YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT AND LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY IN NIGERIA: THE NEXUS

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Abstract
Within the framework of labour productivity theory, the paper examined the interface between youth unemployment and labour productivity as they relate to growth of Nigerian economy. The paper employed both qualitative and quantitative research methods to examine the incidence of youth unemployment as a function of labour productivity, agricultural, manufacturing and services contributions to real Gross Domestic Product (GDP), as well as population and inflation rate in which the growth rate of the variables were modeled. It concludes that youth unemployment, agricultural and services contributions to real GDP. It also revealed that there is have positive relationship between youth unemployment and labour productivity in Nigeria. It recommend among others, that since more employment means more income for the poor, which in turn implies a greater demand for basic locally produced goods and services. It is important for government to ensure growth and development of the rural and small-scale urban sectors. This should consider, very seriously, encouraging people to establish more labour-intensive small scale enterprises which have the propensity to create more jobs and higher incomes. This programme, if well implemented, could reverse the rural urban drift which has seriously affected the urban employment. However, in order to achieve this goal, a complementary policy of removing factor-price distortions and promoting labour-intensive technologies of production may be required

Keywords: Youth Unemployment, Labour, Gross Domestic Product, Productivity, Nigeria

Introduction
Youth unemployment is one of the greatest challenges facing Nigeria today and has maintained a rising trend over the years. According to Bello (2003), from time immemorial, the subject of unemployment has always been an issue of great concern to the economists, policy makers and economic managers alike; giving the devastating effect of this phenomenon on individuals, the
society and the economy at large. The population of every country is divided into two categories, the economically active and the economically inactive. The economically active population (labor force) or working population refers to the population that is willing and able to work, including those actively engaged in the production of goods and services (employed) and those who are unemployed (Njoku & Okezie, 2011). The second category, the economically inactive population refers to people who are neither working nor looking for jobs.

Nigeria is the most populous back country in the world and with an estimated population of over 167 million people (NPC, 2011). With a nominal GDP of $207.11 billion and per capita income of $1,401, it has the largest economy in Africa (Salami, 2014). As impressive as the above figures may appear, youth unemployment and low productivity has been one of the major problems facing the country. A high level of un- and underemployment is one of the critical socio-economic problems confronting Nigeria. While the labour force grows with an increasing proportion of youth, employment growth is inadequate to absorb labour market entrants. As a result, youth are especially affected by unemployment. Moreover, young people are more likely to be employed in jobs of low quality, underemployed, working long hours for low wages, engaged in dangerous work or receive only short term and/or informal employment arrangements.

The effects of all these are pure and simple low productivity; increase in social vices, human capacity under-utilization; increased poverty amongst the citizenry, social alienation and weak purchasing power among other problems. Although the Nigerian government at various times had put in place a number of policies and programmes to address and curb this menace, however, it is highly regrettable that the antidotes where applied have not yielded the desired result. This could be attributed to lack of commitment to the course of youth unemployment.

In the views of Aiyedogbon & Ohwofasa (2012), the inadequate employment opportunities for the youth have a number of socio-economic, political and moral consequences. Low productivity and chronic poverty are among such consequences. The share of the total population living below the $1 a day threshold of 46 per cent is higher today than in the 1980s and 1990s in spite significant improvements in the growth of GDP in recent years. Unemployment and low productivity are so intertwine that one can easily confuse one for the other. Although, it is possible for one to be employed and still exhibit low productivity, this could as well be traceable to underemployment. Thus, by unemployment, it includes those underemployed. According to Aiyedogbon & Ohwofasa (2012) youth unemployment and underemployment reflect the failure to make use of an important factor of production (labour) for fostering economic growth in Nigeria. They went further to argue that low returns to labour and high youth unemployment accelerates poverty.

The social aspects of the problem of youth unemployment lie in the association of unemployment with social exclusion and a sense of hopelessness. For instance, structural youth unemployment is believed to be the basis for the activities of miscreants such as militant youth in the Niger Delta, kidnapping which is fast becoming a way of life in Nigeria, as well as deadly Boko Haram sect in Northern Nigeria threatening peaceful co-existence and socio-economic
development of the country. The activity of militant groups especially Boko Haram has resulted in many deaths and destruction of property worth billions of naira.

