**ABSTRACT**

This research work is focused on the effect of government regulations on export business in Enugu Metropolis.

Microfinance provides people with capital to start and or expand their businesses as small businesses with microfinance support have grown into Medium Enterprises creating employment opportunities for others.

The general conceptual framework, theoretical framework, empirical literature methods were used by the researcher during the course of gathering data. Research design, sources for data collection, tools for data collection, population of the study, sample and sampling technique, instrumentations, reliability and validity of data and test instruments, data analysis, and percentage were the research methods adopted by the researcher.

This research finds out that there are different types of export products that are exported by organizations in Enugu metropolis; alsothey are various forms of government regulations on export business in Enugu Metropolis. The study also found out that there are many reasons for government regulations on export business in Enugu metropolis.Also from the findings, it was discovered that Government regulations affect export business in Enugu Metropolis.It was concluded thatGovernment regulation has a positive effect on the export businessEven though there are some negative effect of government regulation on export business but the benefit outweigh the negative effect by far, therefore it is recommended that Governments should encourage exports business and try to amend those regulations that have negative effect on export business since exporting increases jobs opportunities and brings in higher wages and raises the standard of living for residents.

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**CHAPTER ONE**

**INTRODUCTION**

**1.1 Background of the study**

The continuous agitations and frequent debate by World Trade Organization (WTO) and other economic experts, that free trade among the countries in the world would be an engine for growth and development is still an on-going debate in the field of management sciences. Prior to this, Nigeria went through a series of trade reforms in order to grow her economy and be self-reliant in industrialization strategies that can encourage development and growth. Shortly after the independence in 1960, Import Substitution Industrialization (ISI) strategies were the most prevailing strategies during these periods. The idea was to imitate some countries in Latin America such as Brazil, Mexico, who observed import substitution industrialization strategies during the 1950s. Nigerian government embarked on these strategies on a real large scale with the hope of gaining an autonomous power in terms of manufacturing, production of consumable imported goods and improves the development status of the country. In order to achieve a huge successin terms of Import Substitution Industrialization (ISI) strategies, according to Ogujiuba (2011), protective tariffs such as; high import quotas, special preferential licensing for capital goods imports, subsidized loans to local infant industries, and so forth were introduced. This is a calculated effort to replace major consumer imported goods with domestic production. However, this ISI strategy of industrial development policy failed generally in Africa region including Nigeria because of the stronger structural domestic constraints and external limitations (Mendes, 2014). In the light of the failure of Import Substitution Industrialization Strategy, a further step was taken byNigeria to adopt outward-oriented development strategy in the mid-1980s which was also termed as structural adjustment programs (SAP) or economic recovery programs (ERP). The effect of these plans was to abolish directstate control in the production, distributive sectors and achieve overall trade liberalization of the country’s economy,especially the external sector.

Trade liberalization is the process of reducing or removing restrictions on international trade. This may include the reduction or removal of tariffs, abolition or enlargement of import quotas, abolition of multipleexchange rates, and removal of requirements for administrative permits for imports or allocations of foreignexchange.In Nigeria, the term “trade liberalization” became pronounced through the adoption of the IMF Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) in 1986, which its primary aim was to restructure and diversify the productivebase of the economy. In addition, the SAP was also designed to establish a realistic and sustainable exchange rate for the Naira through trade and payment liberalization, tariff reforms, commercialization and privatization of public enterprises (Oyejide, 1990).

Trade policy reform especially trade liberalization has been a regular feature of developing economies since the mid 1980s. The general belief was that trade reforms,especially when combined with exchange rate reforms, and better domestic macroeconomic policies, could enhance trade-induced economic expansion andconsequently reverse the downward trend of developing African economies (Ekpo,2005). Prior to this time, particularly between the early 1960s and the early 1980s, many African countries operated highly interventionist and protectionist trade regimes on both theimport and export sides. On the import side trade regime was characterized by restrictiveimport licensing systems, and tight foreign exchange controls. For the export side,substantial implicit and explicit taxes, as well as the prohibition of certain export itemsand other non-tariff barriers were common features of the trade regimes.

Trade liberalization policy is one of the policies adopted by the developing countries in the late 1980’s following the World Bank Report (1987) which argues that“outward oriented countries performed better than inward oriented countries even underunfavorable market condition, as a solution to their economic crisis. The policy is alsopart of contemporary globalization policies pursued by both the developed anddeveloping countries to promote world economic integration.Free trade is considered by some economist as most relevant for economic development.

According to Haberler (1961)“free trade is economically advantageous because itmaximizes the output of social products”. However a counter argument holds thatalthough the derivable benefits of free trade are laudable, they are to some extenthypothetical, effective only under the conditions of full employment, full allocation ofresources and free competition in the economy. For instance, Singh (1985) argued that“the applicability of free trade is limited in the case of a developing economy, where a vast segment of the productive resources are still unexploited, with acute problem ofunemployment. A free trade regime will further compound these problems by weakeningthe domestic industries, especially those that lack sufficient competitive power.

Interestingly, these arguments do not in any way negate the fact that internationaltradeplays a vital role in the economic development of any country. Perhaps the conclusionone could draw from the two schools of thoughts is that for a developing economy, tradeintervention policy is preferable. When the economy has attained full capacity, then theidea of adopting free trade option could be considered. Trade intervention is practiced inevery country, except that the degree of intervention varies from country to country.Official intervention in trade processes is made possible through the implementation oftrade policies. For Developing Countries that have adopted National Development Planas a development strategy, trade policies are the instruments used for effective channelingof resources to appropriate sectors of the economy towards meeting plan objectives.

Trade liberalization is one of the major conditions adopted by the international lendingagencies such as World Bank and international monetary fund (IMF) for granting aid andother kinds of external economic assistance to Developing African countries, Onafowora and Owoye (1997).

The impact of trade on the economic performance of a country is a highly discussed issue in the political debate of both developing and advanced economies. And for the last two decades, trade liberalization has been a prominent component of policy advice to developing countries. Economic growth has been the most important claim that springs from it, advocates of trade liberalization state several chains like higher foreign direct investment (FDI) through which trade promotes the growth of income per capita. In general, they back up their hypothesis by referring to the high growth rates of south Asian Tiger states and China, which aggressively implement outward oriented strategies.

