

# DIGITALES ARCHIV

ZBW – Leibniz-Informationszentrum Wirtschaft  
*ZBW – Leibniz Information Centre for Economics*

Ogunjobi, Joseph Olufemi

Other Persons: Eseyin, Oluwasegun; Popoola, Olabisi Rasheedat

## Article

### Human capital and energy infrastructure : implications for economic growth in Nigeria

#### Provided in Cooperation with:

International Journal of Energy Economics and Policy (IJEPP)

**Reference:** Ogunjobi, Joseph Olufemi (2021). Human capital and energy infrastructure : implications for economic growth in Nigeria. In: International Journal of Energy Economics and Policy <https://www.econjournals.com/index.php/ijEEP/article/download/10066/5798>. doi:10.32479/ijEEP.10066.

This Version is available at:

<http://hdl.handle.net/11159/7693>

#### Kontakt/Contact

ZBW – Leibniz-Informationszentrum Wirtschaft/Leibniz Information Centre for Economics

Düsternbrooker Weg 120

24105 Kiel (Germany) E-Mail:

[rights@zbw.eu](mailto:rights@zbw.eu)

<https://www.zbw.eu/econis-archiv/>

*This document may be saved and copied for your personal and scholarly purposes. You are not to copy it for public or commercial purposes, to exhibit the document in public, to perform, distribute or otherwise use the document in public. If the document is made available under a Creative Commons Licence you may exercise further usage rights as specified in the licence.*

#### Standard-Nutzungsbedingungen:

Dieses Dokument darf zu eigenen wissenschaftlichen Zwecken und zum Privatgebrauch gespeichert und kopiert werden. Sie dürfen dieses Dokument nicht für öffentliche oder kommerzielle Zwecke vervielfältigen, öffentlich ausstellen, aufführen, vertreiben oder anderweitig nutzen. Sofern für das Dokument eine OpenContent-Lizenz verwendet wurde, so gelten abweichend von diesen Nutzungsbedingungen die in der Lizenz gewährten Nutzungsrechte.

<https://zbw.eu/econis-archiv/termsofuse>

#### Terms of use:

Mitglied der





# Human Capital and Energy Infrastructure: Implications for Economic Growth in Nigeria

**Joseph O. Ogunjobi, Oluwasegun Eseyin\*, Olabisi Popoola**

Department of Economics, Landmark University, Omu-Aran, Nigeria. \*Email: [eseyin.oluwasegun@lmu.edu.ng](mailto:eseyin.oluwasegun@lmu.edu.ng)

**Received:** 10 June 2020

**Accepted:** 29 December 2020

**DOI:** <https://doi.org/10.32479/ijep.10066>

## ABSTRACT

Both hypothetical and empirical evidences have found the roles that human capital and energy infrastructure in spurring the economic growth of a nation as very germane. These key variables are undoubtedly working together in a quest to achieve equitable redistribution of the nation's economic resource and ensuring poverty reduction. This study is based on an attempt to use co-integration and ARDL modeling framework to examine the empirical evidence of the impact of the different components of human capital and energy infrastructure on economic growth in Nigeria between 1981 "C:\Users\Hp\Desktop\PROMOTION JOURNALS\SCOPUS.pdf" and 2018. Findings from the study showed that the quality of educational, transportation and communication facilities had a significant and contemporary influence on economic development. In the same way, investment in physical resources calculated by gross fixed capital development, quality of healthcare facilities, availability of power supply were also found to have a positive impact with a lag effect on economic growth. Implicitly, an increase in these facilities over the past decade in terms of their availability and efficiency would boost economic development over the current period. The study therefore recommended that education and health should be given an unwavering focus on investment by the policy maker as components of human capital coupled with energy infrastructure if the desired growth for which Nigeria aspires is to be attained.

**Keywords:** Human Capital, Energy Infrastructure, Economic Growth **JEL**

**Classification:** F, O4, Q4

## 1. INTRODUCTION

The literature on growth acknowledges that infrastructure serves as a catalyst for economic development by enhancing access to capital and through the influence of policy action. Other scholars such as Cesar and Surphid (1992), Ogbuoze (1997), Munir and Khan (2018); Boisso et al. (2000), Babalola (2015) and Aregbesola and Kolawole (2015) have written all in favor of the value of sustainable growth and construction services. Infrastructure is divided into physical and social infrastructure, physical infrastructure is directly engaged in the production sectors, such as in agriculture, industry and trade. These include transport, power supply, irrigation and telecommunication. On the other hand, social infrastructure include health, education, nutrition, housing and water supply. These improve the standard of living, human development, economic growth and development of a nation.

