

Historical Perspective Of Globalization: A Case Of West Africa

Frances Jumoke Oloidi¹, Emmanuel Chimezie Eyisi², Emmanuel Obiahu Agha²,
Kelechi Charles Nwachukwu³

¹Department of History and International Studies, University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Enugu
State, Nigeria.

²Department of Sociology, Alex-Ekwueme Federal University Ndufu-Alike, Ikwo, Ebony
State, Nigeria.

³Department of Political Science, Alex-Ekwueme Federal University Ndufu-Alike, Ikwo,
Ebony State Nigeria.

Abstract

The paper perceives globalization as a classical economy prevailing today whose philosophy and orientation is to encourage free flow of ideas, people, goods, services and capital for the purpose of enhancing integration of economies and societies. This paper traces the history of globalization in Africa but had emphasis on West Africa. The paper argues that the age of globalization came as a consequence of a combination of factors such as improved technologies, growing tastes of individuals and societies, globalization of national economies, liberalization of national financial and capital markets, competition among the providers of intermediary services and mass production arising from improved technologies. The paper posits that in the globalized economy, countries with requisite capabilities for trade and investment are usually integrated with spillover effects on their growth and development. According to the paper, those that cannot be integrated because of lack of infrastructure, institutional capability, technical skills, unfriendly investment environment and organizational capabilities are bypassed and they run the risk of being marginalized. In light of the findings, the study recommends West African states to 'watch the events and choose not to globalize areas that run counter to African culture and social wellbeing. African communalism should be encouraged. The reduction in unemployment and poverty must be pursued as a matter of urgency should be one of the strategies to achieving this goal. It is no gainsaying that readers are leaders. Meeting the information needs of African leaders, policy makers and Africans

generally can help in improving the positive effects of globalization and reducing its negative tolls in the region.

Keywords: Globalization, Historical Perspective, West Africa

Introduction

Globalization is a powerful real aspect of the new world system, and it represents one of the most influential forces in determining the future course of the planet. It has manifold dimensions: economic, political, security, environmental, health, social, cultural, and others. Globalization has had significant impacts on all economies of the world, with manifold effects. It affects their production of goods and services. It also affects the employment of labor and other inputs into the production process. In addition, it affects investment, both in physical capital and in human capital. It affects technology and results in the diffusion of technology from initiating nations to other nations. It also has major effects on efficiency, productivity and competitiveness (Intriligator, 2003:1; 7)

In the 1990s 'globalization' has become a particularly fashionable way to analyze changes in the international economy and in world politics. Advances in technology and modern communications are said to have unleashed new contacts and intercourse among peoples, social movements, transnational corporations, and governments. The result is a set of processes which have affected national and international politics in an extraordinary way (Ngaire, 2000:17).

In the age of globalization, the links between political economy and society are forged through terms like governance. An old word in the English language with a new lease on life, governance plays a role that on the surface appears benign but on closer scrutiny becomes more sinister. One of the perspectives for examining these links and penetrating below the surface appearance of a term like governance is political economy, an interdisciplinary tradition that spans the social sciences and humanities from sociology and geography to communications and education (Sumner, 2008:102). In the words of Canadian political economist Harold Innis, the task for engaged intellectuals involves "questioning the pretensions of organized power" (Neufeld & Whitworth, 1997:198)

Africans were regarded as sub-humans, Njoku (2002:89) states that colonialism became a gospel of redemption and elevation of the black man to some human status. Before 1830, Mountjoy and Embleton (1966), argued that European settlements were for the most part restricted to small coastal trading stations. Both physical and economic factors combined to retard penetration. However, during the mid 19th C, Hodder (1976:43), observes that European explorers began to make significant advances into tropical Africa. As a result, the great puzzles of African geography for Europeans – notably the course of the Nile, Niger, Congo and Zambezi rivers – were solved within the space of half a century.

Missionaries took an increasing part in extending European interests. All this exploration and evangelism frequently led to trade. Yet it soon realized that profitable trade depended on maintenance of peace and that this peace could not be assured without administrative intervention and control in the hinterlands. Kanu (2012:11) holds that because the explorers came from several different European countries – Spain, Portugal, France,

Britain, Belgium and Germany – Africa soon became a field for the conflicting ambitions of the major European colonial powers. By the early 1880's these conflicting ambitions were beginning to be expressed territorially. Sections of the coast were being claimed by traders and administrators of one or other of the European powers. Missionary, trading, military and administrative activities were beginning to expand. In the contention of Hodder (1978:56), the stage was now set for the European scramble for Africa, finally to be set in motion by the 1884-5 Conference and Treaty of Berlin. According to Walter (1982:22), the decisive effect of colonialism is that fact that one's power of self-determination was taken away from the other, and by that loss one society is forced into underdevelopment.