On the other hand, skeptics doubt that trade liberalization promotes long and sustainable growth. They assume that there are economic situations in which things get even worse if a country liberalizes trade. They often refer to the negative growth rates of some countries in Eastern Europe and Africa, which followed the advices of the World Bank and the International Monetary Funds to open up their markets, Stiglitz (2002).

The Nigerian main trade policy instrument shifted remarkably away from tariffs to quantitative import restrictions, particularly import prohibition and import licensing from the mid 1970s. This gave rise to the Nigerian customs legislature establishing an import prohibition list for trade item and an absolute import prohibition list for non-trade items, Oyejide (1975). The custom legislation empowered the government to modify this list at its discretion by adding or subtracting items through customs and excise notices and government announcement. And over the years there have been several modifications on the list targeted to protect existing domestic industries and reducing the country’s dependence on imports.

There are three international organizations that have expressed views on Nigerian’s import prohibition policy, these are the World Trade Organization, the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund. They have advisory role with respect to trade and other policy matters in Nigeria and had advised a more liberal trade policy regime in Nigeria which was initiated in the 1980s. The World Bank and the International Monetary Funds did support this via its lending programme prior to the introduction of the structural adjustment programme (SAP) in 1986 in Nigeria, imports were subjected to quantitative controls implemented through a combination of ban on agricultural and some manufactured goods and a licensing system. But under the SAP, import and export licensing was abolished, price and distribution control on agricultural exports was removed and the prohibited list of imports was reduced.

This issues of whether trade liberalization would lead to economic growth has become a debate for both pro-traders and protectionists. This has led to a growing change in the trend of world trade. Mostly, African countries have become more careful in embarking on liberalization of policies.

**1.2 Statement of the problem**

After the World War II, many less developed countries (LDCs) followed the path ofImport Substituting Industrialization (ISI).In the process of rapid domesticindustrialization under the ISI strategy African countries required increased imports ofmachines and technology and devoted most new resources to import-competing activities. These resulted into more rapid growth in the demand for foreign exchange that surpassed the growth in export earnings. In the process they were faced with balance of payments problems. This situation demanded increased export drive to pay for imports.

Moreover, to finance the balance of payments deficit these countries became dependent on the richly industrialized countries and International Institutions such as, theIMF/World Bank, dominated by the rich countries. When seeking their help they wereoften advised to open up their economies not only to tide their crises but also toexperience high rate of growth. The policy response was that most African countries leftthe course of inward-looking growth as ISI and started following Outward-Oriented DevelopmentStrategy. Since then the importance of foreign trade in the level of economic activities ofthe countries has been rising.The increased openness was hailed in IMF/World Bank Development Reports **(**World Bank,1987,1991,1999-2000) tried to show that outward-oriented trade policies have been moresuccessful in promoting growth than inward-oriented trade policies. In particular, theWorld Development Report (1987) which argued that “outward-oriented countriesperformed better than inward-oriented countries even under unfavorable market conditions”

However, trade reforms, even if beneficial for a country overall, may negatively affect some industries or some jobs and many commentators worry about negative effects on the environment. For developing countries the first possible effect of trade liberalization is the reduction in revenue accrued to tariffs which is a major source of income in most developing countries. It is also perceived to deteriorate primary export, lead to excessive dependency and will be detrimental to less developed countries (LDCs) industrialization. But to most international organization like IMF it is the condition for granting aid to LDCs. However, it should not be viewed as flooding the market with imported goods rather, it should be understood as the procedure of removal of import licenses, rationalization of export control exchange rate and provision of revenue.

**1.3 Objective of the study**

The main objective of this research is to investigate the effect of government regulation on export trade in Nigeria businesses with reference to Enugu Metropolis. To achieve this, the following specific objectives were formulated as follows:

1. To identify export products that is exported by organizations in Enugu metropolis.
2. To identify various forms of government regulations on export businesses in Enugu metropolis.
3. To examine the reasons for government regulations on export business in Enugu metropolis.
4. To ascertain the extent to which government regulations affect the export business in Enugu metropolis.
5. To determine whether government regulations arebeneficial to export businesses in Enugu metropolis.

**1.4 Research Questions**

This study seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the types of export products that are exported by organizations in Enugu metropolis are involved?
2. What are the various forms of government regulations on export business in Enugu metropolis?
3. What are the reasons for government regulations on export business in Enugu metropolis?
4. To what extent does government regulation affect export business in Enugu metropolis?
5. How have government regulations benefited export business in Enugu metropolis?

**1.5 Hypothesis of the study**

In carrying out this study, the following hypotheses would be tested.

1. **H**o: There are no export product that are exported by organization in Enugu metropolis.
2. **H**o: government regulations have no effect on export business in Enugu metropolis.
3. **H**o: The various forms of government regulations on export business in Enugu metropolis are insignificant.
4. **H0:** Government regulations have not benefited export business in Enugu metropolis.

**1.6 Significance of the study**

**First, government and its agencies:** The Nigeria Export Promotion Commission (NEPC), Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEDAN) Agency of Nigeria would benefit from the findings of this research. It would bring to the fore the impact of policies/regulations on export business promoters in Nigeria, as it will enable them to identify the effect their various policies have on export business.

**Second, the students in Business Management and Economics,**it will benefit future researchers as it will serve as a reference point to their research.

Lastly, it will benefit various business organization that are into exportation as it will enable them to understand the effect government regulation has on their business.

**1.7 Scope of the Study**

The scope of this study covers the effect of government regulations on export business in Enugu metropolis.

**1.8 Definition of terms**

**Government regulation:** Government regulation is a rule of order having the force of law, prescribed by a superior or competent authority relating to the actions of those under the authority’s control.

**Export:** Export means the sending of goods or services produced in one country to another country.

**Export Promotion:** Export promotion is the incentive programs designed to attract more firms into exporting by offering help in product and market identification and development, pre-shipment and post shiptment financing, payment guaranty schemes, trade fairs, trade visits, foreign representation, e.t.c

**Business:** Business is an organization or economic system where goods and services are exchanged for one another or for money.

**CHAPTER TWO**

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

**2.1 Introduction**

This chapter on literature review attempts to review the available literature on the effect of government regulations on export business in Enugu metropolis. It reviews the concept of trade liberation, export and as well as related theories and previous studies done in this area.

