***ASJ**: International Journal of Agricultural Research, Sustainability, and Food Sufficiency (IJARSFS)*
Vol. 10 (01) 30 September, 2023, Pp. 617 – 624
www.academiascholarlyjournal.org/ijarsfs/index_ijarsfs.htm
ISSN: 2360-932X©Academia Scholarly Journals
Also Available@: Archive.org/Nwafor_et_al
Open access

Review

Background and Assumptions of the Dependency Perspective: Explaining the Evolution of Underdevelopment in the Nigerian Agricultural Sector

Nwafor S.C.[1*], Fatty L.K.M.[2] and Oyibo M.N.[1]

[1]National Root Crops Research Institute Umudike, P.M.B. 7006, Umuahia, Abia State, Nigeria.

[2]School of Agriculture and Environmental Services, University of The Gambia.

Nwafor S.C.; https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7499-1757
Fatty L.K.M.: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1168-077X

*Corresponding Authors' Contact Detail: E-mail Address ✉: solomonnwafor8@gmail.com

Accepted September 12, 2023

Countries around the world have piqued the interest of academics and commentators from all over the world. The dependency theory, developed by scholars in Africa, Latin America, and Asia, is a critique of the assumptions of modernization theory that poor countries are poor due to their lack of economic, social, and cultural progress and that resources move from a "periphery" of poor and developing countries to a "core" of wealthy countries, enriching the latter at the expense of the former. This paper reviews the exploitative relationship that exists between developed and developing countries, especially Nigeria. The discussion looks at the dependency theory and how it explains the development and underdevelopment of countries around the world, including Nigeria. It evaluates the theory's implications and limitations for Nigeria's agricultural development and X-rays the detrimental effects of the perspective theory on Nigerian agricultural development. It also analyzes the theory's flaws, including its demand for developing countries to break away from rich nations. This paper suggests a way forward and concludes that the Nigerian government should implement policies and programs that take into account domestic realities to evolve methods of achieving sustainable agricultural growth in Nigeria.

Key Words: Dependency perspective; Evolution; Underdevelopment; Agricultural Sector.

INTRODUCTION

The need to alleviate human and societal problems such as poverty, inequality, illiteracy, unemployment, starvation, diseases, and other similar issues, as well as improve people's living standards, has become an intrinsic component of worldwide yearning and ambitions. Individuals and governments have consistently voiced a desire to assist man in escaping the devastating results of these social problems and unpacking the genuine essence of human well-being and freedom of choice. (Emeh 2013) International organizations such as the United Nations, the United States Agency for International Development, the

World Bank, the International Monetary Fund, and World Trade Organizations, among others, have expressed an interest in human and societal development. These organs have requested and implemented policies and programs, as well as explanations, to aid the development of emerging societies (including Nigeria) and to sustain the growth of developed countries (Bauer,2000).

Nigeria, the African continent's most populous country, has been dubbed "the giant of Africa." With high rates of poverty, inequality, diseases, malnutrition, and mortality, among other things, the country has been trapped in a cocoon of underdevelopment for a long time (Igbedioh 1993). Despite her incorporation into the global economy and unwavering adherence to the dictates of industrialized nations in Europe and America on how to achieve progress, the situation has remained (Emeh 2013). The advice to borrow cultural, economic, technological, and financial institutions from the West has still rendered progress in Nigeria a "never-to-be-realized dream" (Kyari, 2008). As a result, there is an urgent need to seek better answers for the country's development issues.

Alternatively, this discussion looks at the dependency theory and how it explains the development and underdevelopment of countries around the world, including Nigeria. It evaluates the theory's implications and limitations for Nigeria's agricultural development.

CONCEPTUAL CLARIFICATION

Dependency theory is a critique of the assumptions of modernization theory that poor countries are poor due to their lack of economic, social, and cultural progress (Nnoli, 1986). Dependency theory holds that resources move from a "periphery" of poor and developing countries to a "core" of wealthy countries, enriching the latter at the expense of the former (Emeh 2013). The wealthy European countries are known as the metropolis or Core, whereas the poor countries are known as the satellites or periphery. Dependency contends that poverty in low-income countries is a direct result of their exploitation by affluent ones. "Dependency theorists such as Frank, Cardoso, and Faletto argue that exposure to the economic and political influences of industrialized countries causes massive and persistent poverty in third-world countries." They think that the third world's luck with industrial growth is attributable to its economic resources being drained northwards to metropolitan centers" (Sapru, 1994).