Rural infrastructural facilities constitute the substance of rural welfare. Efforts to raise rural welfare must necessarily go beyond the traditional and limited approach of rising per capital income through oil and agricultural development projects to the provision of basic needs for the populace. These may include electricity, treated pipe-borne water, good or accessible roads, health and medical facilities, telecommunication services, banks and schools.

Also, human capital development is essential because it is the only factor that co-ordinates all other factors of production for increasing productivity and economic growth. Both infrastructure and human capital are working hand in hand for economic growth. Many researchers have written on the importance of human capital and infrastructure on economic growth, Udah and Ebi (2017); Munir and Khan (2018); Eniolobo and Sodeinde (2019), and

This Journal is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License. This examined the relationship between human capital and performance of an economy. Mbà et al. (2013), Egbiremolan and Anaduaka (2014), Amassoma and Nwosa (2011) and Fashina et al. (2018). The findings from these works posit that there exist a direct nexus between human capital and growth of the nation's economy.

Infrastructure is divided into physical and social infrastructure, physical infrastructure is directly engaged in the production sectors, such as in agriculture, industry and trade. These include transport, power supply, irrigation and telecommunication. While the social infrastructure on the other hand comprises health, education, nutrition, housing and water supply. These improve the standard of living, human development, economic growth and development of a nation. Rural infrastructural facilities constitute the substance of rural welfare. Efforts to raise rural welfare must necessarily go beyond the traditional and limited approach of rising per capita income through oil and agricultural development projects to the provision of basic needs for the populace. These may include electricity, treated pipe-borne water, good or accessible roads, health and medical facilities, telecommunication services, banks and schools. Different authors have defined infrastructure in different ways, Adeyemi (1989) sees physical infrastructure as the totality of basic physical facilities upon which all other economic activities in the system significantly depend upon; from the view of Kusharjanto and Kim (2011), infrastructure is seen as the aggregate of resources in terms of facilities and mechanisms that support education, employment, health-care, community development, income distribution and social welfare. Akinyosoye (2010) considered infrastructure as an unpaid factor of production which tends to raise productivity of other factors while serving as intermediate inputs to production. Based on the opinion of Babatunde (2018), infrastructure is ranked as a strategic economic driver and serves as a catalyst for public development.

On the significance of public spending on infrastructure, Nwachukwu and Emoh (2011); Babalola (2015); Aregbesola and Kolawole (2015) and Connolly and Li (2016), all agreed that government investment in infrastructural development have positive effects on productivity and economic growth. Some writers have also established a direct linkage of infrastructure supply and foreign direct investment. According to the findings of Loree and Guisinger (1995); Morisse (2000); Asiedu (2000); Edun et al. (2013) an improved infrastructure can stimulate Foreign Direct Investment, encourage employment opportunities, increases the level of productivity and economic growth, from the above submission, the existence of energy infrastructure accelerates the establishment of industries, lay a solid foundation for a general boost in the productivity of the entire nation. This

cause GDP to rise (Rioja, 1999). Also, Boisso et al. (2000) wrote on the public infrastructure in U.S. productivity, Lim (2001) considered have infrastructure boost economic development in some regions in China, in their work on productivity efficiency in Spain, while Teruel and Kuronda (2005) studied on Philippine agriculture sector. All these researchers examined the roles in which good infrastructure base can play in productivity and development of the countries involved and their contributions showed a positive effect on their economies.

Education is one of the major components of human capital development; others include health services and training. It increases skills and competencies of individuals as well as their productivity. Majority of developing economies (Nigeria inclusive) are blessed with abundant natural resources, but still unable to tap these resources and therefore remained underdeveloped, because of lack of well trained personnel to harness the resources. Human capital and economic growth can only be achieved and sustained through massive investment on education. Also, technological and efficiency as supported theoretically by Solow (1956) and empirically supported, developing economies should massively invest in human capital. It is when a country has a well-trained professionals and labour force that can match-up in the adoption of meaningful technology from the advanced economies.