To Aiyedogbon & Ohwofasa (2012), unemployment in Nigeria is defined as the proportion of labour force that are available for work but did not work in the week preceding the survey period for at least 39 hours. Official figures from the Bureau of Statistics puts the figure of unemployed at 19.70 per cent, about 30 million, but this figure still did not include about 40 million other Nigerian youths captured in World Bank statistics in 2009. By implication, it means that if Nigeria’s population is 167 million, then 50 percent of Nigerians are unemployed (see Njoku & Okezie, 2011). It is based on this, one can conclude that Nigeria’s youth unemployment and low productivity level poses even greater threat to its development, security and peaceful co-existence.

It is in light of this development and its attendant deleterious consequences on individual national development that have attracted the attention of these researchers. In the midst of these controversies and inherent contradictions evident in youth unemployment and labour productivity in Nigeria, This paper will therefore, seeks to examine the interface between youth unemployment and labour productivity as they relate to growth of Nigerian economy with the of finding the way forward.

Methodology
Nigeria is a country in West Africa with an estimated population of 170 million people, distributed as 51.7% rural and 48.3% urban, with a population density of 167.5 people per square kilometer (United Nations, 2012). The World Bank (2013) report, estimated Nigeria’s current population to be about 162.5 million people. The country is divided into six geopolitical zones. The research was conducted in the six geopolitical zones of Nigeria namely: North-east, North-west, North-central, South-east, South-west and South-south. The major cities in the six geo-political zones include: Lagos in the South-west, Owerri in the South-east, Port Harcourt in the South-south, Kano in the North-west, Maiduguri in the North-East, and Abuja in the North-central.

The paper adopts both qualitative and quantitative research methods to examine the nexus between youth unemployment and labour productivity in Nigeria. The qualitative aspect deals with documentary analysis of current literature which enhances critical and contextual analysis of nature and character of youth unemployment and labour productivity in Nigeria while the quantitative aspect deals with the use of secondary data. The dependent variable is labour productivity while the independent variable is the youth unemployment in the six geo-political zones in Nigeria. To improve on the reliability and validity of the paper, multiple secondary sources were used to minimize errors.

Youth Unemployment and Labour Productivity: Conceptual and Theoretical Framework
One of the greatest challenges facing the Nigeria as a country today is youth unemployment and attendant effect of labour productivity which has maintained a rising trend over the years. The total labour force in Nigeria is made up of all persons aged 15-64 years excluding students, home keepers, retired persons and stay-at-home to work or not interested.
There seems to be a consensus on the definition of unemployment. Unemployment or unemployed simply refers to people who are willing and a capable to work but are unable to find suitable paid employment. The International Labor Organization (ILO) defines the unemployed as numbers of the economically active population who are without work but are available for and seeking work, including people who have lost their jobs and those who have voluntarily left work (World Bank, 1998). For Adebayo (1999), unemployment exists when members of the labor force wish to work but cannot get jobs. However, Akintoye (2008), have faulted the application of the ILO’s definition across countries, especially for the purpose of comparison and policy formulation, as countries characteristics and commitments are not the same towards resolving unemployment problems. For example, Dougason & Gbosi (2006) argue that the preponderance of housewives who possess the ability and willingness to work, the definition of the age bracket all stand as limitations to the definition given by ILO.

Youth unemployment on the other hand could be described as the conglomerate of youths with diverse background, willing and able to work, but cannot find any. When the supply of labor outstrips the demand for labor, it causes joblessness and unemployment. Given the lack of sufficient employment opportunities in the formal sector, young people may be compelled to engage in casual work and other unorthodox livelihood sources, thus leading to underemployment (Echebiri, 2005).

The youth unemployment rate can be expressed as a percentage of the total number of persons available for employment at any time but can not get job. Youth unemployment has been categorized as one of the serious impediments to social progress. Apart from representing a colossal waste of a country's manpower resources, it generates welfare loss in terms of lower output thereby leading to lower income and well-being (Raheem, 1993). After examining the youth unemployment situation, Rama (1998) declared that youth unemployment is a very serious issue in Africa and especially in Nigeria (Umo, 1996). The need to avert the negative effects of youth unemployment on productivity has made the tackling of youth unemployment problems to feature prominently in the development objectives of many developing countries.