According to Baldwin (1965:34), the quest for an African identity, as a historical and intellectual discourse, emerged from the frame built by racial discrimination, slavery and colonialism. It was an attempt to reaffirm their heritage and personality collapsing before Western bias. Africans wanted to accept and define their responsibility to assess the riches and promise of their culture and also to open dialogue with the West. As part of the process of self affirmation and identification, a college of intellectuals created images to project the African identity.

Globalization has imposed heavy constraints on the internal management dynamics of most if not all the policies in Africa such as in Nigeria where the government now finds it difficult in most cases to meet the genuine demands of the governed on many issues of national urgency e.g. the continuous hike in the prices of petroleum and related products and its attendant crippling strikes by Nigerian workers. The reality in Nigeria today as for most West African nations, is that globalization has made it immense difficult for governments to provide social security - one of their central functions and one that has helped many developed nations to maintain social cohesion and domestic political vibrancy. Trends like this have been largely dictated by the asymmetry of powers that accompanies globalization. The low status in the status of the members of the "viljlagized world" has led to the inability of the poorer nations to resist imposed policy options, thrust down their throats by richer and more powerful nations and international agents that they control. The study seeks to concentrate on historical antecedence of globalization in West Africa.

Conceptual Review

Globalization

The word "globalization" as been used to describe the phenomenally rapid expansion of many sorts of global interaction (Boughton, 2002:15). It seems appropriate both to restrict the term to the current stage of these integrative processes and to recognize that contemporary globalization has long historical roots, many of which were regional rather than worldwide. The "history of globalization" in this study thus refers to the many steps leading to the current stage. Although some scholars have proposed terms such as "proto-globalization" or "archaic globalization" to describe these earlier stages, such language has not gained general acceptance.

This study uses the term "convergence" to describe the underlying processes of integration that prefigure contemporary globalization. It argues that for most of human history

convergent forces bringing people together were much weaker than divergent ones that isolated people and that the point at which convergent forces surpassed divergent is the appropriate starting point of the history of globalization.

Contemporary globalization and its historical antecedents include many analytical separable forms of convergence (Owolai, 1998:22). For understandable reasons, most analyses of recent globalization concentrate on economic factors. The great importance of the free flow of goods and currencies in promoting and sustaining global integration is beyond dispute. However, there are many other factors that are a part of globalization and have shaped its historical development. The first is political. Both today and in earlier times trade has been hindered, helped, and regulated by political systems. The development of the institutions, legal systems, and regulatory bodies that serve (or hinder) the growth of international trade and settle disputes among nation-states has a long history. A second form of non-economic globalization is cultural and social. Peter Berger has identified four streams of contemporary global culture that have relevant historical antecedents: a global business culture, a global academic culture, a popular secular culture, and a popular religious culture. Framing the phenomena differently, other social scientists like John Keane have written of a new “global civil society,” with long historical roots (Owolai, 1998:22). Less obvious perhaps is a fourth form of globalization – biological, which includes the movement and mingling of people, animals, plants, and microorganisms (such as those causing epidemics). Underlying all forms of globalization are underlying technologies, including systems of transportation and communication and the knowledge systems that underlie them.

The history of globalization has involved complex interactions among these economic, political, socio-cultural, and biological factors. Economic crises had political repercussions and vice versa. Cultural and social realities promoted or disrupted political and economic integration. Pandemics from the Black Death to the influenza pandemic of 1919-20 drastically reordered regional circumstances, while human migration promoted cultural diversity and interaction. Thus, the challenge of historicizing the process is to bring together the different disciplinary approaches in a framework that shows their intersections.

West Africa Region

The West African region is the same geographical unit known as ECOWAS countries, with Nigeria as its eastern most border and Mauritania as its Western frontier. Within this region, there are sixteen countries, five English speaking namely Nigeria, Ghana, Sierra Leone, Gambia and Liberia; two Portuguese speaking, Cape Verde and Guinea Bissau, and nine French speaking countries namely Republic of Benin, Togo, Cote d’Ivoire, Burkina Faso, Senegal, Guinea, Mali, Mauritania and Niger. In all, this region has a population of about 328 million as projected (from the 1998 population of 245 million (Olukoshi, 2001:4). Remarkable about this population is its high fertility rate. The West African region also has a rate of polygamy higher than other parts of Africa (Dorjahn, 1965:15). The trend has persisted. Higher fertility connotes sizeable youthful population. When these factors are compounded by regional policies that foster unemployment in the sub-region it is no wonder that many able bodied youths find themselves traversing through formidable obstacles to look for better lives outside the continent.

