcoraoğlu, A. (2017). Political Instability, Corruption, and Economic Growth: Evidence from a Panel of OECD Countries. Business and Economics Research Journal, 8 (3), 363-377.
- Kilishi, A.A., Mobolaji, H.I., Yaru, M.A., Yakubu, A.T. 2013. Institutions and economic performance in sub-Saharan Africa: a dynamic panel data analysis. Journal of African Development Fall, 15 (2).
- Levine, R. & Renelt, D., (1992). A Sensitivity Analysis of Cross-Country Growth Regressions, American Economic Review 83.
- Leyaro, V. (2016). Political Institutions, Trade and Economic Growth in Sub-Saharan Africa. Kenya: African Economic Research Consortium Final Research Report
- Lindert, P.H. (2004) Growing Public: Social Spending and Economic Growth since the 18th Century New York: Cambridge University Press
- Linz, J.M. and Stephen, A. (1996) Problems of democratic transition and consolidation: Southern Europe, South America, and postcommunist Europe, Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Luiz, J. M. (2009). Institutions and Economic Performance: Implications for African Development. Journal of International Development, J. Int. Dev. (21).
- Lupo, T (2004) Democratization in the Third Wave: Political Violence as a Transition Tactic, Centre for the Study of Democracy Department of Political Science University of California, Irvine; Presentation at the Midwestern Political Science Association Annual Meeting Chicago, ILApril 2004
- Mankiw, G. N., Romer, D. and Weil D. N. (1992), "A Contribution to the Empirics of Economic Growth", The Quarterly Journal of Economics, Vol. 107, pp. 407-37.
- O'Donnell, Philippe C. Schmitter, and Laurence W. (1986) Transitions from authoritarian rule: Comparative perspectives (Part III) Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press
- Oluwatoyin, M. A., & Folasade, A. B. (2014). Trade Openness, Institutions and Economic

Growth in sub-Saharan Africa. Developing Country Studies, 4(8), 18-30.

- Orubu, C. O. (2013) Rent-Seeking Behaviour and the Development Process: A Sceptical Reflection on the Possibility of a Kuznets Corruption Curve. 32nd Inaugural Lecture, Delta State University, Abraka
- Orubu, C.O and P.O Awopegba (2004) 'Market economies and the Development Process: A Sceptical Reflection on the Possibility in the Development process: Challenges for the Nigerian Economy'. Journal of Social Sciences, Vol. 9(3), Pp 163-175
- Przeworski, A, M. E. Alvarez, and J.A. Cheibub (2000). Democracy and Development: Political Institutions and Well-Being in the World 1950–1990. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Rodney, W. (1972) How Europe Underdeveloped Africa. Bogle-L'Ouverture, London
- Suberu R (2007) 'Nigeria's Muddled Elections' J. Democracy 18(4).
- Valeriani, E., & Peluso, S. (2011). The impact of institutional quality on economic growth and development: An empirical study. Journal of Knowledge Management, Economics and Information Technology, 1(6), 1-25.
- Yildirim, A. (2015). Institutional Structure and International Competitiveness: a Review on Turkey, Unpublished PhD Thesis, Mugla: Muğla Sıtkı Koçman University, Institute of Social Sciences.
- Zureiqat, H.M., (2005). Political Instability and Economic Performance: A Panel Data Analysis. Award Winning Economics Papers. Paper 1.