Apparently, the robust and reliability of all these previous studies cannot be subjected to questioning. However, the identification of the core significance of energy infrastructure coupled with human capital development on Nigeria's growth performance is yet to be investigated from these scholarly research output. Therefore, this creates the knowledge gap in which this study aims to fill. The objective of this study is therefore to examine the impact of human capital and energy infrastructure on economic growth in Nigeria.

## 2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

On the impact of infrastructure development on economic growth in China, Pravakar et al. (2010) saw the country as a fastest growing economy. They therefore investigated the role of infrastructure in promoting their economic growth between 1975 and 2007 using a generalized Cobb-Douglas production to analyse their data. The study indicated that developing an economic policy that improves physical infrastructure and the development of human capital for long-term sustainable economic growth is important in order to develop economies. In addition, pointing to infrastructure position, Haider et al. (2012) studied how infrastructure impacts Pakistan's economic growth

between 1972 and 2009. Information from the time series were obtained and their data were analyzed using OLS and Johansen co-integration methods. Their findings showed that infrastructure has contributed to Pakistan's economic growth in a positive and important way. Based on their results, they recommended that government and policy makers should concentrate more directly and indirectly on the development of Pakistan's infrastructure due to its contribution to economic growth. Manufacturing sector can not be left out in an effort to better create the link between infrastructure and economic development. It is because; formidable infrastructure base triggers manufacturing sector output while manufacturing sector performance in turn boosts economic growth. In an effort to accomplish this, Falaye et al. (2019) also argued that, some other variable such as inflation rate, exchange rate and utilization of resources must be well controlled.

Human capital is also considered as impetus for economic performance in every economy. The importance of human capital as the only factor of production that co-ordinates all other factors have been the focus of many researchers. Campbell and Agbiokoro (2014) took a critical consideration of how government spending in human capital can spur economic growth of the Nigerian economy between 1980 and 2010. The paper made use of both OLS and three stages Least Square analytical technique to process their time series data. Their results showed that human capital along with technological development and human growth has a grow in the same direction with the growth of the economy of Nigeria. It also showed that effective and efficient training of employees enhances the growth of the economy. Therefore, the study recommended that proactive steps must be taken by policy maker and economic managers to channel more resources in to the development of human capital, and also have effective and efficient training to lay good foundations for private sector growth in the country.

In addition to contributing to the role of human capital in economic growth, Mba et al. (2013) investigated the importance of human capital development to Nigeria's economic growth. For their study they have adopted the Ordinary Least Square (OLS) system. Their study results show that there is a close link between the production of human capital and economic growth. The study suggested that a workable policy should be placed in place which would support the manpower needed in the economy. We also proposed that health and education investments should be used efficiently and effectively to improve the country's quality of health services and education system. In supporting economic development in Nigeria, Fashina et al. (2018) showed that Nigeria's development is responsive to human resources. By implication government spending on education will foster development in Nigeria with additional aid inflows. In addition, Obasaju et al. (2019) further explored the effect of intermediate tariffs and intermediate intra-national exports on national value chains in the sub-region of the Western African Economic

Community (ECOWAS). However, their study's emphasis was on enhancing value chains and how regional trade integration can be boosted through general tariff review.

On the value of human capital, economic growth and infrastructural development, Eniolobo and Shodeinde (2019) focused on how to define some of the key economic and social factors that affect Nigeria's industrial productivity. The work adopted OLS techniques. The result showed that human capital is an important catalyst of productivity of the industrial sector. However, infrastructure also boost but with marginal outcome on the productivity of the industrial sector in Nigeria. Udah and Ebi (2017) analysed time series data from 1970 to 2014 and used OLS technique to analyse it. Dickey-fuller and Philips-Perron tests were used for unit root and co-integration as well as two-step Engle-granger procedure and Johnson method for processing and evaluating the study results. The findings showed that causality exists between human capital and electricity supply, indicating that electricity supply provides the enabling environment for knowledge to thrive. In addition, there is causality between electricity supply and trade accessibility, with the assumption that if there is a secure supply of energy, the country will benefit from trade liberalisation. In summary, the study's finding indicates that gross domestic investment, energy supply, and trade openness provide the climate to aspire for industrial sector. The study advised government to prioritize electricity generation and distribution, and to promote investment policy in different sectors to accelerate the country's speed of industrialization.