This region witnessed historically the exploitation of British colonialism, French colonial and imperial activities as well as the Portuguese colonial activities. These influences are still felt in the entire region in a variety of ways despite the formation of post-colonial regional Economic and Political unions like the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) and the sub-regional groupings like the Mano River Union. These unions have however not dampened the telling effects of globalization and neo-colonialism.

Globalization in West Africa

There is no doubt that globalization could bring varying effects on the West African Sub-region. For example, globalization will create numerous opportunities for sharing knowledge, technology, social values, and behavioural norms and promoting development at different levels including individuals, organizations, communities and societies across different countries and cultures in the sub-region. In particular, the advantages of globalization may include those identified by Cheng (2000), Brown (1999); and Waters (1995). They are:

1. Global sharing of knowledge, skills and intellectual assets that are necessary for multiple development;
2. Mutual support, supplement and benefit to produce synergy for various developments of countries, communities and individuals in the subregion;
3. Creating values and enhancing efficiency through global sharing and mutual support that could assist local needs and growth;
4. Promoting international understanding, collaboration, harmony and acceptance to cultural diversity across countries in the sub-region; and
5. Facilitating multi-way communications and interactions that encourage multi-cultural contributions and developments at different levels among counties in the sub-region.

Despite those positive impacts of globalization, it could be contented that globalization has potentially serious negative effects on the indigenous developments that could occur in the sub-region. This could be the major reason why there have been on-going social movements in different parts of the world against the trends of globalization particularly in economic and political areas. These potential negative impacts of globalization are the various types of political, economic and cultural colonization; and overwhelming influences of advanced countries on developing countries as well as rapidly increasing gaps between the rich and poor countries. For example for every \$1 generated through export activity, \$0.75 goes to the world riches countries. Low-income countries receive \$.03 (Watkins, 2002). In particular, the potential negative impacts include the following:

1. Increasing the technological gaps and digital divides between advanced countries and the less developed countries that are hindering equal opportunities for fair global sharing;
2. Creating more legitimate opportunities for a few advanced countries to economically and politically colonize other countries globally;
3. Exploiting local resources and destroying indigenous cultures of less advanced countries to benefit a few advanced countries;
4. Increasing inequalities and conflicts between areas and cultures; and

5. Promoting the dominant cultures and values of some advanced areas and accelerating cultural transplant from advanced areas to less developed areas (Watkins, 2002).

However, making globalization work in the sub-region is what should pre-occupy the minds of policymakers that are present in this forum. This is more so now that economic growth rate in the sub-region seem to lag far behind those of other regions coupled with the fact that Africa is the region least integrated into the global economy. A growing body of opinion also suggests that the odds for Africa's integration are so unfavourable that its marginalization is inevitable. The view in this conference as suggested by the title of the paper, however, is that the West African sub-region (and indeed Africa) can and must integrate themselves in world markets with the desire to succeed. For the sub-region, an important step towards success in globalization is promoting regional integration.

Our global world offers many benefits. IMF reports indicate that over the past 50 years, trade has been a major force driving economic growth, with global trade expansion for outstripping global GDP growth. In the 1990s alone, world trade grew at an annual average of 6.8 percent, more than double the annual output growth of 3.2 percent. There are claims that the benefit of globalization is better for developing nations. During the 1990s, developing countries trade increased 8.3 percent a year while annual real GDP growth increased 5.5 percent. These data notwithstanding, the benefits of globalization have not accrued equally across countries. For example, a look at the figures show that Africa's share in the world trade has actually decreased sharply in the past decade. As an illustration, in 2000, the non-oil export of Sub-Saharan African amounted to \$69 billion. If the region's countries had merely maintained their export market of 1980, their 2000 exports would have amounted to \$161 billion (more than double the actual outcome). Having looked at West Africa in general let us in greater detail examine some key impulses driving globalization in the three selected countries namely: Nigeria, Ghana, and Senegal. Together, the three countries account for about 60 percent of the total population of West African region as at the year 2000 (Black et al 2004: 15).