**2.2 Conceptual Framework**

**2.2.1 Trade Liberalization**

Trade liberalization or openness measures the international competitiveness of a country in the global market to measure trade openness; we use the addition of imports and exports over GDP. Increased openness facilitates greater integration into global markets. Trade openness is interpreted to include import, export taxes, exchange-rate policies, and domestic taxes and subsides, competition and other regulatory policies, education policies, the nature of the legal system, the form of government, and the general nature of institution and culture.

The relationship between trade openness and growth is a highly debated topic in the growth and development literature, yet this issue is far from being resolved. Some studies, include Rodriguez and Rodrik, which critically argued that trade policy variables are mostly uncorrelated with growth, while the trade shares can correlate with income levels and growth rates. Theoretical growth studies suggest very complex and different relationships between openness and growth and the empirical evidence is ambiguous. The growth theory supposes that “a country’s openness to world trade improves domestic technology, and hence an open economy grows faster than a closed economy through its impact on technological enhancement” (Harrison). He stressed further that openness to trade provides access to imported inputs, which embody new technology, increases the size of the market faced by the domestic producers, which raises the return to innovation, and facilitates a country’s specialization in research intensive production.

**2.2.2 Export**

Exports are the goods and services produced in one country and purchased by citizens of another country. It doesn't matter what the good or service is. It doesn't matter how it is sent. It can be shipped, sent by email, or carried in personal luggage on a plane. If it is produced domestically and sold to someone from a foreign country, it is an export (Kimberly, 2018).

An export is a function of international trade whereby goods produced in one country are shipped to another country for future sale or trade. The sale of such goods adds to the producing nation's gross output. Exports are one of the oldest forms of economic transfer and occur on a large scale between nations that have fewer restrictions on trade, such as tariffs or subsidies. Most of the largest companies operating in advanced economies derive a substantial portion of their annual revenues from exports to other countries. The ability to export goods helps an economy to grow. One of the core functions of diplomacy and foreign policy within governments is to foster economic trade for the benefit of all trading parties.  
Exports are a crucial component of a country’s economy. Exports facilitate international trade and stimulate domestic economic activity by creating employment, production, and revenues Investopedia, 2018).

**2.3 Models of Export –Led Growth**

The three main models of export-led growth. They include, the neo classical supply –side model, the balance of payments constrained model which is also branded as the Hicks super-multiplier model, and the virtuous circle model.

**2.3.1 Balance of Payments Constrained Growth Model**

The balance of payment is defined as a systematic record of all economic transactions between the residents of the country and residents of foreign countries during a certain period of time. A country’s balance of payments equilibrium growth rate can be modelled by stating the balance of payments equilibrium condition specifying multiplicative (constant elasticity) import and export demand functions in which imports and exports are a function of domestic and foreign income, respectively, and of relative prices, and substituting these functions in the equilibrium conditions.

**2.3.2 Virtuous Circle Models of Export-Led Growth**

These models provide a challenge to both orthodox growth theory and trade theory which predict the long run convergence of living standards across the world. In neoclassical growth theory, capital is assumed to be subject to diminishing returns so that rich countries should grow slower than poor countries for the same amount of investment undertaken.

**2.4 How Exports Affect the Economy**

Most countries want to increase their exports. Their companies want to sell more. If they've sold all they can to their own country's population, then they want to sell overseas as well. The more they export, the greater their competitive advantage. That's because they gain expertise in producing the goods and services. They also gain knowledge about how to sell to foreign markets.Governments encourage exports. That's because it increases jobs, brings in higher wages and raises the standard of living for residents. They become happier and more likely to support their national leaders.

Exports also increase the foreign exchange reserves held in the nation's central bank. That's because foreigners pay for exports either in their own currency or the U.S. dollar. A country with large reserves can use it to manage their own currency's value. They have enough foreign currency to flood the market with their own currency. That lowers the cost of their exports in other countries.  
Countries also use currency reserves to manage liquidity. That means they can better control inflation, which is too much money chasing too few goods. To control inflation, they use the foreign currency to purchase their own currency. That decreases the money supply, making the local currency worth more.

**2.5 How Countries Support Exports**

There are several ways countries try to increase exports.

First, they use trade protectionism to give their industries an advantage. This usually consists of tariffs that raise the prices of imports. They also provide subsidies on their own industries to lower prices. But once they start doing this, other countries retaliate with the same measures. Over time, it lowers trade for everyone. In fact, this was one of the causes of the Great Depression.  
Once tariffs and subsidies have lowered trade, countries will negotiate trade agreements. It allows greater exports by reducing trade protectionism. The World Trade Organization tried to negotiate an agreement between almost all the nations in the world. It almost succeeded, until the European Union and the United States refused to eliminate their farm subsidies. Now, most countries must rely on bilateral trade agreements or regional agreements.

Countries will also try to lower the value of their currency. This increases exports by making their prices lower. They do this by lowering interest rates, printing more currency or buying up foreign currency to make its value higher. Countries that try to compete by devaluing their currencies are accused of being in currency wars

**2.6 Theoretical Framework**

The term international trade has been defined as trade across the frontiers; that is, with the rest of the world. It has been argued that it plays a prominent role in promoting economic growth and productivity in particular, and these debates have been ongoing since several decades ago. Furthermore, it has been revealed that internationally active countries tend to be more productive than countries which only produce for the domestic market. As a result of liberalization and globalization a country’s economy has become much more closely associated with external factors such as openness. The benefit of international trade for economic growth and development are difficult to understate. Imports bring additional competition and variety to domestic markets, benefiting consumers; and exports enlarge markets for domestic production, benefiting business. Trade exposes domestic firms to the best practices of foreign firms and to the demand of discerning customers, encouraging greater efficiency. Trade gives firms access to improved capital inputs such as machine tools, boosting productivity and providing new opportunities for growth to developing countries. International trade deals with the economic and financial interdependences among nations; international trade is part of our daily life, and international trade plays a vital role in shaping economic and social performance and prospects of countries around the world, especially those of developing countries. No country has grown without trade. However, the contribution of international trade to economic growth depends on a great deal on the context in which it works and the objective it serves.

The impact of international trade on economic growth in Nigeria has generated large volume of empirical studies with mixed findings using cross sectional, time series and panel data. International trade is generally believed to be positively related with growth (Adam Smith, 1776). This idea prevailed until World War II. More precisely, it is held that appropriate trade policies in particular circumstances can be used to stimulate economic growth and development. Therefore, this section of the study seeks to review relevant empirical studies that have examined the impact of international trade in the actualization of sustainable growth and development.