The short-run dynamics, using EMC by Munir and Khan (2018) have showed that infrastructure has a positive short-run effect on economic growth, and that human capital has a positive impact on economic growth as well. The study further advised policymakers to pay special attention to creditworthy policies for the creation of human resources to promote the growth of health and education sectors to provide more skilled, effective labor for more competitive economy. This also proposed further proposals for infrastructural development to boost infrastructure to achieve high rates of growth in Pakistan.

### 3. METHODOLOGY

The study adopt Auto-Regressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) model for analysis. Data were collected on human capital (proxy by government annual spendings on education as well as health care facilities in the country), infrastructure (proxy by government expenditure on roads, electricity generation and consumption) and the GDP. Secondary data are used and are sourced through the World Development Reports of various years, Human Development Reports, Bureau of Statistics and from the Central Bank of Nigeria Statistical Bulletins.

### 3.1. Model Specification

Various researchers made use of different methods of analysis to find out how energy infrastructure spurs economic development. Some made use of primary data while others used secondary data in their methodology. Vijayanolanlan made use of the “new growth” production function which was given as

$$Y_t = A (I_t, t) f (K_t, L_t, R I_t)$$

$Y_t = A_t K_t^\alpha G_t^\beta L_t^{1-\alpha-\beta}$  Where A is the total factor of productivity at time t.

Specifically, all authors on infrastructure believed in its importance to the production function but with much emphasis on its technological inputs and welfare, the inputs of human capital development. In consonance with the assertions of these authors, we express our model for analysis as:

$$D(GDP_t) = f(Capital_t, Labour_t, Education_t, Health_t, Power_t, Transcom_t) \quad (1)$$

The parametric specification of the model is given in (2) and set in linear form in (3) below

$$D(GDP_t) = Capital_t^1 \cdot Labour_t^2 \cdot Education_t^3 \cdot Health_t^4 \cdot Power_t^5 \cdot Transcom_t^6 \quad (2)$$

$$\begin{aligned} & Log D(GDP_t) = 1 \cdot Log Capital_t + 2 \cdot Log Labour_t + 3 \cdot Log Education_t \\ & + 4 \cdot Log Health_t + 5 \cdot Log Power_t + 6 \cdot Log Transcom_t \quad (3) \end{aligned}$$

Where:

$Log(D(GDP_t))$  = Percentage of annual growth rate of real gross domestic product at time t.

$Log(Capital_t)$  = Log of capital at time t proxied by gross fixed capital formation (GFCF) at time t.

$Log(Labour_t)$  = Log of labour which is proxied by annual total employment to population ratio, 15+, as modeled ILO estimate at period t.

$Log(Education_t)$  = Log of education which is measured by Human capital index, based on years of schooling and returns to education at period t.

$Log(Health_t)$  = Log of health variable is measured by Life Expectancy at Birth, Total at time t.

$Log(Power_t)$  = Log of power variable is measured by the population of people with access to electricity at time t.

$Log(Transcom_t)$  = Log of annual recurrent expenditure on transportation and communication at time t.

The Auto-Regressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) model specified for this analysis is thus given as:

$$\begin{aligned} & Log D(GDP_t) = 1 \cdot Log Capital_t + 2 \cdot Log Labour_t + 3 \cdot Log Education_t \\ & + 4 \cdot Log Health_t + 5 \cdot Log Power_t + 6 \cdot Log Transcom_t + 7 \cdot Log D(GDP_{t-1}) \\ & + 8 \cdot Log Capital_{t-1} + 9 \cdot Log Labour_{t-1} + 10 \cdot Log Education_{t-1} + 11 \cdot Log Health_{t-1} \\ & + 12 \cdot Log Power_{t-1} + 13 \cdot Log Transcom_{t-1} \quad (4) \end{aligned}$$

### 3.2. Unit Root and Co-integration Tests

The Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) test was used to investigate the presence of unit root in each of the variables, or otherwise. The result of the unit root test as presented in Table 1 showed a none of the variables are stationary at level. Therefore, all variables are stationary at first difference I (1) at 1 per cent meaning point. The consequence of this is that the variables in the model have short-run disequilibrium, thereby knocking out the reliability of the