Senegal

Government policies in Senegal have not had favourable effects on the employment of the able bodied. Added to this factor which engenders the urge for migration, is the effect of the subsidization of agricultural products by the Euro-American world as well as the importation of cheap and low quality goods from China. The importation of cheap textile materials from China for instance has for quite a long time wrought havoc on the profitability of producing cotton goods in Senegal and other West African countries. Local textile industries have suffered heavily from this kind of trade liberalization. Again, Senegal that was well known for fisheries is now steadily lagging behind on account of the fishery policies of industrialized Europe and Asia, which encroach on fishing grounds even in the very backyard of Senegal and other West African countries (Kanu, 2011: 24). These mounting disadvantages were expected by some optimists to be taken care of by aid from Europe and America. But such aid has always been inadequate.

In any case aid is invariably accompanied by numerous conditionalities in addition to depriving the Africans of their self worth and national pride. It has also been established that

aid cannot really be a substitute for homegrown policies geared towards the reduction of unemployment and institution of development policies for Senegal and other West African countries (Kanu, 2012:16). Besides as a CNN programme on the 1st June 2007 revealed “two years after Senegal in 2005, of the \$500 million pledged by the G8 for Africa, only 20 per cent has been given”. The NEPAD (New Partnership for Africa’s Development) was finally put in place on October 23, 2001. Its inauguration was spearheaded by Presidents Tabo Mbeki of South Africa, Abdel Aziz, Bouteflika of Algeria, President Olusegun Obasanjo of Nigeria and Abdoulaye Wade of Senegal (Kanu, 2012:19).

An important part of its expectation was vigorous economic policies that will impact favourably on employment, on the welfare and security of Senegalese and not on the emphasis on peer review and inane political statements while migrations of the able-bodies continue to grow unabated. No wonder the NEPAD has humourously been termed “KNEE PAD” indicating the willingness of its African subscribers to “stay longer on its knees while pleading for aid” (Wikipedia, 2006). Although growth and development were among its primary objectives of NEPAD, its actual performance has fallen short of these expectations. The sum total of the policies in Senegal that brought little. If any discernible change in the restiveness of the younger population who contribute almost exclusively to the migrant population if anything the situation is being exacerbated more so with rising expectations.

Ghana

Among Anglophone West African countries, Ghana has occupied an enviable position for quite some time. It is unarguably the most disciplined among all the Anglophone countries its activities having been streamlined by the government of Kwame Nkrumah and successive governments notable that of Jerry Rawlings. The lack of uniform and sustained policies however impacted negatively on the population at various times. By the 1960s Ghanaian economy had experienced a downward plunge, which reflected in many aspects of the economy particularly in massive unemployment. Hundreds of thousands of Ghanaians began to migrate not only to neighbouring African countries but also to Europe and North America. Just as France is desirable as a distinction point for Senegalese, so do Ghanaians prefer the United Kingdom as their place of choice in Europe. The attraction stems from the linkage with UK as their past colonial masters. Apart from Nigerians, Ghanaians are probably not only the most populous but also the oldest West African community in the United Kingdom.

According to the 2001 census in the UK, England and Wales alone had 15,537 persons of Ghanaian origin (Bump, 2006:3). This represents a rise of 72 percent from 32,277 persons as reflected in the 1991 census. This number is composed of people on students visa, work permits and a rising number of African refugees and migrants as the years have progressed. A sizeable population of Ghanaians in UK are experts (Doctors, nurses, etc.). Ghanaian migrant populations are also found in Germany, Netherlands, Belgium, and some other European countries. In Germany for instance, there are 20,000 Ghanaians , 18,000 in the Netherlands, and 32,754 in Italy (Brown, 1995:25).

By the onset of the Busia government, the prices of cocoa had begun to decline appreciably at the same time as imports were rising. This led to huge trade deficits that neither the half hearted debt relief nor the various forms of foreign assistance could stem. This again

is a reflection of the disadvantaged position in foreign trade in which the producers of agricultural raw materials in Africa find themselves vis-à-vis the producers of industrialized goods. The succeeding government 1972-1978 placed its policy around self-reliance on food production, which it could neither effect nor put on a firm footing. Again, unemployment grew leading ultimately to mass exodus of refugees and migrants. None of these governments had any economic policy tailored towards the worthwhile diminutions of unemployment even though every government had spoken of rural and social development and the alleviation of poverty. The result was that by 1992 an estimated 31.4 percent of Ghanaians were living below poverty line, while by 1997 unemployment was put at 20 percent (Ghana in Wikipedia 2006). Out of the estimated labour force of 10.62 million in 2005 unemployment still remained about 21 percent. From comparative observation, this 21 percent comprise of most active members of the population. Neither the membership of the African Union (AU) nor of the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) and the newfangled New Partnership for African Development (NEPAD) has eliminated the Ghanaian urge to migrate. Many of these migrants suffer with others, the indignities, disgrace and privations that migrants face in their bid to get to Europe illegally. With these go, the national disgrace and opprobrium meted out to countries of West Africa.

