

An Overview of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization and the Politics of Nigeria Industrialization

Salisu Ojonemi Paul¹

Department of Public Administration and Local Government Studies, University of Nigeria, Nsukka

Chikelue Ofuebe²

Department of Public Administration and Local Government Studies, University of Nigeria, Nsukka

Received 10 November 2020 ||| Accepted 23 June 2021

Abstract: *The high rate of economic growth, the provision of basic facilities, and job creation are products of any nation's level of industrialisation. Globally, no nation is considered to have attained a concerted level of a high standard of living in the absence of economic development. However, Nigerian industrialisation has continued on a downward journey in the 21st century despite several industrial development policies. The paper is an attempt to find out how industries have fared and challenges facing their development in Nigeria in the 21st century. It is also an effort to unearth whether UNIDO has influenced Nigeria industrial development. The study adopted a descriptive research design and documentary data analysis method to elucidate the fact that the UNIDO supports have not significantly impacted industrialisation in Nigeria. The adoption of Top-Down as a theoretical model of analyses has validated the fundamental issues raised, informed the findings and subsequent recommendations of this paper.*

Keywords: *Challenges, Economy, Implementation, Industries, Policy.*

|||

Introduction

Socio-economic and national development through industrialization has undoubtedly become a key issue in any international relations discourse. According to Onah & Ibietan (2009); Makinde (2011); and Klavins (2015), ever since the end of the Cold War, some researchers and international players have identified essential characteristics of modern international relations as the growing predisposition of nation-states to embark on one form of economic collaboration and international diplomatic relationships. This brought the institutionalization of a traditional form of economic control and industrial development (Obwona, Shinyekwa, Kiiza & Hisali, 2014). This could be identified as one of the brain behind the emergence of major economic and industrial development programs which led to neo-liberalism and industrialization to mainly cater for food security, employment, income generation, resource conservation and environmental protection which have emerged as global concerns (Harris, 2000; Cheng, Min, & Li, 2010). Therefore, since the emergence of the industrial revolution in England in over two centuries ago, industrialization has conceivably impacted both socio-economic and political development of the world than any multifarious factor that can be imagined (Encyclopedia of Sociology, 2011).

Consequently, the most identified dynamic driver of collective wellbeing and prosperity of any nation is industrialization. It can be observed that no country has ever attained a standardized socio-economic development without an advanced and developed industrial sector. To this end, it is emphasized that in order to confirm an unbiased distribution of the economic benefits of industrialization, a strong commitment was made by the UNIDO "to address the multidimensional causes of poverty, through creating shared prosperity, advancing economic competitiveness, and safeguarding the environment." This according to UNIDO (2015:4) is vital due to the fact that:

The importance of industrial development for sustainable development was explicitly recognized by the United Nations General Assembly in their proposition concerning the Sustainable Development Goals

¹ Email: salisunelson@gmail.com (Corresponding author)

² Email: chikel.ofuebe@unn.edu.ng

(SDGs), which includes inclusive and sustainable industrialization as SDG-9, along with fostering innovation and building resilient infrastructure.

It is then conceived that during the 2013 – 2014 period, African States members of UNIDO have been assisted with programs and projects that will enable them to achieve the organization's effort priority areas which include agro-business and "rural entrepreneurship, industrial policy development, trade capacity building, energy, youth employment, investment promotion, institutional capacity development, and energy efficiency, and climate change." Thus, Dankumo, Riti & Ayeni (2015) identified that amongst the countries in West African sub-region and sub-Saharan, Nigeria is one of the most industrialized nations. He further noted that despite the fact that some studies have concentrated efforts on the manufacturing sectorial activities within the country, many of these researches have extensively stressed on some aspects of manufacturing especially at the regional level, small-scale industries and local crafts.

This paper will find out UNIDO and Industrialization in Asia and Africa, origin, situation and challenges facing industries in Nigeria in the 21st century, the impact of UNIDO support, and the possible ways that can make UNIDO stimulates industrial development programmes' implementation in Nigeria.

Literature Review

The Origin, Situation and Challenges of Industrialization in Nigeria

According to Syrquin (1988) cited by Mayer (2018:28), sectorial changes in the alignment of commerce and industry found a center-piece "in the structural transformation that accompanies economic development." There are some inherent relative factors—policy administration and technology which have been seen to determine various patterns of economic activities across countries. Particularly, Ajayi (2007) and Olayiwola & Lawal (2018) confirmed the history of industrial development in Nigeria to entails substantial craft works in the early stages that metamorphosed into large-scale manufacturing over the years. Thus, Nigeria embraced the factory type industrialization as the major remedial measure to the challenge of her underdevelopment following the coming of Europeans. This specifically occurred in the wake-up of formal trade contact which brought about the first widely recognized forms of current industrial growth (Onyemelukwe, 1983; Ajayi, 2007; Calhoun, Derluguian & Derluguian, 2011; Tignor, 2015).

There is differing view on how developing states particularly the ones in sub-Saharan Africa are incorporated in global economies. According to Metz (1991), this emanated from "the dramatic rise in world oil prices in 1974 [leading] to a sudden flood of wealth that can be described as dynamic chaos because, much of the revenue which was intended for investment to diversify the economy, also spurred inflation and, coming in the midst of widespread unemployment, underscored inequities in distribution". As a consequence, successive governments in Nigeria launched several socio-economic development programs that ranges from 1st, 2nd, 3rd, and 4th National Development Plans (1962–1968; 1970–1974; 1975–1980; 1981–1985) to the three Rolling Plans (1990–1992; 1993–1995; 1996–1998) respectively (Onah, 2006; Anger, 2010; Jiboye, 2011; Asaju, 2015; NBS, 2015). The country also initiated the 2010 and 20:2020 Vision, and the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS). However, Federal Office of Statistics (1996) cited by Oshewolo (2010) revealed that poverty has been massive, pervasive, and engulf a large proportion of the Nigerian society.