Table 1: Result of unit root test

| Variable           | ADF (t-statistics) | 1 percent critical values | Order of integration | Remarks    |
|--------------------|--------------------|---------------------------|----------------------|------------|
| $Log(D(GDP_t))$    | -10.11364          | -3.475184                 | I (1)                | Stationary |
| $Log(Capital_t)$   | -12.51815          | -3.474265                 | I (1)                | Stationary |
| $Log(Labour_t)$    | -12.29075          | -3.474265                 | I (1)                | Stationary |
| $Log(Education_t)$ | -12.06341          | -3.476805                 | I (1)                | Stationary |
| $Log(Health_t)$    | -9.194758          | -3.477835                 | I (1)                | Stationary |
| $Log(Power_t)$     | -8.695711          | -3.492523                 | I (1)                | Stationary |
| $Log(Transcom_t)$  | -12.26490          | -3.474265                 | I (1)                | Stationary |

Source: Authors' Computation, 2020

OLS results presented in Table 3. Nonetheless, the presence of a long-term equilibrium between the variables in the model, which is a required condition for establishing ARDL, was defined by the co-integration test shown in Table 2:

## 4.

### INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The model was estimated using the co-integration and Autoregressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) analysis. Model variables data were obtained from various sources including the CBN Annual Statistical Bulletin and the World Bank

**Table 2: Result of co-integration test**

| Unrestricted Co-integration rank test (trace) |            |           |                |         |
|---|------------|-----------|----------------|---------|
| Hypothesized                                  |            | Trace     | 0.05           |         |
| No. of CE (s)                                 | Eigenvalue | Statistic | Critical value | Prob.** |
| None  | 0.235719   | 98.83109  | 125.6154       | 0.6384  |
| At most 1                                     | 0.205335   | 71.14264  | 95.75366       | 0.6837  |
| At most 2                                     | 0.158169   | 47.46964  | 69.81889       | 0.7429  |
| At most 3                                     | 0.123218   | 29.73556  | 47.85613       | 0.7324  |
| At most 4                                     | 0.095396   | 16.19141  | 29.79707       | 0.6988  |
| At most 5                                     | 0.055004   | 5.864888  | 15.49471       | 0.7114  |
| At most 6                                     | 0.000366   | 0.037707  | 3.841466       | 0.8460  |

Trace test indicates no co-integration at the 0.05 level,\* denotes rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level, \*\*MacKinnon-Haug-Michelis (1999) P values

**Unrestricted Co-integration Rank Test (Maximum Eigenvalue)**

| Hypothesized  |            | Max-Eigen | 0.05     |         |
|---------------|------------|-----------|----------|---------|
| No. of CE (s) | Eigenvalue | Statistic | Critical | Prob.** |
| None          | 0.235719   | 27.68846  | 46.23142 | 0.8915  |
| At most 1     | 0.205335   | 23.67300  | 40.07757 | 0.8436  |
| At most 2     | 0.158169   | 17.73408  | 33.87687 | 0.8905  |
| At most 3     | 0.123218   | 13.54415  | 27.58434 | 0.8527  |
| At most 4     | 0.095396   | 10.32652  | 21.13162 | 0.7135  |
| At most 5     | 0.055004   | 5.827181  | 14.26460 | 0.6355  |
| At most 6     | 0.000366   | 0.037707  | 3.841466 | 0.8460  |

Max-eigenvalue test indicates no cointegration at the 0.05 level,\* denotes rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level, \*\*MacKinnon-Haug-Michelis (1999) P values

Source: Authors' Computation, 2020

**Table 3: Ordinary least square (OLS) result**

| Variable           | Coefficient | Std. error            | t-statistic | Prob.  |
|--------------------|-------------|-----------------------|-------------|--------|
| Log (Labour)***    | -12.37608   | 2.997182              | -4.129239   | 0.0001 |
| Log (Capital)      | -1.899936   | 2.245140              | -0.846244   | 0.3994 |
| Log (Education)    | 0.766656    | 1.347878              | 0.568788    | 0.5708 |
| Log (Health)       | -1.563683   | 1.557879              | -1.003726   | 0.3179 |
| Log (Power)        | -6.899114   | 6.620557              | -1.042075   | 0.2999 |
| Log (Transcom)***  | 2.492571    | 0.418454              | 5.956620    | 0.0000 |
| C                  | 83.17597    | 22.80196              | 3.647755    | 0.0004 |
| R-squared          | 0.456575    | Mean dependent var    | 4.868654    |        |
| Adjusted R-squared | 0.424292    | S.D. dependent var    | 4.017508    |        |
| S.E. of regression | 3.048301    | Akaike info criterion | 5.129665    |        |
| Sum squared resid  | 938.5059    | Schwarz criterion     | 5.303507    |        |
| Log likelihood     | -270.0019   | Hannan-Quinn criter.  | 5.200151    |        |
| F-statistic        | 14.14303    | Durbin-Watson stat    | 0.401293    |        |
| Prob (F-statistic) | 0.000000    |                       |             |        |