Dependence has been characterized as a historical condition that defines a certain structure of the world economy in such a way that it favors some countries over others and limits the development opportunities of subordinate economies (Dos Santos, 1971). This implies that the relations between dominant and dependent states are dynamic because the interactions between the two sets of states tend to not only reinforce but also intensify the unequal patterns. As such, dependency theory here explains the present underdeveloped states of many nations in the world by examining the patterns of interactions among nations and by arguing that inequality among nations is an intrinsic part of those interactions. Development, on the other hand, is defined as "good change" (Chambers, 2012). This viewpoint implies the likelihood of poor or negative transformation. It has also been described as an "exodus from underdevelopment" (Thomas, 2000). However, underdevelopment is a broad term that encompasses a wide range of social issues such as poverty, inequality, criminality, mortality, malnutrition, deprivation, lack of freedom, illiteracy, low life expectancy, unemployment, diseases, and violations of human rights, all of which impede the realization of human aspirations and thus humiliate and dehumanize their victims (Emeh 2013).

Capitalism is a socioeconomic system based on private ownership of means of production and the free market for resource allocation (Hall and David 2001). Because the satellites export raw materials, the metropolis makes more profit because their goods are finished products; demand for raw materials increases by 3% while demand for finished products increases by 15%; as a result, Africans are perpetually operating at a loss, resulting in low economic growth and inflation (Sapru, 1994). Western capitalism penetrates and simultaneously underdeveloped third-world satellites, resulting in economically and politically dependent countries (Sapru, 1994). The satellite is being used much more since the metropolis views Africa as a destination for outmoded commodities. Mediocre products are flooding African marketplaces instead of high-quality products that can help these countries improve and thrive. African countries continue to lag behind in terms of high-quality machinery for modernizing primary commodities or improving agriculture. Goods sent to African markets are either out of demand in the city or of poor quality that will not last (Matunhu, 2011). "The dependency theory has turned Africa into a dump for waste and excess labor, as well as a market where the terms of trade benefit the developed world." Africa, for example, is positioned to specialize in marketing raw materials, whereas the developed world markets finished goods. There is no plausible reason why Africa isn't producing airplanes, given that the continent has aluminum and copper that can be alloyed for aircraft production." Matunhu (2011). International financial capital inflows also explain more on Africa's dependency, Aid from the metropolis such as International Monetary Fund and The world bank further contributes to the development of satellites which is not sustainable, (Bauer 2000) argues that development aid promotes dependence on others as it creates the impression that emergence from poverty depends on external donations rather than on people's efforts. Thus, it appears as though most African countries are so dependent on aid that without it almost half of their yearly budgetary commitments cannot be fulfilled.

Development is defined contextually as an attack on critical dysfunctional social elements that have negative consequences for human wellbeing and development, such as poverty, inequality, criminality, mortality, malnutrition, deprivation, lack of freedom, illiteracy, low life expectancy, unemployment, diseases, slums, and human rights abuse, and the reduction of such elements to improve human and societal development (Todaro and Smith, 2003). Furthermore, no is civilization sets out with the intention of achieving poverty, criminality, inequality, mortality, illiteracy, short life expectancy, unemployment, starvation, and the like.

UNDERSTANDING THE DEPENDENCE PERSPECTIVE

Scholars in developing countries developed perspectives to oppose the Eurocentric modernization thesis, which portrayed Europe and America as development models for emerging nations in Africa, Asia, and Latin America (Allen and Thomas, 1992). It blames underdevelopment in developing countries on the Western-led capitalist system. The Dependency point of view holds that civilizations are not self-contained units, but rather have political and economic links with one another. Thus, Frank (1969) argues that the "development of underdevelopment" caused by the expansion of the capitalist system over the centuries has effectively and completely penetrated even the most remote sectors of the underdeveloped world (Frank, 1969). He sees the exploitative relationship between these nations as the cause of the development of Western European societies and the underdevelopment of developing societies in Africa, Asia, and Latin America. Thus, poverty, inequality, unemployment, and illiteracy are viewed as outcomes of the capitalist economic system.