Following these developments, the need for economic development strategy that will strengthen citizens against poverty, resulted in the emergence of industrialization in Nigeria. The table 2.1 below shows the profiles of ten individuals who are well known to be pioneer industrialists in Nigeria.

Table (1): Profile of early Industries and Industrialists

S/No	Names	Date of Establishment	Location	Industry
1.	T.A. Odotola	1950	Ijebu-Ode, Ibadan, Kano, Onitsha	Tyre retreading, plantations, tyres, biscuits, brewery
2.	M. Ugochukwu	1958	Lagos, Port Harcourt, Onitsha, Kaduna, Umeze	Tyre retreading, saw milling, foam, biscuits
3.	C.T.Onyekwelu	1963	Onitsha	Gramophone records
4.	J. Ade Tuyo	1955	Lagos	Bakery
5.	S.I. Fawehinmi	1953	Lagos	Furniture, saw milling
6.	J.K. Ladipo	1938	Lagos	Food processing
7.	B.E. Tejuoso	1972	Lagos	Plastic foam
8.	L. Omole	1950	Ilesha	Brewery
9.	S.O. Gbadamosi	1937	Lagos	Singlets, ceramics
10.	F.S. Okotie-Eboh	1958	Lagos, Sapele	Rubber crepe, shoes, cement

Source: Forrest (1994:56).

Furthermore, the table 1 above noted the indication that indigenous companies had begun to move into capital and skill-intensive related to industrialization. The development emerged in the pre-independence Nigeria and gathered momentum in the 1950s and post-independence with the establishment of Gramophone records in 1963 at Onitsha and Plastic foam in 1972 at Lagos. Consequently, Agba & Odu (2012) recorded the central position of industrialization to national economic development as a pivotal force that led to the creation of a number of policies targeted at making Nigeria an industrialized nation. The first industrial approach in Nigeria was aimed at reducing over-dependence on foreign goods and save foreign exchange through the encouragement of manufacturing of goods that were previously imported (Famide, 2009 in Agba & Odu, 2012). This effort by the federal government of Nigeria led to the promulgation of an Indigenization Decree in 1972 –the fore-runner of Nigerian Enterprises Promotion Decrees, that blocked foreigners from investing in certain enterprises and reserved involvement in specified trades to Nigerians. As Asaju (2015) maintained, it was meant to support local industries and build prospects for Nigerian investors to take charge of the manufacturing sector of the country’s economy. Large scale industrialization in Nigeria was born through the Intercontinental Textile Industry, Atlantic Textile Mill, Lagos, Ajaokuta Steel Company Limited (ASCOL), The Dunlop Nigeria Plc., Michelin, and many other companies in the industrial sub-sectors. Large amount of industrialization is paramount due to the view of Mgbemene, Nnaji, & Nwozor, (2016:301) that situated it as:

...the process of transformational changes of the human society socially and economically from an agrarian society into an industrial one. It involves vast economic and social changes such as a tendency to urbanization, a growing body of wage earners and increased technical and advanced education. Industrialization is the extensive organization of an economy for the purpose of manufacturing.

Therefore, Ikpe (2017) conceived that emerging economies have recognized industrialization as a basic essential for socio-economic transition and transformation. From the foregoing, it is often paramount for new states to provide the factors needed for an industrialized society because, the substitution of manual tools by engines and power tools is the sine qua non of any developed economy.

From the foregoing, the importance of industrialization is likened to public project that serves as a critical tool for accelerating successful development by the way it is described and emphasized (Kerzner & Kerzner, 2017). This made the operationalization of any development framework to greatly depend on some variables which are found wanting in Nigeria. For instance, Kaplinsky (1997); Sachs (2005) and Mirakhor & Askari (2017), placed politics, social and macroeconomic stability as conditions for sustainable economic and industrial growth through a well-functioning institution rule of law, and the distribution of power within the country. FGN (2015:331) portrayed Nigeria’s manufacturing sector as the type that has been plagued by a myriad of challenges, most of which predate the 21st century. It further identified these challenges to include “poor power supply, high cost of inputs and of doing business, multiple taxation, infrastructural deficit, low access to finance, institutional problems with

intellectual and property rights, insecurity, low quality of ‘Made in Nigeria’ goods, poor information flow, and Lack of synergy between the educational system and the labor market.” Thus, NACCIMA (2012:12) and MAN (2018:1) validated this statement that “800 industries have crumpled from 2009 – 2011, and 272 firms were also closed in 2016 along 20% capacity operation due to difficult and unstable operating business environment.”

As a corollary, Nigeria is seriously handicapped by the dearth of skilled labor, lack of data, good transportation facilities, confused land laws that have complicated the securing of land for factory construction. Also, one amongst the major challenges of industrialization in the Third World is the prevalent predisposition to still believe that any approach or method originating in the developed world must be ‘better’ than anything designed to or produced locally.

Furthermore, there is the syndrome of delay and abandonment of industrial development projects. There are the “age-old constraints of [failed] previous industrial policies, and addressing the underlying factors that have held back manufacturing in Nigeria for decades such as, industrial infrastructure, affordable finance, industrial skills, investment climate, standards, innovation, and local patronage” (FGN, 2015:345). The commonest cause of delays and cancellation of industrial development projects and programs in developing countries, Africa at large and Nigeria in particular is shortage and mismanagement of funds. For example, Bawa-Bwari (2016) pointed out that the government of Nigeria had spent over \$10bn on the Ajaokuta and Delta Steel Companies, Ovia-Aladja in the last 35 years with empty results. The integrated plants were envisaged to have multiplier effects on all sectors of the Nigerian economy including manufacturing, education, construction, transportation, and agricultural sectors, among others (Oluyole, 2017).