\*\*\*Statistically Significant at 1 percent, \*\*Significant at 5 percent, \*Significant at 10 percent. Source: Author's Computation, 2020

**Table 4: Result of auto-regressive distributed lag (ARDL) analysis**

| Variable                          | Coefficient | Std. error            | t-statistic | Prob.  |
|-----------------------------------|-------------|-----------------------|-------------|--------|
| Log (Labour)***                   | -8.033272   | 2.759341              | -2.911301   | 0.0045 |
| Log (Capital)***                  | -9.664301   | 2.986396              | -3.236109   | 0.0017 |
| Log (Education)***                | 2.427011    | 1.218702              | 1.991472    | 0.0494 |
| Log (Health)***                   | -4.064137   | 1.312421              | -3.096673   | 0.0026 |
| Log (Power)***                    | -14.96315   | 4.738607              | -3.157710   | 0.0021 |
| Log (Transcom)*                   | 0.760262    | 0.397986              | 1.910271    | 0.0592 |
| D (GDP) <sub>t-1</sub> ***        | 0.871523    | 0.047004              | 18.54140    | 0.0000 |
| Log (Labour) <sub>t-1</sub>       | 4.803093    | 2.998651              | 1.601751    | 0.1126 |
| Log (Capital) <sub>t-1</sub> ***  | 9.865882    | 3.004727              | 3.283454    | 0.0014 |
| Log (Education) <sub>t-1</sub> ** | -3.123431   | 1.242245              | -2.514344   | 0.0136 |
| Log (Health) <sub>t-1</sub> ***   | 4.642249    | 1.323604              | 3.507279    | 0.0007 |
| Log (Power) <sub>t-1</sub> ***    | 17.34032    | 4.794523              | 3.616692    | 0.0005 |
| Log (Transcom) <sub>t-1</sub> *   | -0.666305   | 0.396091              | -1.682201   | 0.0959 |
| C                                 | 4.356575    | 11.88891              | 0.366440    | 0.7149 |
| R-squared                         | 0.893867    | Mean dependent var    | 4.929266    |        |
| Adjusted R-squared                | 0.879031    | S.D. dependent var    | 3.986492    |        |
| S.E. of regression                | 1.386526    | Akaike info criterion | 3.612933    |        |
| Sum squared resid                 | 178.7883    | Schwarz criterion     | 3.962649    |        |
| Log likelihood                    | -179.2919   | Hannan-Quinn criter.  | 3.754703    |        |
| F-statistic                       | 60.25054    | Durbin-Watson stat    | 2.004438    |        |
| Prob (F-statistic)                | 0.000000    |                       |             |        |

\*\*\*Statistically Significant at 1 percent, \*\*Significant at 5 percent, \*Significant at 10 percent. Source: Authors' Computation, 2020

Development Indicator (WDI). The estimated parameter forms most of the variables were in line with the theoretical a priori expectation of the relationship between each of the variables and economic growth. The parameter estimate for education and transcom at the current period are in line with the expected signs. In addition, the sign of estimated parameter for physical capital, health and energy of the past period were positive in line the a priori expectation. Nevertheless, despite the fact that they are statistically significant, the expected signs for parameter estimates for physical capital, labour, health and power of current period negate the a-prior expectations. Also in this category are the lag values of education and transcom variables

The adjusted R-squared ( $R^2$ ) of the ARDL model in Table 4 shows that about 87 percent of the systematic variation in the dependent variable Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is caused by the explanatory variables which are the various components of human capital and energy infrastructure over the period that the analysis covered(1981-2018) in Nigerian economy. The remaining 23 percent variation is explained by other determinants of growth which are not captured in this study. The Durbin Watson is 2.0 which indicate the absence of first order serial correlation in the analysis. The F-statistics of 60.25054 is statistically significant at 1 per cent level of significance which reveals that the entire model is statistically significant. The co-integration test result reveals that there exists a long run relationship among the variable in the model. Thus, the condition for specification and estimation of the ARDL model presented in Table 4 was established.