Nigeria

Omitola (2005:15), noted that Nigeria colonial state served the interest of global accumulation (once drawn into the global economic system), at the periphery through the local extraction and transfer of resources to the metropolis. However, the exploitations of the periphery did not stop at independence; rather, it developed another character as the emerging ruling class at independence continued acting the script already written by the departing colonizers. The end result of such master-servant relationship of metropole and periphery nations like Nigeria is a gradual underdevelopment of the economies of their economies. Owing to the underdevelopment of the economy of these countries, the ruling class thus lacks the economic base to control the state. Thus, lacking economic base, the Nigerian ruling class has recourse to politics, which, affords them the opportunity of controlling the use of the state scarce economic resources of the state. This is achieved by amassing wealth using the instrumentalities of state (Ake, 1996:27).

The Nigerian economy according to Olaitan (1995:124-137) has remained mercantilist, with buying and selling of produce/products rather than manufacturing being dominant. Turner (1978: 67) calls it a 'commercial capitalist economy'. The implication of all these is that an entrepreneurial class nurtured on commerce has dominated the Nigerian political economy (Dike 1990: 86) since independence in 1960.

The political economy of Nigeria even becomes more complex when one considers the heterogeneous and the multi-various nature of Nigerian societies. In fact, the inherent diversity in Nigerian federalism introduced a dangerous dimension to the contest of power. Thus, unlike classical Marxist political economy, the "political" takes a pre-eminence position in Nigerian political economy. Hence, Ake's (1996:11) assertion that 'politics under-develops Nigeria' having viewed the high value placed on political power and obsessive preoccupation with politics which has impeded our economic progress.

With the emergence of globalization and the movement towards an information economy heavily dependent on knowledge-based products and services, Africa has witnessed its already tenuous position in the global economy deteriorate even further. By almost any measure, Africa's current position in the world economy is near the bottom. Moreover the exports, on which Africa is so dependent, are confined mostly to primary commodities. These commodities account for over 90% of all African exports. Traditional exports from Africa are being displaced increasingly by new and relatively efficient products from other regions (Cogburn & Adeya, 1999:76).

If there was one country in Africa that had the opportunity to build a viable and strong economic base in the 1970s, it was Nigeria. Without doubt, the country, with its huge market, robust urban centers, oil revenues, attraction to transnational, vibrant capitalist culture, and influence in the global system had the chance to exploit opportunities in the global order. Unfortunately, this did not happen. The opportunities were squandered and negated by a combination of structural factors and forces; an unstable and non-hegemonic state; an irresponsible, divided, quarrelsome and dependent bourgeoisie; inefficient and ineffective bureaucracy; weak industrial and economic structures; a predatory economic culture addicted to corruption, waste. Mismanagement and the “quick buck” mentality; and foreign domination, manipulation, and exploitation. The chances for using oil rents to reverse the trend and constraints of underdevelopment were frittered away and state power was used to rationalize and legitimize not just corrupt attitudes but also a subservient and unequal relationship with profit and hegemony-seeking transnational corporations (Ihonvbere, 2004:26).

Globalization is a very uneven process with unequal distribution of its benefits and losses. This imbalance leads to polarization between the developed countries that gain, and the developing countries that lose out (Obadan, 2001:18). Nigeria, Africa's most populous country has an estimated population of about 120 million people, emerged from the civil war of 1967 – 1970 with a devastated economy, however a meaningful recovery process started with the advent of petroleum in the mid- 1970s. The economy was basically agrarian; the relative share of agriculture, livestock, forestry and fishing which was 65.6% in 1960-1961 has declined with the agricultural sub sector accounting for only 32% per annum in the 1990s despite the fact that the sector still constitutes the source of employment and livelihood for about three-quarters of the population, 70-75%.