However, differing opinion have indeed continued to emerge on how international trade can affect economic activities. The genesis of these controversies has been traced to the theoretical exposition of Adam Smith and David Ricardo. Adam Smith first described the principle of absolute advantage in the context of international trade, using labor as the only input, since absolute advantage is determined by a simple comparison of labour productivities; it is possible for a party to have no absolute advantage in anything, in that case, according to the theory of absolute advantage, no trade will occur with the other party. The principle of absolute advantage is the ability of a party (an individual, or firm, or country) to produce more of a good product or service than competitors, using the same amount of resources. David Ricardo was opposed to tariffs and other restrictions on international trade. Ricardo devised an idea that is well known as the theory of comparative advantage Henderson 827 (2009), Fesfeid 325 (2006).

In addition to the controversies among the different schools of thought on the possible linkage between international trade and economic growth, efforts have been made by researchers to authenticate or refute the arguments of these prominent schools of thought. Khan and Zahler (2010) assert that trade can promote growth from supply side, but, if the balance of payments worsens due to fall in price in countries tradable growth rate may be adversely affected from the demand side because the payment deficit resulting from liberalization on sustainable growth rate cannot be easily corrected by relative price of non-tradable or real exchange rate adjustments.

Rodrick (2005) asserts that growth performance of those Asian countries that gained from open trade can be attributed to how they managed key macroeconomic shocks rather than trade policy alone. Rodriquez and Rodrick (2000) argued that trade policy does affect the volume of trade, but there is no strong reason to expect the effect of growth to be quantitatively similar to the consequences of change in trade volumes that arise as reductions in transport cause or increases in world demand. Trade restrictions should represent policy responses to real or perceived market imperfections or are used as mechanism for rent extraction. They believed that trade policy works differently from natural or geographical barriers to trade and other exogenous determinants. In other stimulating study,

Weisbrot and Baker (2002) argued that trade may not be the only key to rapid economic growth and development. They noted that the success of some countries that experienced accelerated growth did not follow simple path to trade liberalization because the government directs the economy through the use of subsidies. However, there are many arguments as regards trade and growth; one suggests that international trade improves resources allocation in the short run or raises growth rate permanently. There are other arguments that suggest the contrary. Shafaeddin (2005) posits that trade is necessary when an industry reaches a certain level of maturity provided it is undertaken gradually and selectively.

In addition, the policy is often implemented along with the devaluation of currency in order to make the exports of the devaluation country's export cheaper and is of good quality it tends to sell more internationally there by encouraging growth and development Agbeyegbe (2006), Wolde Mariam (2006), and Obadan (2006). The ultimate aim is to remove taxes on exports which will encourage further exportation of goods and services that will further encourage growth and development, restriction on imports and reduction of imports tariffs. Sachs and Warner (2012) using cross-country growth model argued that trade liberalization leads to higher growth rates in poorer countries than in richer countries. In support of this,

Ajayi (2003) reports that the removal of barriers to trade has increased the flow of trade by 16 percent fold in the last 50 years, with the world exports of goods and services almost tripled in real terms between 1970 and year 2000. However, the share of developing countries or third world countries contribution to world trade is still very low because their exports are predominantly primary products which do not contribute much to GDP of such countries compared to trade on manufactured or finished goods. Greenway, Morgan and Write (2002) having carried an empirical study on the impact of international trade on 70 developing countries found a significant positive relationship between trade and economic growth, i.e., international trade is a bedrock for economic growth. Frankel and Roma (2004) and Irwin and Tervio (2002) in their separate and independent studies also suggested that countries that are more open to trade tends to experience higher growth rates and per-capita income than closed economy.

Klanow and Rodriguez-Clare (2007) used general equilibrium model to establish that the greater number of intermediate input combination results in productivity gain and higher output, despite using the same capital labour input which exhibits the economies increasing international trade return to scale. Kavousssi (2007), after he studied middle and low income developing countries, he found out that the high rate of economic growth was strongly correlated with high rate of export growth. He observed that there is a positive correlation between exports and economic growth for both middle and low income countries but the effects tend to diminish according to the level of economic development of the country. Obadan (2001) also writes on the impact of export instability on the economic development of Nigeria, during 1960-1977. More importantly, the study examines whether or not fluctuations in Nigeria’s export earnings have adverse effects on the economy. The results of the study using multivariate analysis as the frame work, confirm the hypothesis that export instability is an important obstacle to Nigeria’s economic development. In particular, export instability is found to be highly detrimental to the growth rate of investment as well as resulting in smaller proportions of national income being invested. The result also supports the claim that Nigeria’s economic growth is export led. Similarly, Akerele (2004), with the use of appropriate quantitative techniques, he identified sources of instability in export earnings for the Nigeria economy for the period of 17years (1980-1997). He observed that both political and economic factors were the major sources of instability in Nigeria’s export earnings. The influence of political factors on export earnings is not surprising, since the period of study coincided with the imposition of various sanction on Nigeria for failing to adopt western-style democracy.

Ogbokor (2001) analyzed the macroeconomic impact of oil exports on the economy of Nigeria. With the use of OLS technique, he observed that economic growth reacted in an expected way to changes in the variables used in the study. He also found that 10% increase in oil exports would lead to 5.2% increase in economic growth. He concluded that export-oriented strategies should be given a more practical support. Michaely (2013) focused his attention on the improvement between the rate of growth of export and GDP. He found out that the correlation between rates of growth of the economy is particularly strong among the countries with successful growth experience. Asher (2009) outlined that more than 80% of the foreign exchange of the less developed countries is earned through exports of goods and services. Massel et al (2005) investigated the pattern of economic growth of some selected less developing countries using regression methods. They observed a high degree of association between exports and economic growth. They suggested that countries should aim at 2.5% expansion in export activities to obtain 1% increase in economic performance.

**2.7 Theories Framework**

**2.7.1 Heckscher–Ohlin Trade Theory**

The heckscher-ohlin model (H-O model) is a general equilibrium mathematical model of international trade, developed by Eli Heckscher and Bertil Ohlin at the Stockholm School of Economics. It builds on David Ricardo’s theory of comparative advantage by predicting patterns of commerce and production based on the factor endowments of trading region.

**2.7.2 Theory of Customs Unions and Free Trade Areas**

Free trade area is a form of economic union in which all members of the group remove tariffs on each other’s products, while at the same time each member retain its independence in establishing trading policies with non-members (De Melo, Panagariya and Rodick).