Examining the relative influence of each of the independent variables and economic growth, it could be seen from the empirical results that the quality of education, transport and communication facilities has been found to have a significant and contemporary effect on economic growth. By implication, an improvement in these facilities in terms of their availability and quality in past period will boost the overall performance of the economy in current period. The relatively huge role in which human capital plays in economic growth from the result showcases its importance. Despite the fact that Nigeria is poorly rated in human development indicator, yet it the country is not lacking behind completely. Likewise, as observed that energy, transport and communication infrastructure variables hold a positive statistically significant impact on growth, that infrastructure is a panacea for growth is now an undeniable fact among development researchers as well as policy policymakers. Adequate attention and funding if given to infrastructure will lead to expansion in investment and development by growing productivity and output. It links energy to factories, employees to employment, and commodities to markets. It can also be deduced that the availability of infrastructure and human resources is crucial to our development. This outcome corroborates the standpoint of Matthew et al. (2018)

## 5. CONCLUSION

According to the results obtained, economic growth could be seriously affected and slowed down due to energy shortages. Nigeria's inadequate electricity supply has grown to an alarming rate, and every administration that comes into power will put it as its primary agenda to fix. But that it is indeed optimistic demonstrates its significance in the development cycle and its inevitability. Again, there is an immediate need to re-engineer and promote infrastructure growth. Investment in energy infrastructure continues to play a rising role in the Nigerian economy, even though the sector has been privatized. Originally, a small rise in the rate of electricity output per household is related to an improvement in per capita GDP growth

From the finding of this study, we can therefore recommend that education and health as components of human capital coupled with energy infrastructure should be given an unwavering investment focus by the policy maker if the desired growth that Nigeria is aspiring for must be achieved.

## 6. ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors wish to appreciate the management of Landmark University for making provisions to sponsor the open access fee of this article.

## REFERENCES

Adeyemi, A.M. (1989), Spartial Variation to Secondary School Facilities in Oyo State. Unpublished PhD Thesis. Department of Geography University of Ibadan, Nigeria.

Akinyosoye, M. (2010), Infrastructure Development in Nigeria; Road Map to Sustainable Development (Working Paper).

Amassoma, D., Nwosa, P. (2011), Investment in human capital and economic growth in nigeria: A causality approach. *Journal of Canadian Social Sciences*, 7(4), 114-120.

Aregbesola, O., Kolawole, B.O. (2015), Oil Revenue, public spending and economic growth relationship. *Journal of Sustainable Development*, 8(3), 114-123.

Asiedu, E. (2002), The determinants of foreign direct investment to developing countries is Africa different. *World Development*, 30(1), 107-118.

Babalola, A.I. (2015), Fiscal policy and economic development in Nigeria. *Journal of Economic Sustainable Development*, 6(7), 150-160.

Babatunde, S.A. (2018), Government spending on infrastructure and economic growth in Nigeria, *Economic Research-Ekonomska Istraživanja*, 31(1), 997-1014.

Boisso, D., Grosskopf, S. and Hayes, K. (2000). Productivity and the U.S: Effects of Business Cycles and Public Capital. *Journal of Regional Science of Urban Economics*, 30(6), 663-681.

Bongani, R., Fyth, R. (2013), Human capital for quality infrastructural development in south africa: A project-based pedagogical analysis. *Journal of Social and Development Sciences*, 4(6), 278-285.

Campbell, O., Agbiokoro, T. (2014), Human capital and economic growth: A three stage least squareapproach. *Journal of Economics and Sustainable Development*, 5(5), 121-137.

Cesar, C., Surphid, L. (1992), *Infrastructural and Economic Growth in Sub-Saharan African*, Policy Research Working Paper No. 4712, The World Bank Research Group.

Connolly, M., Li, C. (2016), Government spending and economic growth in OECD countries. *Journal of Economic Policy Reform*, 19(4), 386-395.