Up until early 1980, Nigeria had a reasonable amount of foreign reserve with an insignificant record of foreign debt. Its currency, the Naira was competing strongly with other foreign currencies, yet by mid-1980s the economy started declining as foreign reserves became almost exhausted, and foreign debt started accumulating at an alarming rate as the naira lost its value in exchange with other currencies (Ayandiji, 2006:34). In this regard, the place of Nigeria in the globalization agenda requires some in-depth study. To begin with, Nigeria is economically weak due to inadequate domestic economic capacity and social infrastructure needed to boost the country's productivity, growth and competitiveness. Secondly, the economy is made weaker by monocultural dependency and unfavorable terms of trade in its export trade as well as excruciating debt and debt service burdens. And thirdly, before 1986, economic regimes were regulated and the country pursued expansionary fiscal and monetary policies in its development efforts (Obadan, 1998). These problems were exacerbated by

political instability and corruption. As a result, investment choices were distorted, which eroded the confidence especially of foreign investors. As Hoffman (1996:29) once remarked; “Once expected to become black Africa’s economic showpiece and continental powerhouse, Nigeria now faces a political and economic crisis of historic proportions. In relations with the West are at an all-time low”. For Nigeria, this “all-time low” relationship holds out very unfortunate and rather negative implications. There is therefore widespread agreement that the rapid deterioration of the Nigerian economy and society will make it impossible for the nation to retain the status it had previously attained within the continent of Africa, and much less globally. While it is true that investments still flow into the enclave oil industry, the same cannot be said of the rest of the economy (Ihonvbere, 2004:45-48).

The level of industrialization and technology development in Nigeria is so low that it whittles the competitiveness of the economy in a globalized world to the point that foreign actors would have to give more, and have little or nothing to receive, since globalization is the channel of redistributing technology. This is to say that with the challenges of industrialization and technology development, the Nigerian economy is posed to encounter a Herculean task effecting globalization transactions aimed to Nigeria’s advantage. The lack of zeal of domestic corporate executives to engage investment in the industrial sector exposes finance capital to the hazard of foreign invasion, which implies that foreign investors could take this advantage to expropriate the wealth of the nation, and thus hamper the strength of the Nigerian economy because capital is mobile, and globalization is about interconnectedness and interdependence as the finance capital available in the economy is being moved at will to the economy of other states.

Following the globalization trend, Nigeria has been liberalizing its economy. But the real sectors have had to function under conditions of unstable macroeconomic management, inadequate technology and credit facilities. These have proved to be an obstacle to strengthening the productive base, especially of agriculture and industry, in order to make them export-oriented. Thus, in spite of the openness of the economy, external trade performance has not been encouraging (Onwuka & Eguavoen, 2007:35).

The evidences of the negative impact of globalization on Nigeria are legion, for example: (a) the controversial Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP), an economic policy designed to liberalize Nigerian economy in the spirit of globalization has produced serious negative effects – including inflation, and devaluation of currency, creating new threats to human development – the argument about its faulty implementation notwithstanding; (b) globalization provides avenue for corrupt officials to loot the treasury of their countries. Many of Nigerian leaders, the most notorious being General Sani Abacha have had to forfeit hard earned foreign exchange to Western banks and collaborators with many of the loans secured for projects were repatriated abroad through money laundering. According to Ribadu (2006:89), the African Union estimates that as much as \$148 billion dollars yearly, or 25 percent of Africa’s official Gross National Product (GNP), is lost to corrupt activities in Africa; (c) the collapse of local industries especially in the textile and automobile industries. This author as a journalist for ten years compiled statistics of about 150,000 jobs loses from 1989 – 1999. Textile materials – Ankara brocade and Lace – are now massively being smuggled through the porous border with Benin Republic and up North with Niger Republic. The

domination of the car importation segment by the Vaswani brothers finally led to the collapse of the close to 20 automobile plants strewn across the country.

Today, only Peugeot Automobile of Nigeria (PAN) is surviving with production cut from dozens of cars per day to about a dozen in a month. Such other auto firms like Steyr, Leyland, Mercedes-Benz-ANAMCO, Volkswagen, Nigeria Truck Manufacturing Company etc. have become history. Even tire manufacturers like Michelin and Dunlop are facing stiff competition from imported tires from Asia and South America; (d) and last cultural erosion: today in Nigeria, Chinese cuisines are more popular than the local menu, and the economy of Nigeria could be said to be substantially in the hands of Lebanese, Indians, Koreans, Chinese, French people, Americans and Britons, and notwithstanding, the government recently closed down what is known as “Chinese Village” – a place where contraband products are openly sold (Ayandiji, 2006).