According to Etekpe (2012), productivity is the production of goods and services in abundance, or applying the factors of production to create favourable output/result. To Igbokwe-Ibeto (2012), productivity is the total output/total input; that is the relationship between unit of labour input and unit of output. It is the output resulting from a given resource at a given time. It is the ratio of output to input. But output can be compared with various kinds of inputs: hours worked the total of labour and capital inputs, or something in between (Igbokwe-Ibeto, 2012). In the economic terms, it means the efficient and effective creation of goods and services to produce wealth or value. Productivity is usually associated with efficiency, which is defined by Adebayo (2001) as “a ratio between input and output, effort and result, expenditure and income, cost and the resulting pleasure….“ Whereas, efficiency seeing to be synonymous with effectiveness, it (effectiveness) is generally referred to as achievement of high output/result based on the policy goal at minimal cost. Adebayo (2001), went further to explain that efficiency and effectiveness (EE) are an “input-output relationship where maximum work is achieved for minimum input of
energy or resources.” In other words, the efficiency-effectiveness equation suggests optimization whereby maximum satisfaction is obtained from the investment of given resources.

The importance of labour productivity in nation or an organization cannot be over emphasized. As an economic standard, productivity is an important factor in determining prices and wages. Economists are far from a full understanding of the relations among the variables, but there is substantial agreement on: The large increases in real wages that have come about over the long term in many countries are closely associated with large increase in labour productivity in these countries; in the absence of increase in labour productivity, a stable price level is inconsistent with persistent increases in money wages; industries in which sales of products are comparatively insensitive to price changes, increases in labour productivity will tend to reduce employment and possibly also reduce wages; and an increase in labour productivity or in the productivity of other factors usually brings with it a reduction in cost and hence tends to result in price reductions, wage increase, or both (Igbokwe-Ibeto, 201).

There is no one theoretical approach through which a phenomenon could be explained in especially social and management sciences where views often differs based on scholars world view and orientation. When issue of youth unemployment is mentioned in contemporary times, labour productivity theory comes out forcefully. The labour productivity theory under which we have four sub-theories of cost, efficiency and efficiency, and target theories is found relevant in underpinning this paper because of its advantages. These advantages include efficiency that refers to the relationship between output and input. An efficient operation produces maximum output with minimum input for any given quantity and quality (Eneanya, 2009). Galbraith (in Eneanya, 2009) posits that “we act efficiently when we maximize the product for the given expenditure which maximizes the product”. This means that we use resources economically in order to produce maximum results in real, not monetary terms.

**Youth Unemployment and Labour Productivity: The Nexus**

The relationship between productivity and employment/unemployment is a complex issue. Increased labour productivity connotes that the same volume of output can be produced with less labour. By implication, this tends to contract employment (an increase in unemployment rate). The theoretical perspectives on this relationship vary from one school of thought to another.

For instance, High inflation, unemployment and adverse balance of payment in the economy has been attributed to low productivity; although, most managers of the economy have expressed deep concern about the problem. Many are not sure about what actions can resolve the hydra-headed economic problem. It is line with this that Fajonyomi (1996) indentified three basic approaches that can be used in describing and even measuring productivity in the field of administrative sciences.

First of these approaches, is referred to as the amount of human and material resources at the disposal of decision makers. This is known as a status-centered approach. Secondly, it is viewed as a conscious allocation and utilization of both human and material resources in a judicious manner. This is the cost conscious approach. The third approach, the output-centered perception in which productivity is defined as the units of goods produced as well as the number of political
decisions taken (Fajonyomi, 1996). From the foregoing, it can be deduced that the Nigerian socio-political cum economic environment lay emphasis on the cost and output-centered approaches.

The classical school of thought that provided the earliest thinking on economic issues did not fail to give a central point of reflection on the undesirability of unemployment. The Keynesian revolution of the 1930’s, which commanded the explosive attack on economic orthodoxy apparently, treated unemployment and low productivity as a central issue of great concern. Economists at all times and in all ages have expressed various degrees of concern over the threat of the monster called unemployment low productivity.

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Types of Unemployment
Cyclical Unemployment: This type of unemployment also known as Keynesian unemployment or the demand deficient unemployment is due to the operation of the business cycle. This arises at a time when the aggregate effective demand of the community becomes deficient in relation to the productive capacity of the country. In other words, when the aggregate demand falls below the full employment level, it is not sufficient to purchase the full employment level of output.