The principle of reliance is still highly relevant today since African countries are exploited through unfair international commerce with European countries. They are forced to sell their commodity products at reduced prices to purchase unsubsidized goods. According to Rodney (1972), Africa was the principal provider of underpriced raw materials to Europe and buyers of expensive finished goods from the West from the late nineteenth century until the 1960s. This limit self-sustaining growth in the periphery and creates an uneven economic structure within the peripheral societies. Dependency theorists argue that, despite short-term spurts of growth, long-term growth in the periphery will be uneven and unequal, with substantial negative current account balances (Tausch and Peter, 2003). As a result of this inequity, progress in several African countries, such as Nigeria, is constrained. The country's economy, and hence its progress, has been at the mercy of shifting international market prices dictated by the industrialized countries under trade. Nigeria's trade balance has shifted negatively due to falling global prices (Bostock and Harvey, 1972).

Rodney (1972), contended in his book "How Europe Underdeveloped Africa" that Africa was evolving at her own pace but has been degenerating since contact with the capitalist world, whereas Europe has continued to flourish both before and after this interaction. Poverty, economic stagnation, avarice, and the emergence of a pseudo-middle class to sustain a system that benefits only Europe are some of the drawbacks of the unequal connection between economically advanced countries and Africa, according to him.

Similarly, Fanon (1961) claims that the growth of America is the result of centuries of stealing wealth from undeveloped people. He discussed the illegal acts of colonialists during their African robbery adventure. Slavery, forced labor, expulsion, and massacre were among them. Africa became economically, culturally, psychologically, and socially dependent on Europe as a result of these illicit crimes (Princewill 2015). Even better, certain groups in developing countries (such as landlords, entrepreneurs, military rulers, politicians, merchants, salaried public officials, and trade union leaders) who enjoy high incomes, social status, and political power constitute a small elite class whose primary interest, whether knowingly or unknowingly, is in the perpetuation of the international capitalist system of inequality and conformity that rewards them (Coetzee et al., 2007). They serve and are paid directly or indirectly by multinational firms, national bilateral aid agencies, and multilateral assistance organizations such as the World Bank or International Monetary Fund, which are allegiant to or funded by wealthy capitalist countries (Gabriel, 1991).

Similarly, Dos Santos asserts that "underdevelopment, far from constituting a state of backwardness before capitalism, is rather a result and a particular form of capitalist development known as dependent capitalism". Dependency refers to "a situation in which the economy of certain countries is conditioned by the development and expansion of the other to which the former is subjected" (Dos Santos, 1979). In global trade terms, the relationship of interdependence between two or more economies takes the form of dependence when some countries (dominant ones like the United States, United Kingdom, Germany, and France) can expand and be self-sustaining, while other countries (dependent ones like Nigeria, Rwanda, Bolivia, Thailand, and India) can only do so as a reflection of expansion, which can have either a negative or positive effect on their immediate development (Santos, 1979).

Dependence is a conditioning circumstance in which one group of countries' economies are conditioned by the development and expansion of others. It is an interdependent relationship between two or more economies, or between such economies and the global trading system (Chuka 2018). This becomes a dependent relationship when certain countries can expand on their own while others, being reliant, can only expand as a mirror of the dominating countries' expansion, which may have positive or negative consequences on their immediate development. In either scenario, the fundamental dependency relationship causes these countries to be both backward and exploited (Jackson and Sorenson 2007). The dominant countries have a technological, commercial, capital, and sociopolitical advantage over the dependent countries. Dependence is then built on an international division of labor that allows for industrial development in some nations while constraining it in others, whose growth is conditioned by and subject to the world's power centers (Chuka 2018).

AGRICULTURE DEVELOPMENT AND DEPENDENCY PERSPECTIVE

In the last two decades, the pattern of agricultural output in emerging countries has shifted dramatically (FAO, 2011: Global food losses and food waste. Extent, causes and prevention, Rome.). Since the late 1960s and early 1970s, the World Bank and its numerous agricultural research institutes have actively advocated the use of industrial (high chemical input) agricultural technologies, such as the Green Revolution's' miracle' seeds, which promised high landfall yields (Shiva 1999). All farmers, especially the impoverished, were anticipated to benefit from these high-tech approaches. Because yields were predicted to rise, incomes were expected to rise as well. In general, industrial agriculture refers to the reliance of food production on expensive inputs such as chemical fertilizers, herbicides, and water, as well as the increasing usage of technology. Industrial farming means getting the most out of the land in the shortest amount of time. Food production resembles a 'mining' process (Shiva 1999).