Nigeria is an example of a disadvantaged country under globalization: Nigeria's foreign exchange earnings are highly dependent on the export of crude oil to the tune of over 90% of our national revenue. Given the slight variations for export demand of this raw but precious commodity, Nigeria is said to earn about forty million dollars per day. Nigeria is the world's sixth largest oil exporter with a daily output of some two million barrels. Shell, with 870,000 barrels, accounts for almost half of the West African country's total output. The strike, which had begun on August 27 over fears that a planned globalization policy could lead to drastic job cuts, caused jitters on the international oil market over a possible rise in world oil prices. The union wanted Shell to abandon the restructuring plan; to halt a rise in the number of expatriates brought in to work in Nigeria and to return to Nigeria a computer system recently moved to The Hague. The international oil market has been jittery in the past days as a result of the Nigerian strike amid worries that it could force up world prices (Bigman, 2002). The white-collar strike is one of a series of crises to rock Nigeria's oil industry and worry the markets this year, as ethnic warfare and a rash of pirate attacks and kidnappings rattled the oil-rich southern Niger Delta. With Nigeria's non-oil export accounting for only 0.05%, virtually nothing is gained in favor of its economy. In fact, Nigeria is nowhere in terms of competitive advantage in the globalized market in this regard. And, this is why Nigerians are still scrambling to cope with the negative effects of the fifth increase in the petroleum pump price since 1999 when the current democratic experiment commenced.

Evidently, globalization has brought about the domination of the Nigerian economy since its basic export is woven around raw materials. The raw materials provide basis for production and further production; whereas export in Nigeria promotes economic diversification abroad, it restricts diversification in the domestic setting. The Nigerian economy is thus not competitive in the global trade circle.

Conclusion

This paper has demonstrated the various ways in which globalization impacted underdevelopment in West Africa. Historically the study showed the unhindered movement of capital, trade and technology (Globalization) from the developed nations in West Africa has not only disrupted the economies of West Africa but also contributed to the high level of unemployment especially of the youth. Wage decline, job insecurity and general poverty have

also been intensified in the region. The paper notes that commercial agriculture has been rendered purposeless in West Africa on account of the massive subsidies enjoyed by agricultural sector of the developed nations of the world that increasingly dump their own agricultural products in the region. The migration of the disadvantaged and economically displaced peoples of West African nations is thus a natural response to the severe economic hardship inflicted on the African continent by globalization and the accompanying forces. The way out of this predicament is for the African states to 'watch the events and choose not to globalize areas that run counter to African culture and social wellbeing. African communalism should be encouraged. The reduction in unemployment and poverty must be pursued as a matter of urgency should be one of the strategies to achieving this goal.

References

- Ake, C (1996). The Political Question". In Oyediran, O (ed). Governance and Development in Nigeria: Essays in Honour of Professor Billy J. Dudley. Ibadan: Oyediran Consult.
- Ake, C. (1994). Democratization of Disempowerment in Africa. CASS monograph series No.1 Lagos. Malt-House press Ltd.
- Ayandiji, D.A. (2006). "Globalization and the Retrenchment of an African Economy: Revisiting Post - \$18 Billion Debt Cancellation in Nigeria". The Journal of Pan African Studies, 1, (4) 35- 47.
- Ayandiji, D.A. (2006). "Globalization and the Retrenchment of an African Economy: Revisiting Post - \$18 Billion Debt Cancellation in Nigeria". The Journal of Pan African Studies, 1, (4), 35- 47.
- Baldwin, J. (1965). Nobody knows my name. London: Corgi.
- Bigman, D. (2002). Globalization and the Developing Countries: Emerging Strategies for Rural Development and Poverty Alleviation. CABI Publishing.
- Brown, P. (1999). Challenging Globalization as discourse and Phenomenon. International Journal of Lifelong Education, 18 (1), 3 – 17.
- Bump, M. (2006). Ghana: Searching for opportunities at Home and Abroad. Institute for the study of International Migration, Georgetown University, Available Online.
- Cheng, U.C. (2000). A CMI Triplication Paradigm for Reforming Education in the New Millennium. International Journal of Education Management 14 (4),156 – 174.
- Cogburn, D.L & Adeya, C.N. (1999). "Globalization and the Information Economy: Challenges and Opportunities for Africa". Prepared as a working paper for the African Development Forum '9924-28 October 1999, United Nations Conference Centre United Nations Economic Commission for Africa Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