Edun, A.O., Akinde, J.O., Olaleye, S.O., Idowu, G.A. (2013), Infrastructural development and its effect on economic growth: The Nigerian perspective. *European Scientific Journal*, 9(31), 431-452.

Eigbiremolan, G.O., Anaduaka, U.S. (2014), Human capital development and economic growth: The nigeria experience. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Studies*, 4(4), 25-35.

Enilolobo, O.S., Sodeinde, O. (2019), Human capital development, infrastructural development and industrial sector productivity in Nigeria. *Archives of Business Research*, 7(1), 122-136.

Falaye, J.A., Eseyin, O., Otekunrin, A., Asamu, F., Ogunlade, P., Egbide, B., Rasak, B., Niyi-Oyebanji, M., Eluyela, D. (2019), Impact of exchange rate on the manufacturing sector in Nigeria. *International Journal of Mechanical Engineering and Technology*, 10(2), 1568-1583.

Fashina, O., Asaleye, A.J., Ogunjobi, J.O., Lawal, I.A. (2018), Foreign aid human capital and economic growth nexus: Evidence from Nigeria. *Fundacja Centrum Badań Socjologicznych*, 10(1), 277-292.

Haider, S.Z., Anjad, M.U., Ullah, S., Naveed, T.A. (2012), Role of infrastructure in economic growth: A case study of Pakistan. *Journal of Asian Development Studies*, 1(1), 13-21.

Kusharjanto, H. and Kim, D. (2011). Infrastructure and human development: The case of Java and Indonesia. *Journal of the Asia Pacific Economy*, 16(1), 111-124.

Lim, E.G. (2001), Determinants of and the Relationship between Foreign Direct Investment and Growth; A Summary of Recent Literature, IMF Working Paper No. WP/01/175IMF. Washington, DC: IMF.

Loree, D., Guisinger, S. (1995), Policy and non-policy determinants of US equity foreign direct investment. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 26, 281-299.

Matthew, O.A., Ede, C.U., Osabohien, R., Ejemeyovwi, J., Fasina, F.F., Akinpelumi, D. (2018), Electricity consumption and human capital development in Nigeria: Exploring the implications for economic growth. *International Journal of Energy Economics and Policy*, 8(6), 8-15.

Mba, K., Mba, E.I., Ogbuabor, J.E., Ikebu, C.H. (2013), Human capital development and economic growth. *Journal of Economics and Sustainable Development*, 4(18), 48-52.

Morisse, J. (2000), Foreign direct investment in Africa: Policies matter. *Transnational Corporations*, 9(2), 107-125.

Munir, S., Elahi, I. and Khan, I.H. (2018), Impact of human capital and infrastructure development on economic growth in Pakistan. *European online Journal of Natural and Social Sciences*, 173, 281295.

Nwachukwu, C.C., Emoh, F.I. (2011), Building construction project management success as a critical issues in real estate development and investment. *American Journal of Social and Management Sciences*, 2(1), 56-65.

Obasaju, B.O., Olayiwola, W.K., Okodua, H., Eseyin, O., Ahmed, A.V. (2019), Intermediate tariffs and intraregional intermediate exports: Implications for regional value chains in ECOWAS. *Cogent Economics and Finance*, 7, 1622179.

Ogbuzobe, J.E. (1997), A Comprehensive Analysis of Community (Self-Help) Development Effort in Nigeria, Occasional Paper No. 7. Ibadan: Nigeria Institute of Social Economic Research.

Pravakar, S., Ranjan, K.D., Geethanjali, N. (2010), Infrastructure Development and Economic Growth in China Institute of Development Economics. 1DE Discussion Paper No. 261.

Rioja, F.K. (1999), Productive and welfare: Implication on public infrastructure. *Journal of Development Economics*, 58(2), 387-404.

Solow, R. (1956), A contribution to the theory of economic growth. *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 70, 65-94.

Teruel, R.G., Kuronda, Y. (2005), Public infrastructure and productivity growth in philippine agriculture. *Journal of Asian Economics*, 16(3), 555-576.

Udah, E.B., Ebi, B. (2017), Infrastructural, human capital and industrialization in Nigeria. *Nile Journal of Business and Economics*, 6, 58-78.

World Bank. (1994), *World Development Report 1994: Infrastructure for Development*. New York: Oxford University Press.