However, emerging countries' overwhelming reliance on foreign inputs could not be continued economically. This was exacerbated in the 1970s and 1980s by the oil and debt crises. The economic and financial crises in developing countries increased the number of loan packages from international financial institutions. According to Adetunji (2011), the foundations of the country's debt burden, which became a serious concern in budget management crises from the 1990s to 2006, were laid between 1914 and 1960 during the colonial period. The study examines the patterns in the rise and development of the debt profile, as well as the burden it imposes on the country's fiscal balance. Structural adjustment policies were also implemented as a condition for countries borrowing money (Adetunji 2011).

Small farmers' experiences in Nigeria in particular, and Africa in general, have been startlingly similar during the last two decades (Food Security and Nutrition Analysis 2014). Many farmers have been pushed to convert from diverse traditional polycultures to monocultures for export markets. For example, the supply of extension services and loans was frequently conditional on farmers accepting newly marketed export agricultural technologies. Farmers have also been pushed to transition to export crops since local prices for staples and conventional crops have collapsed due to cheap subsidized imports, often from industrialized countries, flooding local markets (Food Security and Nutrition Analysis 2014). The trend has been one of systematic impoverishment for the vast majority of small farmers. Many have been forced to abandon farming entirely. Instead of alleviating food scarcity, which has historically been the rationale for public investment in agricultural technology and hybrid seeds, food surpluses are expanding on the global market, but hunger and food insecurity remain an issue for the most vulnerable (FAO 2011).

Dependency prioritizes agricultural industrialization and export production. Small farmers have been uprooted and destroyed as a result, while huge farms have benefited (Briguglio et al., 2009). Agricultural industrialization and exports, according to Shiva (1999) boost single commodity harvests. When all farmers grow the same commodity over wide areas, the prices farmers receive for their crops fall, while the costs of imported inputs rise. Farmers' profit margins are dramatically reduced as a result. Farmers face a cost-price pressure as production expenses rise. Only the largest farms will withstand this process. Meanwhile, the market is constructed in such a way that the costs of using the high-input method are higher for small farmers than for large farmers (Shiva 1999). Poor farmers cannot afford to buy large quantities of fertilizer and supplies. Large growers receive savings on large purchases. Poor farmers cannot negotiate the greatest price for their crops, whereas larger farmers in less desperate situations may. Large farms can afford to pay for irrigation services that small farmers may not be able to afford (Rosset et al., 2000).

Despite agricultural technical breakthroughs and the efforts of international organizations, developed countries, and civil society groups, it is clear that world hunger is a persistent and seemingly unsolvable problem (Scanlan, 2003; World Bank, 2011). Hunger is a major public health concern because nutritional deficits cause a slew of other medical issues, including increased susceptibility to infectious disease and injury (World Food Programme, 2010). Widespread hunger is a basic contradiction, given there is currently enough food produced globally to provide at least 2,720 kilocalories per person per day to everyone on the planet (FAO 2011; World Food Programme 2010).

However, according to the World Bank (2011), over 935 million people lack appropriate nutrition, with 98 percent of them living in less developed countries (LDCs). The intensity or depth of hunger provides critical insight into the severity of malnutrition, as this type of measure distinguishes individuals who are starving to death from those who are missing a small number of calories per day (FAO, 2010), thus more directly capturing the level of hunger that could compromise health. The global distribution of hunger, including its extent and intensity, reflects neoliberal modernization and world-systems/dependency perspectives on development trajectories and social change dynamics (Mihalache-O'Keef and Li, 2011). These approaches, however, disagree on the importance of agricultural exports in contributing to famine in Least Developed Countries (LDCs) (Brady et al., 2007; Dunaway and Macabuac, 2007; Firebaugh and Beck 1994; Muller 2010; Wimberley and Bello, 1992). While neoliberal modernization perspectives support export specialization as a strategy to stimulate economic growth and improve health, a growing literature on "unequal exchange" dynamics calls this assumption into doubt. Unequal exchange theories concentrate on the structure of international trade, hurts the economic and environmental well-being of LDCs (Emmanuel 1972; Hornborg 2001). Although the current literature on unequal exchange dynamics focuses primarily on how primary sector export dependence degrades the environment in poor countries (Jorgenson et al., 2009; Jorgenson and Clark 2011; Lawrence 2009; Shandra et al., 2009), the concept may also apply to global patterns of hunger, as export dependency can alter agricultural production organization and types. Assessing the effects of agricultural export dependency on hunger using a more detailed measure of unequal exchange can shed light on the circumstances that disadvantage impoverished nations in international commerce.