**2.7.3 Mercantilist Trade Theory**

Mercantilist theory was formulated in 16th to 18th century by Antorio Serra, David Hume, Von Hornick, Josiah Child and many more in Western Europe mainly in France and England. Mercantilist theory stated that national wealth should be increased through trade.

This theory identifies the fact that a country can only be rich and be powerful if it ensures that its export is more than its import. Other propagandists of this theory are Jean Baptiste Colbert and Thomas Hobbes. It was understood then, that, the most important way in which a country could be rich was by acquiring precious metals such as gold. This was achieved by ensuring that the volume of export was better than the volume of import. The mercantilists believe that an economy will grow if can achieve three objectives which are: “Bullionism, self-sufficiency and Colonialism”. The three objectives formed the central teaching or thought of the mercantilists. Nation seeking to grow and expand should keep on acquiring bullions (precious metals). The volume it is able to acquire defines its speed of growth and affluence. Such economy should also rely heavily on the production and exportation of goods so as to acquire these bullions. Little attention should be paid to importation as this will deplete its stock of precious metals. They also suggested that such economy should source for weak economies, colonize and use them as a market for its wares. It should exploit such economies by obtaining cheap raw material from them which it will in turn transport to its domestic economy to refine. After production, it should sell such commodities to the same victim economy at higher prices so as to build its bullion stock.

However, this ideology later collapsed as other economy later started to benefit more from its proponent’s economy. As mercantilist proponents continued to acquire more bullions, it later turned out that other economies found their import goods expensive to buy but there was easy to export to. This led to detoriating trade balance for the adherent economies. Thus, it was said that Mercantilist planted a seed of its own destruction.

**2.7.4 The Absolute Advantage Theory**

This theory was propounded by Adam Smith in his 1776 publication: “An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations”. As a criticism against mercantilism, the theory advocates free trade for the nations of the world (Nageri et. al,2013). This theory uses a two by two by two (2\*2\*2) model, i.e. there are two countries involved in the trading of two commodities and using only two factors of production; labour and capital. The theory says that a country should export products in which it is more productive than other countries; that is, goods for which it can produce more output per unit of input than others can (i.e. in which it has an absolute advantage) while importing those goods where it is less productive than other countries (i.e. in which it has an absolute disadvantage).Absolute advantage means the ability of a country to produce a larger quantity of a good with the same amount of resources as another country. The country’s absolute advantage may be due to the nature of its resources or to its production skills. According to Smith, each nation benefits by specializing in the production of the good that it produces at a lower cost than the other nation, while importing the good that it produces at a higher cost. This will increase specialization, world output and the gains from trade.

According to this theory, foreign trade is a positive-sum game, because both countries involved will benefit from the trade. Thus, a nation need not gain at the expense of other nations, as all nations could gain simultaneously (Sylvester &Aiyelabola, 2012, Adenugba and Dipo,2013).However, there arises the question of whether or not to trade when one of the two countries trading has an absolute advantage in the production of the two commodities. Should trade still take place when one partner can produce both commodities more efficiently than the other partner? The theory failed to answer this question satisfactorily and that gave rise to Ricardo’s theory of Comparative Advantage.

**2.7.5 Comparative Cost Advantage Theory**

This theory was put forward by David Ricardo in 1817 because he was dissatisfied with the looseness in Smith’s theory (Carbaugh, 2004) as quoted in Adenugba and Dipo (2013).According to Ricardo's theory of comparative advantage, even if a nation has an absolute cost disadvantage in the production of both goods, there still exists a basis for mutually beneficial trade. The less efficient nation should specialize in the production and exportation of the good in which it is relatively less inefficient (where its absolute disadvantage is least) while the more efficient nation should specialize in the production and exportation of the good in which it is relatively more efficient (where its absolute advantage is greatest).

This theory proved to be better than Smith’s absolute advantage theory because it is possible for a nation not to have an absolute advantage in anything but it is not possible for one nation to have a comparative advantage in everything and the other nation to have a comparative advantage in nothing. That is because comparative advantage depends on relative costs.

Nageriet. al. (2013) added that this theory, advocated by David Ricardo attempt to answer the question of a situation where a country has absolute advantage in production of two or more goods, will trade still be profitable with other countries? Ricardo demonstrated that external trade arises not from differences in absolute advantage but from difference in comparative advantage. They further argued that Ricardian theory is unrealistic because it is based on labour theory of values which states that the price or the values of a commodity is equal to or can be inferred by the quality of labour time going into its production process, despite the disadvantages of the theory of comparative advantage, the theory is found applicable in the study of economics.

**2.7.6 Neoclassical trade theory**

Neoclassical trade theory predicts convergence through the assumption of factor price equalization. From the foregoing, we can conclude that trade liberalization does not necessarily imply faster export growth, but in practical terms, the two appear to be highly correlated.

**2.8 Empirical Review**

In a research conducted by Ramsey, (2013) on the impact of international trade on economic growth of Nigeria, using simple OLS method. He found out that international trade and economic growth are positively related.

Analyzing empirical assessment of economic influence of international trade on domestic investment in Nigeria, Ohlim, (2012) adopted multiple regression with the use of (OLS) techniques. His empirical result indicates that international and domestic investment has a positive functional relationship with economic growth. Ohlim’s argument based on his findings is that though international discourages domestic investment yet it encourages price decrease.

In a research conducted by Rodan, (2014) on international and economic growth in Nigeria, using OLS techniques. He found out that international has a negative relationship with economic growth but caution that the overall effect of international on economic growth may be significant with respect to Nigeria economic environment.

Singler (2015), empirical analyses between international and economic growth of Nigeria, using a bivariate VAR modeling technique. He found evidence of a negative international led growth in Nigeria.

Lewis, (2016) conducted a research on the impact of international trade on economic growth in Nigeria. He found a positive functional relationship between international trade and economic growth in Nigeria. He used the Johansen co-integration framework and a multivariate VAR within a vector error correction model. Found evidence of a long-run equilibrium relationship between economic growth and international.

According to Peroux, (2014) a research conducted on the impact of international trade on economic growth in Nigeria. He used the simple regression applying Ordinary Least-squares (OLS) techniques. He found that international trade has a positive relationship with economic growth in Nigeria.