Frictional Unemployment: This type of unemployment is caused by industrial friction, such as, immobility of labor, ignorance of job opportunities, shortage of raw materials and breakdown of machinery, etc. Jobs may exist, yet the workers may be unable to fill them either because they do not possess the necessary skill, or because they are not aware of the existence of such jobs. They may remain unemployed on account of the shortage of raw materials, or mechanical defects in the working of plants. On average it will take an individual a reasonable period of time for him or her to search for the right job.

Structural Unemployment: Occurs when there is a change in the structure of an industry or the economic activities of the country. As an economy develops over time the type of industries may well change. This may be because people's tastes have changed or it may be because technology has moved on and the product or service is no longer in demand.

Seasonal Unemployment: This is due to seasonal variations in the activities of particular industries caused by climatic changes, changes in fashions or by the inherent nature of such industries. The rain coat factories are closed down in dry season throwing the workers out of their jobs because there is no demand for rain coat during dry season. Likewise, the sugar industry is seasonal in the sense that the crushing of sugar-cane is done only in a particular season. Such seasonal industries are bound to give rise to seasonal unemployment.

Disguised Unemployment: This refers to the mass unemployment and underemployment which prevail in the agricultural sector of an underdeveloped and overpopulated country. For example, if there are four persons trying to cultivate an area of land that could be cultivated as well by three persons, then only three of these persons are really fully employed and the remaining fourth person represents disguised unemployment. The people in underdeveloped countries are outwardly employed but actually they are unemployed, the reason being that agricultural production would suffer no reduction if a certain number of them are actually withdrawn from agriculture.
Causes of Unemployment in Nigeria

The fundamental factor that accounts for the high rate of youth unemployment in particular and unemployment in general in Nigeria includes but not limited to the following:

Adoption of Untimely Economic Policy Measures: A major factor that triggered unemployment problem overtime is the demise of the small scale and cottage industries which operated in both formal and informal sectors. Following the introduction of the Structural Adjustment Program (SAP) in 1986 by Babangida’s administration that ushered in liberalization, deregulation and the devaluation of the domestic currency, many of the teething domestic firms in the country collapsed. This resulted in the loss of many jobs and thereby rendering many people unemployed. Although, these policies were designed to jump start the growth of the economy, but given the structure of the Nigerian economy, some of the policy packages became out rightly inimical to the system due to wrong timing.

Poor Economic Growth Rate: The atmosphere in Nigeria since the late 80s has been very hostile to economic growth and development. The high level of corruption, mismanagement of public funds, harsh and unrealistic economic policies, and insecurity in parts of the country coupled with long term despotic rule of the military among other factors have dampened the spirit of economic growth for a long time. The situation in the 90s was so terrible that analysts described the period as a lost decade to Nigeria in terms of economic growth and development (Damachi, 2001).

Neglect of the Agricultural Sector: Before now, agricultural sector has been the leading provider of employment in Nigeria especially in the sixties and in the seventies when the sector provided employment for more than 60 percent of the Nigerian population. However, in the wake of oil discovery, the attention on this anchor of the economy was gradually drawn away to the oil sector where employment generation capacity is very low. The resulting effect is the large number of job seekers who have no place in the oil industry and the multi-national cooperation’s. Even with the expansion of the industry from oil to gas, unemployment has continued to grow at an alarming rate.

Poor Enabling Environment: The poor enabling environment that characterizes the economy over the years has continued to pose serious challenges to employment generation in Nigeria. This, coupled with insecurity in parts of the country has continued to hamper investment drives and thereby reducing the prospects of employment generation. Many job seekers who would have embarked on self-employment programmes are unable to do so because of the hostile and frustrating environment. Others who make attempt are forced to wind up due to absence of basic infrastructures and the overall heat of the investment environment.

Wrong Impression about Technical and Vocational Studies: The wrong impression of students about the place of technical and vocational education also accounts for the deteriorating state of youth unemployment in Nigeria. According to Damachi (2001), there is an enduring societal biased attitude against technical and vocational education. The large number of
applicants seeking university education as against the number seeking polytechnic (technical) admission is a confirmation of Damachi’s (2001) submission. A large number of job seekers in Nigeria lack practical skills that could enhance self-employment. That is why rather than providing jobs for others, the unemployed graduates keep depending on the government and the non-vibrant private sector for job offers.