Also, the source and nature of financing strongly influence project implementation with a high percentage of local equity, as in South Korea, rarely suffer project disruption (UNIDO, 2015). Thus, in the view of Oyeyinka & Adeloje (1988) reiterated by Olaoye (2014), the far-reaching “infrastructures normally required to support industrialization in Nigeria contribute significantly to the total costs, and few countries can make the investment without securing loans.” Akpoti (2018) argued succinctly that: Ajaokuta Steel Company Limited in Kogi State Nigeria, the second largest in Africa and 12th largest iron ore in the world has not only been under lock and key, but has remained a big center for massive looting and wastage of the nation’s resources...Russian company had to abandon the project in 1994 because Nigeria fell short of its contractual agreement by not releasing funds needed for the completion of the steel company.

To this end industrial development demands a high level of skill, technical and organizational know-how, and systemic complexity (supply of capital goods and technical services). Therefore, poor financing, huge capital requirements, and qualitative partnerships have constituted into fundamental challenges of industrialization in Nigeria. There is absence of capital accumulation, capacity and physical development, and applicable critical infrastructures which enhance productive activities have surfaced as hurdles to Nigerian industrial development. The only aspect of car manufacturing is assembling done by the Peugeot Assembly of Nigeria (PAN) in Kaduna before the year 2000. Furthermore, George (1999:32); Onimode (2003:39) and Dankumo et al (2015) identified:

1. the manipulation of debts and enforcement of policies that cheapen the value of raw materials,
2. little attention given to the emerging pattern despite the changing phases of manufacturing and industrial development policies,
3. absence of heavy industries and car manufacturing has militated against effective transfer of technology, and
4. Overall little level of inter-industrial networks.

Another important factor worthy of mentioning is imbalance trade policy actions put in place by advanced nations to reduce access to importation of high-value machines for developing countries

(Kwanashe, 2016). Similarly, Nigerian industries import machineries by purchasing with foreign currencies contrary to obtaining them partially or wholly as done by most developed nations.

The UNIDO and Industrialisation in Asia and Africa: A Cross-National Review

It is observed that there was significant change after the Second World War particularly 1960s on the assumption that national economic development is characterized by industrialization, modernized agriculture and critical infrastructure. It is therefore worthy of note that there is no particular nation in the world which can boast to have attained a high level of socio-economic development in absence of an advanced industrial sector. However, Bijan (2005); Kniivilä (2007); and Toffler (2013) submitted that China embraced a strategy of development that put the nation in a purposeful economic isolation, industrialization and dominance. They noted that the country became conscious of her underdevelopment in comparison to Western countries which however made it to commence the reformation of her centrally planned and closed economy in 1978. Comparatively, Cambodia, Tunisia and Vietnam moved in one direction – around foreign direct investment and exports—and sub-Saharan African countries like Angola, Ghana, Kenya, Mozambique, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, the United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe moved in another direction of their potential for agricultural development and uncovers the diversity in their profiles in many crops and associated value chains (PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2015 cited by UNCTD, 2018). The realization brought about a quickened growth rate in the late 20th century to the 21st century with “GDP growth rates as the highest in the world with 9.9 per cent and 10.3 per cent up from 6 per cent in the 1970s” (World Bank, 2014). As Okoli (2007) and Salami & Soltanzadeh (2012) argued, the Republic of Korea’s growth approach utilizes the world market’s opportunities by the mobilization of local investors and institutions. In the view of Fujimoto (2006:1) for example;

Asia has become a global center of manufacturing during the last quarter of the 20th century. At first, Japan was the only major exporter of manufactured goods in Asia. As the yen rapidly appreciated after the Plaza Accord in 1985, newly industrialized economies (NIES) such as Korea, Taiwan, Hong Kong, and Singapore emerged as exporters of relatively standardized goods.

Until recently, the activities of international development organizations in developing countries were widely considered to be peripheral to the mainstream efforts of governments and agencies to resolve the problems of world poverty. This according to Adamolekun (1983) and Abor & Quartey (2010) is premised on a situation that poor countries have a special feature that stands to establish different role for the government as it particularly affects economic growth. This is because poverty according to development research remains the fundamental challenge for the world econo-systematic (Burns, 2013; UNIDO, 2013). In the submission of Otsuka & Sonobe (2006) and Yong (2013), since the early 19th century, livelihoods in modern societies have been built on the fundamentals of the economy through industrial revolution. Such a radical transformation of industrial structure could be regarded as an engine and alternative route of any nation’s high sustained economic development (Kim, Shim, & Kim, 1995; Imhanlahimhin, 2000). This is consequent upon the fact that industrialization has facilitated the lifting of hundreds of millions of people around the globe out of poverty over the last 200 years with employment generation which multiply in high standard of living and rural development (Otite, 1990; Kaygusuz, 2011; Akwara, Akwara, Enwuchola, Adekunle & Udaw, 2013). Riddell (1995) and Yong (2013) agreed with the fact that the nations that have experienced steady economic growth with the aid of industrial development, international related-oriented services and trade were altogether the ones that struggled to reduce poverty most effectively. Subsequently:

Industrialisation is...part and parcel of the complex modernization process. With industrialization, socio-economic development is attributed to great advancement in technological innovation. This technological innovation that necessitates industrialization rests in the area of large-scale energy production as well as metallurgy production. From a broad perspective, industrialization is the organization of an economy in a manner that allows for large-scale manufacturing (Yong, 2013).

Harris (2000) contended that the designs of imperial and colonial power which governed the world in the 19th and early 20th centuries made little provision for economic and social progress in what is referred to as the developing world. Colonial regions as designed by the Europeans were only made to be suppliers of foreign industrial raw materials, cheap labor and to lay the foundation for their industrial take-off in (the North America or Western Europe) mid-19th century (Ananaba, 1969; Rodney, 1972; Ake, 1981; Acemoglu & Robinson, 2012; Ofor, 2018). Thus, wealth has not been equally distributed throughout the world. This resulted in the considerable differences that exist between and within countries, societies and regions and it has made development and growth to elude important segments of the population (Imhanlahimhin, 2000; Yong, 2013). Emphatically, Acemoglu & Robinson (2012:130,131) placed Africa as:

...part of the world with the institutions least able to take advantage of the opportunities made available by the Industrial Revolution. For at least the last one thousand years, outside of small pockets and during limited periods of time, Africa has lagged behind the rest of the world in terms of technology, political development, and prosperity.