In a research conducted by Frank, (2013) on international and private domestic investment on economic growth he used multiple regression applied ordinary least-squares (OLS) techniques. He found a positive relationship between international and private domestic investment but experienced a negative relationship between inflation and economic growth in Nigeria.

Adesanya (2012) examined the impact of trade on economic growth in Nigeria using data from 1980 to 2010. Adopting Ordinary Least Square (OLS) technique, the study showed that trade, foreign direct investment, government expenditure and exchange rate have a significant positive impact on economic growth. Saibu (2012) investigated the direct and interactive effects of capital inflow, trade openness and economic growth using data from Nigeria over the period 1960 to 2011. The study employed the composite indicator derived from principal component analysis (PCA) in the Autoregressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) bound testing model. It found statistically significant effect of capital inflow and trade on economic growth. The study further provided new evidence in support of the modernization hypothesis that capital inflow and trade policy are complementary and growth enhancing in developing economies like Nigeria and that trade liberalization policies tend to enhance effectiveness of capital inflow and jointly promote higher economic growth in Nigeria.

Emeka, Frederick and Peter (2012) evaluated the role of trade on Nigeria’s economy for the period 1970 to 2008. By applying a combination of bi-variate and multivariate models, the relationships between the selected macroeconomic variables was estimated. The findings indicated that exports and foreign direct investment inflows have positive and significant impact on economic growth. The study suggested that there should be congruence of exports and fiscal policies, towards a greater diversification of non-oil exports by the Nigerian government in order to attain the desired growth prospects of external trade.

Adelowokan and Maku (2013) examined the effect of trade and financial investment openness on economic growth in Nigeria between 1960 and 2011. Estimates from the reported dynamic regression model indicated that trade openness and foreign investment exert positive and negative effect on economic growth respectively. Also, the partial adjustment term, fiscal deficit, inflation and lending rate were found growth increasing. It was evidenced that long-run relationship exists among trade openness, foreign investment, and economic growth in Nigeria.

Edoumiekumo and Opukri (2013) examined the contributions of international trade (proxy with export and import values) to economic growth in Nigeria measured by real gross domestic product (RGDP). Time-series data obtained for a period of 27years was analyzed using Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) test, Ordinary Least Square (OLS) statistical technique, Johansen co-integration test and Granger Causality test. The results showed that positive relationship exists between the variables and there is co-integration among the variables. The Granger Causality test realized a uni-directional relationship showing that RGDP Granger cause export and import Granger cause RGDP and export.

Li, Chen and San (2010) conducted a research on the relationship between foreign trade and the GDP growth of East China for a period 1981-2008. Adopting the unit root test, co-integration analysis and error correction model, they found out that foreign trade is the long-term and short-term reason of GDP growth, but no evidence proved that there exists long-term stationary causality between import trade and GDP.

Javed, Qaiser, Mushtaq, Saif-ullaha and Iqbal (2012), examined the impact of total exports to GDP ratio, import to GDP, terms of trade, trade openness, investment to GDP ratio and inflation on the Paskitani economy using time-series data from1973-2010. Employing Chow test and Ordinary Least Square method, the estimated results revealed that all the explanatory variables have positive and significant impact on Pakistan. The study further discovered that an increase in the import of raw-materials boosted production, employment and output of Pakistan.

Akanni (2007) also examined the exports and economic growth nexus in Indonesia employing vector autoregressive(VAR) model. The findings indicate the significance of both exports and economic growth to economy of Indonesia as indicated in GIRF analysis. It was concluded that exports and economic growth exhibits bi-directional cause structure, which is Export Led Growth in long-run and Growth Led Export in short-run.

Gemechu (2002), using co-integration and error correction approach in the regression analysis, examines the policies sand test for the relationship between export and economic growth. The result shows that export significantly affected Domestic Product per Capital estimated around $3,500 person (Nigeria economy).

Erfani (1999) examined the causal relationship between economic performance and exports over the period of 1965to 1995 for several developing countries in Asia and Latin America. The result showed the significant positive relationship between export and economic growth. This study also provides the evidence about the hypothesis that exports lead to higher output.

Lin (2003) stated that ten percent increase in exports cause one percent increase in GDP in the 1990s in China on the basis of new proposed estimation method, when both direct and indirect contributions are considered.

Shiraz (2004) studied the short run and long run relationship among real export, real import and economic growth on the basis of co-integration and multivariate Granger causality for the period 1960 to 2003. This study showed a long-run relationship among import, export and economic growth and found unidirectional causality from export to output but did not find any significant causality between import and export

**2.9Research gap**

Rodan, (2010),on his analysis failed to use the modern software (Eviews) for running time series regression analysis hence his work is subjected to error of computation. In my analysis, I adopted OLS techniques with (Eview 8.0) to analyse the data.

Peroux, (2012) findings lack fact because the interpretation of his findings does not tally with his theoretical a priori expectation, this can be an error from data computation.

Lewis, (2005), the years captured in his analysis is outdated. To fill the gap, the researcher captured 2015 time series data for the analysis. The research adopted multiple regression OLS techniques for the computation of the results.

**CHAPTER THREE**

**RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

**3.1 Introduction**

This section concerns itself on the investigator’s scope of procedural strategies to be employed in the research. These include; research design, sources of data collection, tools for data collection, the population of the study, validity and reliability of the data and test instruments, data analysis technique.

**3.2 Research Design**

This study adopted a survey research design to answer the research questions of this study. The researcher selected a survey research design since primary data are collected using questionnaire from which the hypotheses were tested.

**3.3 Sources of Data Collection**

**Primary Source of Data:** questionnaire and interview method

**Secondary Source of Data:** Journals, Newspaper and magazine

**3.4 Tools for Data Collection**

The researcher collected relevant data through a self structured questionnaire. The questionnaire solicited information from respondents on the subject matter:

Section A: was designed to elicit information on demographic variables while section B: was centered on the effect of government regulations on export business in Enugu Metropolis.

**3.5 Population of the Study**

The population of the study consist some staff (workers) working at Ministry of trade and investment Enugu, the total number of staff working at Ministry of trade and investment is calculated to be 202 workers (Source: Ministry of trade and investment Enugu branch)

**3.6 Sample and Sampling Techniques**

The sampling techniques used in determining the sample size is a simple randomly sampling techniques and the mathematical formula is written bellow



Where: n= Desired sample size

N= the entire population

e= level of significance or limit of tolerable error assumed to be 5% or 0.05

I= unit, constant figure

Therefore

N=

n= 

n= 

n= 

n= 

n= 134.22

n= 134

**3.7 Instruments for data collection:**

The instrument used in this work to collect data was questionnaire which consist of two main section

Section A: was designed to elicit information on demographic variables while section B: was centered on the effect of government regulations on export business in Enugu Metropolis.