World-systems/dependency scholars offer an alternative viewpoint regarding the influence of agricultural production and exports on hunger. This perspective posits that hunger is a consequence of global disparities in wealth and power in the world system, resulting from processes of exploitation inherent to patterns of capital accumulation, including the structure of international trade (Wallerstein 1974, 2004). According to these perspectives, increased integration into the world economy through export-orientated strategies yields unfavorable outcomes for LDCs. Organizing commodity production around agricultural exports is especially harmful for several reasons treated below;

First, primary-sector (i.e., agricultural) products are not as profitable as the high-tech and durable goods in which developed countries tend to specialize (Amin 1976; Emmanuel 1974; McMichael 2004; Wallerstein 1974, 2004). This consolidates the global division of labor, which is the result of historical colonial patterns in which peripheral countries provide low-value raw materials while developed countries focus on high-value secondary and tertiary-sector products (Amin 1976; Emmanuel 1972; Wallerstein 1974, 2004). Secondly, because of global demand and supply, primary-sector products are vulnerable to significant price volatility, and many agricultural commodities take months or even years to mature and harvest (McMichael 2004; Talbot 2004). Third, reliance on agricultural exports increases economic fragility since environmental factors such as insects or drought can reduce revenues. Fourth, focusing on export markets often results in the production of food and materials that have no nutritional value and hence do not alleviate hunger, such as cash crops such as coffee, cocoa, tobacco, or animal feedstuffs. Indeed, many of the items pushed to be produced by LDCs have little cultural, material, or nutritional value in host countries (Talbot 2004).

IMPLICATIONS OF DEPENDENCY PERSPECTIVE ON NIGERIA'S DEVELOPMENT

The dependency perspective provides valuable insights into the challenges that have hindered Nigeria's development since gaining independence in 1960. Here are some of the key implications of the dependency perspective on Nigeria's development:

1. Economic Underdevelopment: The historical legacy of slavery and colonialism, as well as the ongoing economic dependency on Western countries, has resulted in Nigeria's economic underdevelopment. The country has not been able to develop a robust and diversified industrial base, leading to high unemployment rates, poverty, and income inequality. The reliance on petroleum as the primary export has also made Nigeria vulnerable to fluctuations in global oil prices.
2. Cultural and Psychological Impact: Dependency has also had a cultural and psychological impact on Nigerians. The preference for foreign-made goods over domestically produced items has persisted, which hinders the growth of local industries. This mindset has been ingrained in Nigerian society due to historical exploitation and dependence.
3. Brain Drain: Nigeria faces a significant issue of brain drain, as many skilled and educated individuals seek better opportunities abroad. This talent exodus weakens the country's human capital and intellectual resources, hindering its ability to develop and implement innovative solutions to its challenges.
4. Political Vulnerability: Economic dependence on foreign countries and international corporations has made Nigeria politically vulnerable. The influence of external factors, such as Western and Chinese interests, can affect Nigerian government policies and decision-making. This limits the country's ability to set its development agenda and pursue independent economic strategies.
5. Financial Repatriation: International corporations operating in Nigeria often repatriate a significant portion of their profits to their home countries. This financial outflow deprives Nigeria of much-needed resources for development and perpetuates the cycle of dependency.
6. Debt Burden: Nigeria's reliance on external funding and loans from international financial organizations has led to a substantial debt burden. The country struggles to repay these debts, and many development projects financed by these loans remain incomplete or underutilized, exacerbating the economic challenges.
7. Lack of Domestic Solutions: Nigerian leaders tend to rely on international solutions for domestic problems, rather than developing context-specific solutions. This approach often neglects the unique needs and challenges faced by local communities, further contributing to underdevelopment at the grassroots level.
8. Policy Dependence: Nigerian policies and government styles are often influenced by external models and ideologies rather than being rooted in local context and needs. This can result in policies that may not be suitable or effective in addressing Nigeria's specific development challenges.
9. Limited Economic Choices: Economic dependence restricts Nigeria's ability to diversify its economy and pursue alternative development paths. The country becomes locked into an economic structure that prioritizes the interests of external actors and multinational corporations.