On the other hand, industrialisation represents a development that involves economic and social change and the advantage of this process is “the transformation of a society from the pre-industrial stage into industrial stage” (*www.ukessays.com*). Japanese manufacturing firms benefited by shifting their production facilities mainly to ASEAN countries and in the 1990s, China developed as a main exporter of certain labour-intensive goods (Fujimoto, 2006).

Nonetheless, UNIDO was created in 1966 and charged with the primary responsibility of promoting sustainable industrial development throughout the developing world in collaboration with its 171 Member States. It became a specialized agency with a well-defined organizational structure of the United Nations in 1985 and its headquarters is in Vienna, and it is represented in 35 developing countries through its field offices (UNIDO, 2015). The organization has assisted countries with transiting economies in the struggle against global economic marginalization. Illustratively, Gelb (1999) essentially noted that sub-Saharan Africa ended the 20th century as the most aid-dependent and heavily indebted region in the world and that its economic history over the past decades can be interpreted as a process of marginalization. In strong terms, Imhanlahimhin (2000:3, 4) industrial revolution:

...gave birth to a large middle class, political modernization through the extension of the franchise, the growth of political parties, social development, the rule of law, specialization and differentiation in different sectors of the economy (both public and private), efficiency and effectiveness, administrative competence, effective political control over administration, and the general growth and development of the economy. Accordingly, Ali (2007); Ali (2007b) cited by Rauniyar & Kanbur (2009:3) reiterated the fact that the findings from Asian Development Bank (ADB) studies have shown that the current development processes and strategies constructed an original economic situations and opportunities that are uneven. Consequently, the More Developed Countries (MDCs) emerged from vibrant economic sector and with the industrial revolution (Imhanlahimhin, 2000:3). For that reason, “UNIDO focuses its technical cooperation activities on its main thematic priority of industrializing the world” in line with the current Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

Methodology

The method adopted in this research is descriptive research design which draws its data from secondary sources including earlier studies and published works appertaining to industrial development issues. Many of such researches were assisted by the government, development organizations and partners, research agencies, non-governmental organizations/donor agencies, and media houses. The documentary method of data analysis structure was explored to give influence and implication on the assessed subject (Bowen, 2009; Onwuegzuzie, Leech & Collins, 2012). In the assumptions of Messick's (1989) and Obasi (1999) the concept of validity and reliability which emphasizes research uniformity and integration bring to fore the integration and support of the “Top-Down Theory” applied in this study.

Theoretical Framework and Application

The “Top-Down” policy implementation theory is adopted for this study. The first attempt at presenting the model was accomplished by Pressman & Wildavsky (1973); Van Meter and Van Horn (1975); Bardach (1977), and Gholipour, Jandaghi & Fallah (2012). It was popularized in the 1980s by Sabatier, Mazmanian, Nakamura & Smallwood, and Edwards. These scholars “emphasized the importance of policy design that provided explicit policy directives, clear statements of administrative responsibilities, and more direct actions with fewer veto points.” According to them, the model presents the most vital role in implementation of public policies by identifying the variables that affect plans. These are nature, structural and background variables. As Edwards note, four reasons which include resources, bureaucratic structure, communication, and enforcement trends influence policy implementation (Edwards, 1980 in Gholipour, Jandaghi & Fallah, 2012). The model represents a command and control system from the government of the day to the project.

This is because; development process itself is dictated by factors like innovation, creativity and flexibility which reorganization becomes very important for achievement of genuine results of any developmental efforts. Therefore, the UNIDO support is very functional to successful development of industries in developing economies at large and Nigeria in particular. The top-down theory is applied in this study to defend the fact that inclusive industrialization is formulated on the one hand at the —top level organization of UNIDO and while in another development, its execution and assessment is carried out at the national level of member states respectively.

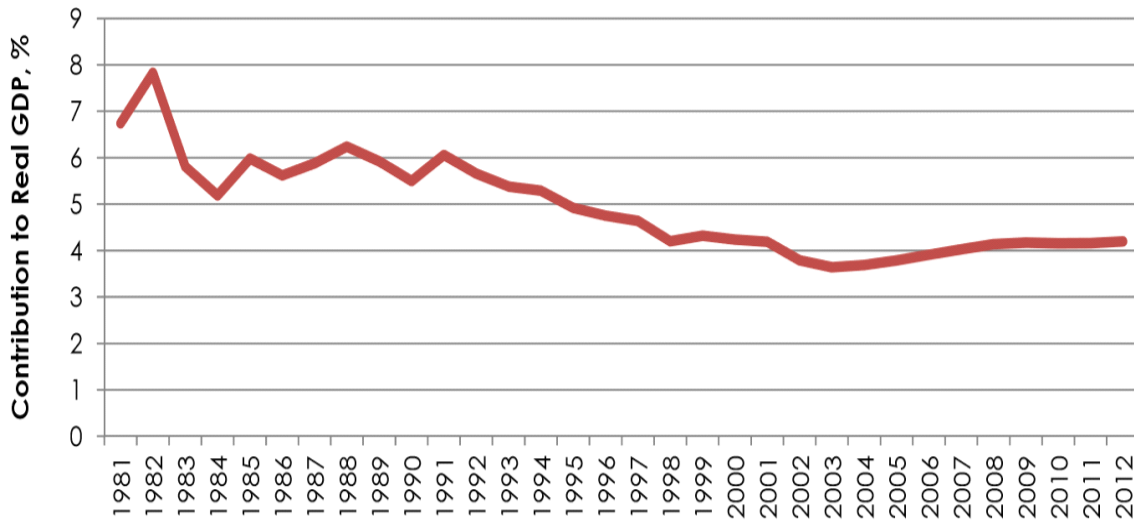
This however, applies in greater or lesser extent to all programmatic fields of activity contains a number of individual programs, which are implemented in a holistic manner to achieve effective outcomes and impacts through UNIDO’s four enabling functions that entail technical cooperation; analytical and research and policy advisory services; normative, standards and quality-related activities; and partnerships convention for knowledge, networking, transfer and industrial cooperation. Therefore, the top down model sees the starting point of implementation as this decision and identifies the central actors as most influential in producing the desired effects of the decision (Van Meter & Van Horn 1975; Mazmanian & Sabatier 1983; 1989).