**3.8 Reliability of Instruments**

Reliability of the instruments was carried out in order to find out whether the measures of the research instrument yield the same results on other occasions (M & M, 2008) Therefore, to ensure reliability, this study used Test-restest reliability method to measure the stability and reliability of the study. Test-retest reliability is a measure of reliability obtained by administering the same test twice over a period of time to a group of individuals. The scores from time 1 and time 2 can then be correlated in order to evaluate the test for stability over time.

**3.9 Validity of instruments**

Validity is the degree to which the empirical measure or several measures of the concept accurately measure the concept (Kothari, 2008). It is essentially concerned with establishing whether the questionnaire content is measuring what it supposed to measure. For the purpose of this study the content validity was done through usual face and content validity usually done by the supervisor.

**3.9 Data analysis technique**

The data collected for this study was through questionnaire and oral interviews were analyzed using percentage and frequency. The hypotheses will be analyzed using Carl Pearson Product Moment Correlation analysis.

**CHAPTER FOUR**

**PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA**

**4.1 Introduction**

This chapter deals with the presentation, analysis and interpretation of data collected from the respondents in the course of carrying out the research. The responses were converted into scores and percentage distribution.

* 1. **Presentation of data**

This section deals with the analysis of the responses from the respondents in Enugu Metropolis, which made up our sample size. The researcher administered 134 copies of the questionnaire of which 115 copies were returned, 9 of the questionnaire were badly filled while 10 were not returned and the usable questionnaire are 115, therefore the sample size that will be used for this study is 115.

**4.3 Analysis of Data**

The survey method was used to elicit data from the respondents. Tabular presentations were used to aid the understanding of the data analysis and interpretation using (SPSS) while the hypothesis was tested using correlation analysis was tested using t-test analysis. Carl Person Product Moment Correlation analysis was chosen based on the available questionnaire administered and returned.

**Respondents’ Demographic Characteristics**

The following tabular analysis of the data got on the respondents’ demographic characteristics through the copies of questionnaire administered to the respondents by the researcher.

**Table 4.3.1**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Gender** | | | | | |
|  | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | Male | 65 | 56.5 | 56.5 | 56.5 |
| Female | 50 | 43.5 | 43.5 | 100.0 |
| Total | 115 | 100.0 | 100.0 |  |

***Source: Field survey 2018 [SPSS COMPUTATION]***

The table of values showing the gender distribution of the respondents, from the result, it can be ascertain that 65 (56.5%) of the respondents are male, while 50 (43.5%) of the respondents are female. Hence we conclude that majority of the respondents are female.

**Table 4.3.2**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Marital status** | | | | | |
|  | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | Married | 40 | 34.8 | 34.8 | 34.8 |
| Single | 25 | 21.7 | 21.7 | 56.5 |
| divorced | 5 | 4.3 | 4.3 | 60.9 |
| widow | 20 | 17.4 | 17.4 | 78.3 |
| widower | 15 | 13.0 | 13.0 | 91.3 |
| separated | 10 | 8.7 | 8.7 | 100.0 |
| Total | 115 | 100.0 | 100.0 |  |

***Source: Field survey 2018 [SPSS COMPUTATION]***

The table which is descriptive table of values showing the Marital Status of the respondents, from the result, it can be ascertain that Married respondent are 40(34.8%), single respondents are 25(21.7%), divorced respondents are 5(4.3%), widow respondents are 20(17.4%) while widower respondent are 15(13.0%) and separated respondents are 10(8.7%). Hence we conclude that majority of the respondents are Married.

**Table 4.3.3**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Age** | | | | | |
|  | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | 22 - 27yrs | 15 | 13.0 | 13.0 | 13.0 |
| 28 - 33yrs | 19 | 16.5 | 16.5 | 29.6 |
| 34 - 39yrs | 28 | 24.3 | 24.3 | 53.9 |
| 40 - 45yrs | 17 | 14.8 | 14.8 | 68.7 |
| 46 - 51yrs | 15 | 13.0 | 13.0 | 81.7 |
| 52 - 57yrs | 11 | 9.6 | 9.6 | 91.3 |
| 58yrs and above | 10 | 8.7 | 8.7 | 100.0 |
| Total | 115 | 100.0 | 100.0 |  |

***Source: Field survey 2018 [SPSS COMPUTATION]***

The table descriptive values shows that out of the age blanket, 15 (13.0%) of the respondents are 22 - 27years, 19 (16.5%) of the respondents are 28 – 33 years, 28 (24.3%) of the respondents are 34 – 39 years, whereas 17(14.8%) of the respondents are 40 – 45, 15 (13.0%) of the respondent are 46 – 51years, 11(9.6%) of the respondents are 52 – 57years and 10(8.7%) of the respondents are 58 years and above. it can be firmly ascertain that majority of the respondents are 34 – 39 years.

**Table 4.3.4**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Working experience in the organization** | | | | | |
|  | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | 0 - 5yrs | 20 | 17.4 | 17.4 | 17.4 |
| 6 - 11yrs | 35 | 30.4 | 30.4 | 47.8 |
| 12 - 17yrs | 25 | 21.7 | 21.7 | 69.6 |
| 18 - 23 yrs | 15 | 13.0 | 13.0 | 82.6 |
| 24 - 29yrs | 12 | 10.4 | 10.4 | 93.0 |
| 30yrs and above | 8 | 7.0 | 7.0 | 100.0 |
| Total | 115 | 100.0 | 100.0 |  |

***Source: Field survey 2018 [SPSS COMPUTATION]***

Table 4.3.5 which is descriptive table of values, from the result, it can be ascertain that 20(17.4%) of the respondents are 0 -5 years , 35(30.4%) of the respondent are 6-11 years, 25(21.7%) of the respondent are 12-17 years while 15 (13.0%) of the respondents are 18-23years, whiles12(10.4%) of the respondent, 8(7.0%) of the respondent are 30years and above. Hence we conclude that majority of the respondents have worked in the organization for about 6-11years.