WAY FORWARD

Given the impact of dependency on Nigeria's development journey, our leaders must move quickly to address Nigeria's development quandary. The electorate must demand responsibility and transparency from its elected officials. The issue in which annual budgets and initiatives are rarely implemented needs to be addressed. Our leaders must return to their constituents and identify projects that will improve people's lives. The scenario in which elected officials spend more time and money on foreign travel and other luxuries has not been good for our country. Nigeria's development issues and solutions are found within the country. In truth, Nigerians are largely responsible for the country's current problems. It is necessary to make Nigeria a "home" for Nigerians to lessen the problem of brain drain. This is because, if leaving Nigeria is a requirement for a better life or social standing, it is preferable to being killed by endemic poverty, emerging terrorists, and diseases. Nigerians' fortunes can improve even if simply their raw materials are mobilized and exported. This will significantly minimize the impact of dependence on Nigeria.

REFERENCES

Adetunji O.O. (2011). Rethinking the Origin of Nigeria's Debt Burden: A Historical Reconstruction. Journal of the Historical Society of Nigeria, 20:26-44.

Allen T. and Thomas A. (1992). Poverty and Development into the 21st Century. Oxford: The Open University.

Amin S. (1976). Unequal Development: An Essay on the Social Formations of Peripheral Capitalism. New York: Monthly Review Press.

Bauer P.T. (2000). From Subsistence to Exchange and Other Essays. Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press.

Bostock M. and Harvey C. (1972). Zambian Copper. A Case Study of Foreign Investment. Praeger Publishers; New York

Brady D., Kaya Y. and Beckfield J. (2007). Reassessing the Effect of Economic Growth on Well-Being in Less-Developed Countries, 1980–2003. Studies in Comparative International Development 42(1): 1–35.

Briguglio L., Cordina G., Farrugia N. and Vella S., (2009). Economic Vulnerability and Resilience: Concepts and Measurements', Oxford Development Studies, 37(3): 229–247.

Chambers R. (2012). Provocations for Development. Bourton on Dunsmore: Practical Action Publishing.

Chuka E. (2018). Dependency Theory and Global Economic Imbalance: A Critique. UJAH, 19(1). http://dx.doi./org/10.4314/ujah.v19i1.7

Coetzee K.J., Graaf J., Heindricks F., and Wood G. (2007). Development: Theory, Policy and Practice. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Dos Santos T. (2002). El Nuevo character de la dependencia (The New Character of Dependence), Reversed Edition Cuadernos del CESO (CESO's Notebooks), 10. Santiago: CESP

Dunaway W.A. and Macabuac C.M. (2007). The Shrimp Eat Better Than We Do: Philippine Subsistence Fishing Households Sacrificed for the Global Food Chain. Review, 30(4): 313–337.

Emeh I.E.J. (2013). Dependency Theory and Africa's Underdevelopment: a Paradigm Shift from Pseudo-Intellectualism: the Nigerian Perspective. International Journal of African and Asian Studies, Vol.1.

Emmanuel A. (1972). Unequal Exchange. New York: Monthly Review Press.

Fanon F. (1961). The Wretched of the Earth, London: Penguin Books.

Food and Agriculture Organization [FAO] (2011). The State of Food Insecurity in the World. Rome.

FAO (2011). Global food losses and food waste. Extent, causes and prevention. Rome.

FAO (2010). Food Security Statistics. Available at www.fao.org/economic/ess/ess-fs/fsdata/ess-fadata/en/ (accessed March, 2023).

Firebaugh G. and Beck F.D. (1994). Does Economic Growth Benefit the Masses? Growth, Dependence, and Welfare in the Third World. American Sociological Review, 59(5): 631–653.

Frank, A.G. (1969). Capitalism and Underdevelopment in Latin America. New York: Monthly Press. L'Ouleture Publications and Tanzania Publishing Company.No.8.

Food Security and Nutrition Analysis Post Gu (2014) Technical Series Report October 10, 2014, No VII. 5.

Gabriel T. (1991). The Human Factor in Rural Development. London: Belhaven Press.

Hall P.A. and David S. (2001). Varieties of Capitalism: The Institutional Foundations of Comparative Advantage. New York: Oxford University Press.

Hornborg A. (2001). The Power of the Machine.