A Discussion of finding that: UNIDO has not Impacted Nigerian Industrialisation

Industrial revolution that brought a dramatic breakthrough in England around 1750 has still not extended to Africa consequent upon the fact that the whole regions in the continent has been ravaged by a standing vicious circle of the persistence and re-creation of empty economic and political frameworks. In the same vein, there was a financial assistance of €12 million from the European Union (EU) and UNIDO which was meant to assist the Federal Government of Nigeria in implementing its strategic economic structures like Vision 20:2020, National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS), Transformation Agenda, and Economic Recovery Growth Plan (ERGP) of the President Buhari’s administration with the mandate of coining policy structures to develop competitiveness, economic expansion and diversification in the non-oil-related industries. However, UNIDO stated that “Nigeria lacks an internationally recognized National Quality Infrastructure (NQI) with the capacity to ensure safety, integrity and marketability of goods and services, and the removal of technical barriers to local, regional and international trade.”

Remarkably, despite UNIDO financial and policy support, local manufacturing sector in Nigeria is technologically far behind China, India, Taiwan, Indonesia, Korea, Brazil, and Mexico basically because the country has not enjoyed any foreign policy support in her quest for accelerated industrial development. The sector added only 4.2% to the GDP in 2010 and the progression since then is 7.6% as Purchasing Managers Index (PMI) indicated (FGN, 2015). Nigeria had only 5,300 miles of accessed roads and estimated 1,770 miles of railway track at the time of independence which is not being regularly extended, unpredictable weather conditions (Williams, 1965; Mgbemene, Nnaji, & Nwozor, 2016; Ikpe, 2017). Presently, steamer traffic on the inland waterways structure is experienced at flood time in Nigeria because the country does not have a first-class natural port except Apapa and Port Harcourt – the main reason for Apapa gridlock.

As a result of this, many industrial estates and manufacturing plants in Aba –Abia State; Nnewi – Anambra State; Sharada – Kano State; Ogba – Lagos State; Sango-Ota, Ifo and Shagamu – Ogun State to mention few have turned into deserts and converted to worship centres particularly in Lagos. PAN plant in Kaduna [Northern Nigeria] has also crumpled. A few key industries, such as beverages, textiles, cement and tobacco are now those that are keeping the sector floating, but even these operated at under half of their capacity due to importation (see figure 1 below).



Source: National Bureau of Statistics (2015).

Figure (1): Manufacturing Sector Contribution to GDP in decline.

However, Bankole (2017:13) categorizes UNIDO’s involvement plans spans through “industrial governance, research and statistics; Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises (MSMEs) development; Special Economic Zones (SEZs), industrial parks and private sector development; innovation, science and technology management; agro-industry and agri-business development; minerals and metals development; trade capacity building; renewable energy development, and environmental management;” and Information Technology initiatives for Youth, digital technology that would support Nigeria build up and grow its industrial sector at an estimated cost of \$50 million. Though these involvement designs are robust, no definite attempt is vigorously committed to supporting the significant efforts of Nigerian government to ban importation (the hydra-headed challenge facing local industries), boost the national productivity and achievement of sustainable industrialization through value addition, establishment of economic zones and permanent diversification of economic and productive activities for development and poverty eradication.

Nevertheless, Haidara (2017) claimed that during the first 15 years of the second millennium, the global economy grew at an average rate of 2.7% and the number of people living with less than \$1.25 dropped from 43% to 23%. As it can be observed in Nigeria –the most populous, import-based and monolithic economic country in Africa, the account is in severe contrast. This can be buttressed by the fact that even though the country is rich and naturally endowed with both material and human resources, seven (7) amongst every ten (10) Nigerians live on less than \$1 a day (IMF, 2005; Okonjo-Iweala, 2012; Ezedinma, 2016). In addition, although nearly all African countries witnessed impressive growth rates during the past 10 years, the impacts on poverty reduction have been unsatisfactory (Haidara, 2017). The effect of this situation is pictured in the IMF document (2005) thus, “at 5.3 percent, the rate of urbanization in Nigeria is among the highest in the world. Since manufacturing is stagnant, there are few jobs for the growing urban population, and urban unemployment is currently estimated at 10.8 percent.” The country is in the group of nations that has maximum city population spread and growth rates globally (Olotuah & Bobadoye, 2009; Babanyara et al., 2010; and Jiboye, 2011 cited by Paul, 2019). This could also be a manifestation of the high levels of regional inequalities, declining agricultural productivity and manufacturing stagnation which create negative impacts on overall

development. Presently, production is mainly situated in Lagos and its periphery, and to a smaller degree some other commercial centers like Kaduna, Kano, Aba, Onitsha, Sango-Ota, Shagamu.

Categorically, industries that are established in developing countries hardly produce exported goods and at present, manufacturing activities have declined. It is observed that 800 and industries and 272 firms have crumpled from 2009 – 2016 along 20% capacity operation. Nigerian Stock Exchange (NSE) also delisted 60 major companies in 2012 due to poor performance of their stock. Also, Nigerian Textiles Mills with over 180 factories have turned into bush across the country. The Mills are essential for industrial clusters because there are clear advantages on their existence, particularly in developing countries where markets are less developed.