**Growth Profile of Unemployment In Nigeria**

Various forms of unemployment have been identified and elaborated upon in the literature. These include: seasonal, frictional, cyclical, and structural unemployment (Damachi, 2001). Unemployment is measured among people in the labor force (Obadan & Odusola, 2001; National Bureau of Statistics, 2010). The labor force of a country as defined by National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) (2009) is a set of people or citizens of a country who are willing and are able to make available at any given point in time their efforts for gainful employment.

Youth unemployment is a global issue, but it occurs mostly in developing countries of the world, with its attendant social, economic, political, and psychological consequences. Thus, massive youth unemployment in any country is an indication of far more complex problems. The ILO (2007), report showed that the proportions of world unemployed are steadily increasing and that the number of those without jobs remained at an all time high of more than 195 million, or 6.3 percent, in 2007. As of 2007, the Middle East and North Africa had the highest unemployment rate in the world at 12.2 percent, followed by sub-Saharan Africa Nigeria inclusive at nearly 10 percent. East Asia’s unemployment rate of 3.6 percent remained the lowest. The report affirmed that population growth, especially in South Asia, the Middle East, North Africa, and Sub-Saharan Africa, was putting a lot of pressure on job creation. The report concluded that half of all workers in the world - some 1.4 billion working poor - lived in families that survived on less than US $2 a day per person. These people work in the vast informal sector - from farms to fishing, from agriculture to urban alleyways - without benefits, social security, or healthcare. Some 550 million working poor lived on US $1 or less per day. In absolute terms, it is estimated that there are about 122 million youths on the African continent (Echebiri, 2005; Chigunta, 2002). Therefore, projections of the population growth into the 21st century indicated that the proportion of youths, in relation to the overall population, will continue to grow. Todaro (1992) pointed out that the high rate of unemployment is a result of continuous transfer of economic activities, especially the youths from rural to urban areas.

In table 1 below, the growth of unemployment by states in Nigeria is shown in which Abia, Adamawa, Bauchi, Delta, Kebbi and Zamfara are among the states with the highest level of unemployment in Nigeria.
Table 1: Unemployment Rates by states in Nigeria 2004-2011

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<th>States</th>
<th>2004</th>
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<td>7.1</td>
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<td>25.0</td>
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<td>21.5</td>
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Source: NBS (2012)
A couple of recent studies have attempted to examine the contributions of informal sector to employment generation. Ajibefun & Daramola (2003) using a sample of 180 examine the efficiency of micro enterprises in the Nigerian economy. The study reported evidence of a wide variation in technical and allocative efficiencies, both within and across industries.

They also found that education of owner of a business enterprise was a significant factor influencing efficiency, an indication of the need for more proactive actions to raise the level of efficiency and thus employment and reduce unemployment among the firms in the sample. Sanda (2006) uses a sample of 360 firms in Kano and its environs to examine whether or not, in comparison to large firms, small firms are relatively better at creation of employment opportunities. Their results are positive in that small firms were found to be relatively better, and the conclusion they derived was that a policy that gives special preference to small firms is justified. Muhammad, Oye & Inuwa (2011) examines the role played by unemployment on the making of the Nigerian Gross Domestic Product (GDP) for a period of nine years (2000 - 2008). Using the regression analysis, findings showed that unemployment has an enormous effect (over 65 percent) on the making of the Nigerian GDP and there exist an inverse relationship between the model (unemployment) and the GDP - increase in the model leads to decrease on the GDP and vice versa.

Average Growth of Poverty, Unemployment and Other Variables

Table 2 below shows the growth profile of incidence of population growth, unemployment, agricultural, manufacturing and services contributions to real GDP in Nigeria for the period 1987-2011.