Walnut Creek, CA: AltaMira Press
https://www.thecable.ng/heres-how-much-nigeria-owes-other-countries-in-2023

Igbedioh S.O. (1993). Undernutrition in Nigeria: dimension, causes and remedies for alleviation in a changing socio-economic environment. Nutr Health, 9(1):1-14. doi: 10.1177/026010609300900101. PMID: 8414269.

Jackson R. and Sorenson G. (2007). Introduction to International Relations: Theories and Approaches. New York: Oxford University Press.

Jorgenson A.K. and Clark B. (2011). Societies Consuming Nature: A Panel Study of the Ecological Footprints of Nations, 1960–2003. Social Science Research, 40(2): 226 – 244.

Jorgenson A.K., Dick C. and Austin K. (2009). The Vertical Flow of Primary Sector Exports and Deforestation in Less-Developed Countries: A Test of Ecologically Unequal Exchange Theory. Society and Natural Resources, 23: 888–897

Kyari T. (2008) Metaphors of underdevelopment; reflections from Nigeria. www.londonmet.ac.uk

Lawrence K.S. (2009). The Thermodynamics of Unequal Exchange: Energy Use, CO2 Emissions, and GDP in the World-System, 1975–2005. International Journal of Comparative Sociology, 50(3–4): 335–359.

Matunhu J. (2011). African Journal of History and Culture Vol. 3(5): 65-72, retrieved on 24th march, 2015. Available online at http://www.academicjournals.org/AJHC

McMichael P. (2004). Development and Social Change: A Global Perspective. 4th ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Pine Forge Press.

Mihalache-O'Keef A. and Li Q. (2011). Modernization vs. Dependency Revisited: Effects of Foreign Direct Investment on Food Security in Less Developed Countries. International Studies Quarterly, 55(1): 71–93.

Muller B. (2010). My Own Boss? Strategies of Resistance and Accommodation of Rural Producers to Neoliberal Governance. Anthropologica, 52(2): 233 – 246.

Nnoli O. (1986). Introduction to Politics, Lagos, Longman Groups Ltd.

Princewill D. (2015). Colonialism, Independence and Underdevelopment in Africa: The Pre-eminence and Blame Game. University of Dalarna.

Rodney W. (1972). How Europe Underdeveloped Africa. Dar es Salaam: Tanzanian Publishing House.

Rosset P., Collins J. and Lappe F.M. (2000). Lessons from the Green Revolution: Do We Need New Technology to End Hunger?' in Tikkun Magazine, 15(2): 52-56.

Santos T. (1970). The Structure of Dependence. American Economic Review. Papers and proceedings of the eighty-second annual meeting of the American Economic Association, 60(2).

Sapru R.K. (1994), development administration, New Delhi; sterling publishers.

Scanlan S. (2003) Food Security and Comparative Sociology: Research, Theories, and Concepts. International Journal of Sociology, 33(3): 88–111.

Shandra J.M., Leckband C., McKinney L.A. and London B. (2009). Ecologically Unequal Exchange, World Polity, and Biodiversity Loss." International Journal of Comparative Sociology, 50(3–4): 285–310.

Shiva (1999). Why Industrial Agriculture Cannot Feed the World. Paper presented at the International Forum on Agriculture Workshop, Cuenevaca, Mexico,

Talbot J.M. (2004). Grounds for Agreement: The Political Economy of the Coffee Commodity Chain. Oxford: Rowman and Littlefield.

Tausch A. and Peter H. (2003) Globalization and European Integration. Huntington New York: Nova Science.

Thomas A. (2000). Meanings and Views of Development. In T. Allen, & A. Thomas (Eds) ACFID Conference in Canberra on November 28, 2012.

Todaro M.P. and Smith C.S. (2003). Case Studies in Economic Development. Boston, MA: Addison Wesley

Wallerstein I. (1974). The Modern World System: Capitalist Agriculture and the Origins of the European World-Economy in the Sixteenth Century. New York: Academic Press.

Wallerstein. (2004). World Systems Analysis: An Introduction. Durham, NC: Duke University Press.

Wimberley D. and Bello R. (1992). Effects of Foreign Investment, Exports, and Economic Growth on Third World Food Consumption. Social Forces, 70: 895–921

World Bank (2011). World Development Indicators. Available at http://databank.worldbank.org/ddp/home.do/.

World Food Programme (2010). The Hunger Trap. Available at http://one.wfp.org/policies/documents/pdf/hungertrap.pdf.