To a reasonable extent the policy framework has been provided by UNIDO, but the technological expertise and manpower, political will, and industries that will turn around the available raw materials are lacking. There is high level of environmental pollution in the Niger Delta Region of Nigeria over the years due to the activities of foreign oil companies and the impact of UNIDO is not felt as it is a continuous challenge for successive governments in Nigeria. In another perspective, UNIDO's strategic framework is among the transferred planning technique which hardly succeeds in Nigeria due to the reasons of mismanagement resources directly related to Nigerian situation and environment, heavy reliance on foreign experts and absence of local economist in the planning process. For the time being, Nigeria is consuming finished products including some raw materials. Also, in infrastructural construction and maintenance for instance, experts are recruited from other countries. Following these developments, it can be advanced that the UNIDO supports have not significantly impacted industrialization in Nigeria.

Conclusion and Recommendations

It is indispensable to note that industrial development is a fundamental element in the measurement of contemporary economic value of Social Progress Index (SPI) and GDP because it plays a pivotal role in poverty alleviation, social stability and productive employment generation through capacity building. Hence, the derivatives of the communiqué of World Summit for Social Development and the outcome of the 24th special session of the United Nations General Assembly in 2013 out which the UNIDO aggressive and inclusive industrialization was borne can be achieved. Nevertheless, it has emphasized the adoption of *Top-Down Approach* in the distribution of responsibilities for establishing productive job opportunities through which the marginalized member states can be stakeholders in the manufacturing process. Summarily, we recommend the following necessary actions.

- i. Creation of support programs for Small and Medium-size Enterprises (SMEs) being major channels of entrepreneurship development, employment creation, innovation and socio-economic sustainable growth.
- ii. Development of investment and technological promotion environment, improvement of industrial domination, official and regulatory framework, data and critical infrastructure.
- iii. Sustaining the establishments of a wide-range business-oriented institutions and organizations for the provision of collective and targeted services for other enterprises mainly in traditional sectors such as food, textiles, wood, leather, and agro-mechanism), but also in intensive economic segments like electronics and biotechnology.

References

1. Abor, J., & Quartey, P. (2010). Issues in SME development in Ghana and South. Africa. *International Research Journal of Finance and Economics*, 39(6), 215 – 228.
2. Acemoglu, D. & Robinson, J. A. (2012). *Why nations fail: The origins of power, prosperity and poverty*. New York: Crown Business.
3. Adamolekun, L. (1983). *Public administration: A Nigerian and comparative perspective*. New York: Addison-Wesley Longman Ltd.

4. Agba, A. M. O. & Odu, E. (2012). Globalization and the challenge of industrialization in developing nations: The Nigeria experience. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 12(4), 41 – 47.
5. Ajayi, D. D. (2007). Recent Trends and Patterns in Nigeria's Industrial Development. *Africa Development of Social Science Research*, XXXII (2), 139–155
6. Ake, C. (1981). *A political economy of Africa*. England: Longman Group Ltd.
7. Akpoti, N. (2018). Ajaokuta Steel Company, House of Reps and the acquisition plot. *The Sahara Reporters*, New York. March 26.
8. Akwara, A. F., Akwara, N. F., Enwuchola, J., Adekunle, M., & Udaw, J. E. (2013). Unemployment and poverty: Implications for national security and good governance in Nigeria. *International Journal of Public Administration and Management Research*, 2(1), 1-11.
9. Ali, I. (2007). Inequality and the Imperative for Inclusive Growth in Asia. *Asian Development Review*, 24(2), 1-16.
10. Ananaba, S. A. B (1969). *The trade union movement in Nigeria*. Benin: Ethiope Publishing Corporation.
11. Anger, B. (2010). Poverty eradication, millennium development goals and sustainable development in Nigeria. *Journal of sustainable development*, 3(4), 138 – 145.
12. Asaju, K. (2015). Industrialization: The key to Nigerian's developmental questions. *American Journal of Social Sciences*, 3(3), 62 – 68.
13. Bakole, J. (2017). UNIDO to support Nigeria in special economic zones, MSMEs development. *The Vanguard Newspaper*, May, 25.
14. Bardach, E. (1977). *The implementation game: What happens after a bill becomes a law*. MIT Press
15. Bawa-Bwari, A. (2016). FG spent \$10bn on Ajaokuta Steel Company. *The Punch Newspaper*, August 19.
16. Bijan, Z. (2005). China's peaceful rise to great-power status. *Foreign Affairs*, 84, 18.
17. Bowen, G. A. (2009). Document analysis as a qualitative research method. *Qualitative Research Journal*, 9(2), 27 – 40.
18. Burns, T. R. (2013). Sustainable development. Retrieved from [www.editorial arrangement of sociopedia.isa](http://www.editorialarrangementofsociopedia.isa) on 4/5/18
19. Calhoun, C., Derluguian, G., & Derluguian, G. M. (Eds.). (2011). *The deepening crisis: Governance challenges after neoliberalism*. NYU Press.
20. Cheng, S. K., Min, Q. W., & Li, L. F. (2010). Research and theories in sustainable development in China. *Social and Economic Development–Volume VIII*, 208. Retrieved from <http://www.eolss.net/Sample-Chapters/C16/E1-54-44.pdf>, on 10/4/18
21. Dankumo, A., Riti, J. S., & Ayeni, B. S. (2015). Contribution of agricultural and industrial sectors to the development of Nigerian economy from 1995 to 2012. *International Journal of Business, Management and Allied Science*, 2: 2128-2135.
22. *Encyclopedia of Sociology* (2001). The Gale Group Inc. Retrieved from <https://www.encyclopedia.com/social-sciences/encyclopedias-almanacs-transcripts-and-maps/industrialization-less-developed-countries> on 21/11/17
23. *Encyclopedia of Sociology* (2011). Dictionary definition of Industrialization in Less Developed Countries. Retrieved from encyclopedia.com, free online dictionary on 23/3/18.
24. Ezedinma, C. (2016). Path to industrial growth, by UNIDO. *The Guardian Business News*, November, 25.
25. FGN (2015). *Public Service Reforms in Nigeria 1999-2014 A comprehensive review*. Abuja: The Presidency.
26. Forrest, T. G. (1994). *The advance of Africa capital: the growth of Nigerian private enterprise*. Edinburgh: University Press.
27. Fujimoto, T. (2006). Architecture-based comparative advantage in Japan and Asia, In K. Ohno & T. Fujimoto (eds.), *Industrialization of developing countries analyses by Japanese Economists: The 21st Century COE Program Joint Report*. Japan: National Graduate Institute for Policy Studies (GRIPS).