Table 2: Average Growth Profile of Youth Unemployment and other Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Unemployed</th>
<th>Agric</th>
<th>Service</th>
<th>Manufacturing</th>
<th>Inflation</th>
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<tr>
<td>1987-1991</td>
<td>164.3</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>27.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992-1996</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>-2.8</td>
<td>51.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>1997-2001</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>10.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002-2006</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>13.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007-2011</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>29.1</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Source: CBN Annual Report and Statement of Account 2011

The above table revealed that between1987-1991, agricultural contribution to real GDP was 4.4 percent, manufacturing 6.9 percent and services sector averaged 8.7 percent. During the 1992-1996, the real sector contributions declined to 2.8 percent for agriculture, 3.5 percent for manufacturing while services sector averaged -2.8 percent. In 1997-2001, the contribution of the agricultural sector to real GDP was 4.1 percent, manufacturing 1.5 percent and 10.7 percent for the services section. An increase for the real sector contributions between 2002-2006 recorded 16.6 percent for agriculture, 9.3 percent for manufacturing and 11.5 percent for services sector. In the final period, there was a decline in contributions to real GDP from agriculture and manufacturing while services sector recorded an increase. Also, in 2007-2011 period, agricultural sector contribution was 6.2 percent, 8.3 percent for manufacturing and 29.1 percent for services sector.
It can also be seen from table 2 that average population and inflation growth rates for the period 1987-1991 was 164.3 and 27.4 percent respectively. During the 1992-96, average population growth declined to 2.9 percent while inflation increase to 51.3 percent and between 1997-2001, population growths remained at the previous level while inflation rate declined to 10.2 percent. In 2002-06 periods, average population growth was 3.5 percent and 13.6 percent for inflation. Finally, in 2002-2011, average population and inflation growth declined marginally to 3.2 and 10.8 percent respectively.

Consequences of Unemployment
According to Bello (2003), the consequences of unemployment in Nigeria are very severe and threatening to the citizenry and the economy as a whole. The unemployment episode has continued to pose so many challenges to the survival of the Nigerian nation. While some of these consequences bother directly on the unemployed, others like epidemics are limitless in effects. Some of these consequences is what this section of the paper examined:

**Low GDP:** It is an established economic reality that the size of the workforce directly impacts a country’s GDP. Not only does the work force produce manufactured goods or services or agricultural produce in direct proportion, but also brings in its wake increasing purchasing power, which in turn, fuels economic growth. Thus, unemployment contributes to a reduction in the potential which exists in spurring a country’s GDP.

**Crime and Violence:** With growing youth unemployment, the divide between the rich and the poor grows, resulting in social tensions which could affect the entire fabric of a community, state and the entire country. Due to frustration as a result of not gainfully employed, most youth people turn to drugs.

**Unproductive Labour Force:** The most direct impact on the economy of an unproductive labour force is lost in output in terms of goods and services. With no income tax to collect and the loss of receipts from indirect taxes such as the value added tax, the government takes in less in tax revenue (Bellemare & Poulin-Simon, 1994).

**Psychological Effect:** Young men and women, who have put in a decade or two in schools and colleges, have dreams and aspirations. These are dreams of securing satisfying jobs following their years of struggle, meeting basic necessities of life (food, clothing, shelter and healthcare), graduating to a life of comfort and dignity and, eventually, enjoying the luxuries of life. The trauma of seeing their dreams shattered week after week, month after month, can and does lead to deep psychological scars that are very difficult to face at such a young age. These can impact any individual’s self esteem and can lead to clinical depression.

**Family Support:** In a country like Nigeria, where the people retire when they are not tired and there is no social security net, very often a family depends on a son or a daughter graduating from high school or college to take up employment in order to support the entire family. When that does not happen, the financial woes are unimaginably sorrowful.
Law and Order: It has been established that educated unemployed youths are likely to take to crime—blue collar or white collar crimes—more easily than others. This arises out of the thesis that they would have, at some stage of their careers, seen good life, even from a distance, and formed their dreams based thereon. When they fail to see these dreams turn into reality, some may turn to crime.

Effect on Health: It is equally easy to visualize that lack of steady income could, apart from the above ills, also lead to inadequate nutrition and adversely affect health of the youth and their families. This could lead to low life expectancy.

Political Instability: When unemployment grows in a community, dissatisfaction with the government follows. This, in turn, leads to frequent changes in governments or formation of unsteady coalitions which is not healthy for long term stable economic policies which could result to a vicious circle of political changes. As President Franklin D. Roosevelt had stated, "Not only our future economic soundness but the very soundness of our democratic institutions depends on the determination of our government to give employment to idle men." Youth unemployment or underemployment therefore means to me, “the saddest sight that fortune’s inequality exhibits under the sun”.