- Dike, E. (1990). "The Political Economy of the Buhari Regime". Nigerian Journal, of International Affairs". 16, No 2
- Dorjahn, V.R. (1965) "The Factor of Polygyny in African Demography" in Continuity and Change in African Culture, Chicago: William R. Bascom and Melville Herskovits, (ed.), University of Chicago Press.
- Hodder, B. W. (1978). Africa Today: A Short Introduction to African Affairs. London, Methuen & CO Ltd
- Hoffman, A. (1996). "Nigeria: The Policy Conundrum". Foreign Policy, 101, Winter 1995-96, 146
- Ihonvbere, J.O. (2004). "Nigeria in the New World Order: Implications and Options for the 21st Century". In Bello-Imam, I.B and Obadan, M.I (eds). Democratic Governance and Development Management in Nigeria's Fourth Republic: 1999-2003. Ibadan: Centre for Local Government and Rural Development Studies
- Intriligator, M.D. (2003). "Globalization of the World Economy: Potential Benefits and Costs and A Net Assessment", Policy Brief, No 33, January, Milken Institute: University of California, Los Angeles L I
- Kanu, I. A. (2011). Towards an African cultural renaissance. A Paper presented at the International Conference on Arts and Cultural Studies. Organised by the Third World Congress on Research and Development. University of Port Harcourt, Port Harcourt, Rivers State, Nigeria, October 25th - 28th.
- Kanu, I.A. (2012). The Colonial Legacy: the Hidden History of Africa's Present Crisis. An International Journal of Arts and Humanities Bahir Dar, Ethiopia, 1 (1), 123-131
- Magara, E. (2012). The Future of Readership Development: How ICTs Have Influenced User Habits and Library Acquisitions. In A. Tella, & A. Issa (Eds.), Library and Information Science in Developing Countries: Contemporary Issues (pp. 125-140). IGI Global.
- Mountjoy, A & Embleton, C. (1966). Africa: A Geographical Study. London: Hutchinson Educational.
- Neufeld, M & Whitworth, S. (1996). Imaging Canadian foreign policy. In W. Clement (Ed.), Understanding Canada: Building on the new Canadian political economy (pp. 197-214). Montreal and Kingston: McGill-Queen's University Press.
- Ngaire, W. (2000). "The Political Economy of Globalization". In Ngaire, W (ed). The Political Economy of Globalization. Basingstoke: Macmillan.
- Njoku, O.N (2002). Trading with the Metropolis: An Unequal Exchange. In: T Falola (Ed.): Britain and Nigeria. Exploitation or Development? London: Zed Books, pp. 137-138.

Obadan, M. I. (1998). "Managing the Nigerian Economy into the Next Millennium: Strategies and Policies." *Journal of Economic Management*, 5, (1), 1 - 38.

Obadan, M. I. (2001). "Africa and the Challenge of Globalization: How Should the Continent Respond?" *Nigerian Journal of Economic and Financial Review*, 6, 2, 35-42.

Olaitan, A.W. (1995). *The State and Economy in Nigeria: A Conceptualisation*. in Adejumobi, S and Momoh, A (eds). *The Political Economy of Nigeria Under Military Rule, 1984-1993*. Harare: SAPES Book.

Olukoshi, A. (2001). "West Africa's Political Economy in the next millennium: Retrospect and Prospect. The CODESRIA Monograph Series, Available Online.

Omitola, B.O (2005). *Revenue Allocation, Resource Control and the Nigerian Political Economy*. In Akinsanya, A.A and Ayoade, J.A (eds). *Readings in Nigerian Government and Politics*. Ijebu Ode: Gratia Associates International

Onwuka, E.C & Eguavoen, A. (2007). "Globalization and Economic Development: The Nigerian Experience". *Journal of Social Sciences*, 14,(1) 45-51

Owolai, E.A. (1998). *Globalization, Liberalization and the Risks of Marginalization of Nigeria*. Abuja. Central Bank of Nigeria Research Department Seminar Paper Series No. 5.

Ribadu, N. (2006). "Globalisation and Nigerian Economy". *The Punch Newspaper*, February, 20

Sumner, J. (2008). *Governance, Globalization and Political Economy: Perspectives from Canadian Adult Education*. *Adult Education Quarterly*, 59(1), 22-41

Turner, T. (1978). "Commercial Capitalism and the 1975 Coup". in Keith, P (ed). *Soldiers and Oil: The Political Transformation of Nigeria*. London: Frank Cass and Coy Limited

Walter, R. (1982). *How Europe underdeveloped Africa*. Washington: Howard University Press.

Waters, M. (1995). *Globalization*. London: Routledge.

Watkins K. (2002). *Making Globalization work for the poor*. Finance and Development. Washington DC: IMF Publication Services. Pp. 24 – 27.