28. Gelb, A. (1999). From adjustment to sustainable growth: Sub-Saharan Africa at the turn of the Century. A paper presented at the ADB/World Bank/UNECA Conference titled "Can Africa Claim the 21st Century?" held at Abidjan, 5th – 10th July.
29. George, S. (1999). Uses and abuses of Africa debt. In A. Adedeji (ed.), *Africa within the world-beyond dispossession and dependence*. London: Zed Books.
30. Gholipour, R., Jandaghi, G. & Fallah, M. R. (2012). Introducing a model for implementation of industrial policies : A Case Study in Qom Province, Iran. *American Journal of Economics*, Special Issue: 1- 5
31. Haidara, F. (2017). UNIDO's commitment to ensure that "No One is Left Behind." Retrieved from <https://isid.unido.org/speakers-corner.html> on 23/6/18
32. Harris, J. M. (2000). *Basic principles of sustainable development*. Global Development and Environment Institute, Working Paper, 004, Tufts University.
33. Ikpe, E. (2017). The enduring relevance of the developmental state paradigm across space and time: Lessons for Africa on structural transformation and agriculture in oil-rich contexts. *Journal of Asian and African Studies*. Accessed from <https://doi.org/10.1177/0021909617722375> on 10/2/18
34. IMF (2005). *Nigeria: poverty reduction strategy paper— National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy*. Washington, D.C: Monetary Fund Country Report No. 05/433
35. Imhanlahimhin, J.E. (2000). *Development administration in the less developed countries*. Apapa-Lagos: Amfitop Books.
36. *Industrialisation: A tool for social change*. Accessed from <https://www.ukessays.com/services> on 23/6/2019
37. Jiboye, A. D. (2011). Urbanization challenges and housing delivery in Nigeria: The need for an effective Policy framework for Sustainable Development. *International Review of Social Sciences and Humanities*, 2(1), 176 – 185.
38. Kaplinsky, R. (1997). India's industrial development: An interpretative survey. *World Development*, 25 (5), 681-694.
39. Kaygusuz, K. (2011). Energy services and energy poverty for sustainable rural development. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 15(2), 936 – 947.
40. Kerzner, H. & Kerzner, H. R. (2017). *Project management: a systems approach to planning, scheduling, and controlling*. John Wiley & Sons.
41. Kim, J. K., Shim, S.D. & Kim, J. (1995). *The role of the government in promoting industrialization and human capital accumulation in Korea*. Chicago: University Press.
42. Klavins, D. (2015). Cultural diplomacy and international relations: New actors; new initiatives; new targets. The ICD Annual Academic Conference on Cultural Diplomacy December 15th – 18th.
43. Kniivilä, M. (2007). Industrial development and economic growth: Implications for poverty reduction and income inequality. *Industrial development for the 21st century: Sustainable development perspectives*, 295-332.
44. Kwanashe, J. D. (2016). Sustainable Development Goals: Where is the stand of Africa? *Ghanaian Journal of Social Development of Development Research*, 3(1), 35 – 51.
45. Makinde, T. (2014). Essence of bilateral relations in modern diplomacy. Retrieved from <http://media4rural.blogspot.com.ng> on 27/3/2018.
46. MAN (2018). Nigerian manufacturers lament. *Premium Times*, January 10. Accessed from <https://www.premiumtimesng.com> on 13/9/2018.
47. Mayer, J. (2018). Industrialization in developing countries: Some evidence from a new economic geography perspective. *United Nations Conference on Trade and Development Discussion papers*, No. 174: 1–37, August
48. Mazmanian, D. & Sabatier, P.A. (1983). *Implementation and public policy*. Glenview Ill: Scott, Foresman.
49. Mazmanian, D., & Sabatier, P. A. (1989). *Implementation and public policy (rev. ed.)*. Latham, MD: University Press of America.
50. Messick, S. (1989). Meaning and values in test validation: The science and ethics of assessment. *Educational Researcher*, 18(2), 5-11.