Research Findings
Available statistics reveals that the poverty incidence in Nigeria has been on the increase since the 1980s. As reported by the UNDP (2010), between 1980 and 1996, the percentage of the core poor rose from 6.2 percent to 29.3 percent, and declined to 22.0 percent in 2004. According to Omotola (2008), about 70 percent of the population now lives in abject poverty. As observed by Garba (2006), the world's per capita income as of 2003 was $7,140. Comparing this to Nigeria’s per capita income of $290 makes the country one of the poorest in the world. This relegated Nigeria to the ranks of Togo ($270), Rwanda ($220), and Mali ($210). Other indicators of development, such as life expectancy for which Nigeria is ranked 155 out of the world’s 177 countries, and infant mortality, for which Nigeria is ranked 148th among 173 countries, were consistent with Nigeria’s low rank in income per capita (CIA, 2009).

An analysis of the existing descriptive survey of the linkage between labour productivity and youth unemployment shows some degree of variations. Maddison (1982) showed that the growth of total employment since 1970 paralleled that of real GDP in industrial countries. They both accelerated and decelerated in the same direction. By implication, productivity and youth unemployment are inversely related. Schaik & Groot (1997) also presented the European countries' experience of high growth of industrial productivity with unprecedented low rates of unemployment in the 1950s and 1960s. Grilli & Zanalda (1995) also observed that growth of total employment maintained a positive relationship with real GDP in developing countries between 1960s and 1980s. In contrast, Krugman (1994) found no visible pattern between productivity and unemployment among some developed countries. Some countries with the best unemployment performances turned out to be the worst productivity performances.
For example, between 1981 and 1990, high rate of unemployment were associated with period of declining/low productivity. Labour productivity was relatively higher between 1990 and 1996 than what obtained in the 1980s, and the unemployment rate declined up to 1995. The wide gap between youth unemployment and labour productivity between 1991 and 1996 tends to suggest that productivity and employment were correlated during the period. The trend analysis seems to suggest an inverse relationship between unemployment and productivity, thus supporting a positive linkage between employment growth and higher productivity.

The attendant result of high youth unemployment and low productivity in Nigeria is the chronic poverty prevalent in the country. While there is a consensus that there is no standard in poverty, however, Igbokwe-Ibeto, Akhakpe & Oteh (2012) have listed characteristics of the poverty to include: no food to eat; and even if they have food, it will be tasteless and monotonous., no house to live in; where they have house to live, the houses are uninhabitable, no water to drink; no access to education; no land to cultivate some crops; where they are able to get land, it will be unproductive, no fresh air to breed and where they air to breed; if they get air at all, it will be polluted i.e. either too hot or too cool, no fire to warm themselves; and where they have warm, it must come from smoking fire.

Concluding Remarks
The issue of youth unemployment and labour productivity as captured by scholars have been has been espoused with an attempt at clarifying the intellectual “cobweb” surrounding the issue of youth unemployment and labour productivity. In addition, searchlight was also beamed on the theoretical framework for a better understanding of the concepts under interrogation. Thus, theory on the concept of youth unemployment and labour productivity have been examined as postulated by scholars. An attempt has also been made to establish the nexus between youth unemployment and labour productivity in Nigeria.

The estimation results for both the short and long run models revealed that youth unemployment rate has a significant effect bon labour productivity. This is the reason why the Nigerian government should placed more emphasis on the rising rate of youth unemployment in the country, since it does affect the productivity growth of the economy.

Based on the findings, we recommend that there is need for government to take urgent steps against the rising youth unemployment rate in Nigeria. This is because youth unemployment in particular and unemployment in general is a major impediment to societal progress and results in waste of skilled manpower.

Yet, since more employment means more income for the poor, which in turn implies a greater demand for basic locally produced goods and services. It is important for government to ensure growth and development of the rural and small-scale urban sectors. This should consider, very seriously, encouraging people to establish more labour-intensive small scale enterprises which have the propensity to create more jobs and higher incomes. This programme, if well implemented, could reverse the rural urban drift which has seriously affected the urban employment. However, in order to achieve this goal, a complementary policy of removing factor-price distortions and promoting labour-intensive technologies of production may be required.
References