51. Metz, H.C. (1991). *Nigeria: A Country Study*. Washington: The Library of Congress.
52. Mgbemene, C.A., Nnaji, C.C. & Nwozor, C. (2016). Industrialization and its Backlash: Focus on Climate Change and its Consequences. *Journal of Environmental Science and Technology*, 9, 301-316.
53. Mirakhor, A., & Askari, H. (2017). Institutional Structure of a Sound Economy. In *Ideal Islamic Economy* (pp. 119-137). Palgrave Macmillan, New York.
54. NACCIMA (2012). 800 companies shut down in 3 years. *The Premium Times*, September 11. Retrieved from <https://www.premiumtimesng.com/businesson/9/8/18>.
55. NBS (2015). Nigerian manufacturing sector summary report: 2010-2012. Retrieved from <https://www.proshareng.com/newson/5/9/18>.
56. Obasi, I. N. (1999). *Research methodology in political science*. Enugu: Academic Publishing.
57. Obwona, M., Shinyekwa, I., Kiiza, J., & Hisali, E. (2014). The evolution of industry in Uganda. Uganda National Planning Authority, WIDER Working Paper No. 021
58. Ofor, O. (2018). Industrialization: Key to national economic independence. A public lecture delivered in the Veritas University, Abuja. Retrieved from http://veritas.edu.ng/bulletin/prof_ofor_lecture on 6/6/18
59. Okoli, F. C. (2007). *Politics of Development and underdevelopment: Theories of development*. Enugu: Ingenious Creations Services Ltd.
60. Okonjo-Iweala, N. (2012). *Reforming the unreformable: Lessons from Nigeria*. Cambridge, London: The MIT Press.
61. Olaoye, O. A. (2014). Potentials of the agro industry towards achieving food security in Nigeria and Other Sub-Saharan African Countries. *Journal of Food Security*, 2(1), 33-41.
62. Olayiwola, A. M., & Lawal, M. O. (2018). Mapping urban growth and its impact on agricultural lands in Abeokuta, Nigeria: 1966-2016. *Interdisciplinary Environmental Review*, 19(3-4), 289-305.
63. Oluyole, F. (2017). Ajaokuta: How Nigeria's largest industrial project failed. *Premium Times Daily News*, December, 26.
64. Onah, F. O. (2006). *Managing public programs and projects*. Nsukka-Nigeria: Great AP Publishers Limited.
65. Onah, R. & Ibietan, J. (2009). Democratic stability and regional economic integration: The Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) experience. *Nigerian Journal of Public Administration and Local Government*, Xiv 1 & 2, 17 – 32.
66. Onimode, B. (2003). Unequal exchange, external debt and capacity for development – oriented policies in African countries, In A.G. Garba (ed), *Development thought, policy advance and economic development in Africa in the 21st century: Lessons for the 21st century*. Ibadan: University Press, pp. 39 – 56.
67. Onwuegzuzie, A.J., Leech, N.L. & Collins, K. (2012). Qualitative analysis techniques for the review of literature. *The Columbia University Press Qualitative Report*, 7(56), 20 – 35.
68. Onyemelukwe, J. O. C. (1983). Structural and locational characteristics of manufacturing. In J. S. Oguntoyinbo, O., O. Areola & M. Filani, (eds.), *A Geography of Nigerian Development*, 2nd edition. Ibadan: Heinemann Educational Books Ltd, pp. 296-310.
69. Oshewolo, S. (2010). Galloping poverty in Nigeria: An appraisal of government interventionist policies. *Journal of Sustainable Development in Africa*, 12(6), 264 – 274.
70. Otite, U. (1990). *Poverty in Nigeria*: Ibadan. The Noble Publishers.
71. Otsuka, K. & Sonobe, T. (2006). Strategy for cluster-based Industrial Development in Developing Countries. In K. Ohno & T. Fujimoto (eds.), *Industrialization of Developing Countries Analyses by Japanese Economists. The 21st Century COE Program Joint Report*. Tokyo-Japan: The National Graduate Institute for Policy Studies (GRIPS)
72. Oyeyinka, O. & Adeloye, O. (1988). Technological change and project execution in a developing economy: Evolution of Ajaokuta Steel Plant in Nigeria. A publication of International Development Research Centre, Canada.
73. Paul, S. O. (2019). National urban development policy and the unanswered development question of slum in Nigeria. *International Journal of Public Policy and Administration Research*, 6(2), 102 – 115.

74. Pressman, J. & Wildavsky, A. (1973). *Implementation*. Berkeley: University of California Press.
75. Rauniyar, G. & Kanbur, R. (2009). *Inclusive growth and inclusive development: A review and synthesis of Asian Development Bank literature*. Occasional Paper No. 8 of Independent Evaluation Department, Asian Development Bank
76. Riddell, R. C. (1995). *Rural poverty and approaches to poverty alleviation*, In R.C Riddell (ed), *Non-Governmental organizations and rural poverty alleviation*. Oxford: Clarendon.
77. Rodney, W. (1972). *How Europe underdeveloped Africa*. Washington, DC: Howard University Press.
78. Sabatier, P. A. (1986). Top-down and bottom-up approaches to implementation research: A critical analysis and suggested synthesis. *Cambridge University Journal of Public Policy*, 6 (1), 21-48. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/3998354>
79. Sachs, J. D. (2005). *The end of poverty: How we can make it happen in our lifetime*. London: Penguin Books Ltd.
80. Salami, R., & Soltanzadeh, J. (2012). Comparative analysis for science, technology and innovation policy; lessons learned from some selected countries (Brazil, India, China, South Korea and South Africa) for other LDCs Like Iran. *Journal of Technology Management & Innovation*, 7(1), 211-227.
81. Tignor, R. L. (2015). *Capitalism and nationalism at the end of empire: state and business in decolonizing Egypt, Nigeria, and Kenya, 1945-1963*. Princeton: University Press.
82. Toffler, A. (2013). *Revolutionary wealth*. *New Perspectives Quarterly*, 30(4), 122-130.
83. UNCTD (2018). *Economic development in Africa report: 2018 Migration for Structural Transformation*. Retrieved from <https://unctad.org/en/PublicationChapters/edar2018> on 213/9/19.
84. UNIDO (2013). *A selection of UNIDO field projects*. Retrieved from <https://www.unido.org/who-we-are/unido-worldwide/africa/selected-projects> on 24/8/18.
85. UNIDO (2014). www.unido.org. Accessed on 24/2/18.
86. UNIDO (2015). *Inclusive and sustainable industrial development in Africa Region*. Vienna-Austria: Vienna International Centre.
87. Van Meter, D. & Van Horn, C. (1975). The policy implementation process: A conceptual framework. *International Journal of Administration and Society*, 6 (2), 445-88.
88. Williams, P.H. (1965). The industrialization of Nigeria. *Proceedings of Oklahoma Academy of Science*, 45: 215-218.
89. World Bank (2014). *State and trends of carbon pricing 2014*. Washington DC: World Bank Publications.
90. Yesufu, T. M. (1996). *The Nigerian economy: Growth without development*. University of Benin Social Science Series.
91. Yong, L. (2013). *Statement of the Director General United Nations Industrial Development Organization*. Retrieved from <https://www.unido.org> on 14/6/2018.