**Table 4.3.5**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Educational qualification** | | | | | |
|  | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | ND/NCE | 10 | 8.7 | 8.7 | 8.7 |
| BA/B.Sc/HND | 50 | 43.5 | 43.5 | 52.2 |
| M.Sc/MA/MBA/MED | 40 | 34.8 | 34.8 | 87.0 |
| Ph.D | 15 | 13.0 | 13.0 | 100.0 |
| Total | 115 | 100.0 | 100.0 |  |

***Source: Field survey 2018 [SPSS COMPUTATION]***

The table above shows that 10(8.7%) respondents are ND/NCE holder, 50(43.5%) respondents are BA/B.Sc/HND holder 40(34.8%) respondents are M.Sc/MA/MBA/MED holder, 15(13.0%) respondents are Ph.D. From the result majority of respondent are BA/B.Sc/HND holders.

**Table 4.3.6**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Position held in the organization** | | | | | |
|  | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | Clerk | 20 | 17.4 | 17.4 | 17.4 |
| Operator | 30 | 26.1 | 26.1 | 43.5 |
| Supervisor | 40 | 34.8 | 34.8 | 78.3 |
| Manger | 5 | 4.3 | 4.3 | 82.6 |
| Second Manger | 10 | 8.7 | 8.7 | 91.3 |
| General Manager | 8 | 7.0 | 7.0 | 98.3 |
| CEO | 2 | 1.7 | 1.7 | 100.0 |
| Total | 115 | 100.0 | 100.0 |  |

***Source: Field survey 2018 [SPSS COMPUTATION]***

Table 4.3.6 which is descriptive table of values, from the result, it can be ascertain that 20(17.4%) of the respondents are Clerk, 30(26.1%) of the respondents are operators, 40(34.8) of the respondents are Supervisors, 5(4.3%) of the respondents are Manager, 10(8.7%) of the respondents are Second Manager, 8(7.0%) of the respondents are General Manger while 2(1.7%) of the respondents are CEO. Hence we conclude that majority of the respondents are Supervisor.

**4.4 Presentation and Analysis of Data Answering Research Questions**

**RESEARCH QUESTION ONE**

What are the types of export products the organizations in Enugu metropolis are involved?

**Table 4.4.1**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Raw natural resources (eg coal and Timber)** | | | | | |
|  | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | strongly agree | 30 | 26.1 | 26.1 | 26.1 |
| Agree | 70 | 60.9 | 60.9 | 87.0 |
| no opinion | 5 | 4.3 | 4.3 | 91.3 |
| Disagree | 7 | 6.1 | 6.1 | 97.4 |
| strongly disagree | 3 | 2.6 | 2.6 | 100.0 |
| Total | 115 | 100.0 | 100.0 |  |

***Source: Field survey 2018 [SPSS COMPUTATION]***

The table above shows the result of the respondents 30 (26.1%) respondents strongly agree, 70 (60.9%) of the respondents agree, 5 (4.3%)of the respondents no opinion while 7(6.1%)of the respondent disagree, whereas 3 (2.6%) of the respondents strongly disagree. From the result, majority of the respondents Agree. Therefore, we conclude that Raw natural resources are types of export products.

**Table 4.4.2**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Automobiles (eg, Innoson vehicles).** | | | | | |
|  | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | strongly agree | 12 | 10.4 | 34.8 | 34.8 |
| agree | 8 | 7.0 | 43.5 | 78.3 |
| no opinion | 5 | 4.3 | 4.3 | 82.6 |
| disagree | 50 | 43.5 | 10.4 | 93.0 |
| strongly disagree | 40 | 34.8 | 7.0 | 100.0 |
| Total | 115 | 100.0 | 100.0 |  |

***Source: Field survey 2018 [SPSS COMPUTATION]***

From the result of the table above, it can be ascertain that 12 (10.4%) affirmed strongly agree, 8 (7.0%) of the respondents affirmed agree, 5 (4.3%) affirmed no opinion 50(43.5%) of the respondents affirmed disagree, whereas 40 (34.8%) of the respondents affirmed strongly disagree. From the result, majority of the respondents affirmed agree. Hence we conclude that the statement above is not the types of goods exported.

**Table 4.4.3**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Agricultural Products: Cash crops (eg, Palm produce, yam, coco-yam, ).** | | | | | |
|  | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | strongly agree | 65 | 56.5 | 56.5 | 56.5 |
| agree | 25 | 21.7 | 21.7 | 78.3 |
| no opinion | 5 | 4.3 | 4.3 | 82.6 |
| disagree | 12 | 10.4 | 10.4 | 93.0 |
| strongly disagree | 8 | 7.0 | 7.0 | 100.0 |
| Total | 115 | 100.0 | 100.0 |  |

***Source: Field survey 2018 [SPSS COMPUTATION]***

The information supplied in the above table indicates that 65(56.5%) respondents affirmed strongly agree, 25 (21.7%) respondents affirmed agree, 5 (4.3%) respondents affirmed no opinion , 12 (10.4%) respondents affirmed disagree while 8 (7.0%) respondents affirmed strongly disagree. This shows that the majority of the respondent agree. Hence we conclude that Agricultural products: cash crop is export product.

**Table 4.4.4**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Agricultural Products: fruit and vegetable (cashew, mango, pepper )** | | | | | |
|  | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | strongly agree | 15 | 13.0 | 13.0 | 13.0 |
| agree | 20 | 17.4 | 17.4 | 30.4 |
| no opinion | 39 | 33.9 | 33.9 | 64.3 |
| disagree | 17 | 14.8 | 14.8 | 79.1 |
| strongly disagree | 24 | 20.9 | 20.9 | 100.0 |
| Total | 115 | 100.0 | 100.0 |  |

***Source: Field survey 2018 [SPSS COMPUTATION]***

The table above table indicates that 15 (13.0%) respondents affirmed strongly agree, 20 (17.4%) respondents affirmed agree, 39 (33.9%) respondents affirmed No opinion, 17 (14.8%) respondents affirmed disagree while 24 (20.9%) respondents affirmed strongly disagree. This shows that the majority of the respondents affirmed no opinion.

**RESEARCH QUESTION TWO**

What are the various forms of government regulations on export business in Enugu Metropolis?

**Table 4.4.5**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Export prohibition and control** | | | | | |
|  | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | strongly agree | 40 | 34.8 | 34.8 | 34.8 |
| agree | 50 | 43.5 | 43.5 | 78.3 |
| no opinion | 5 | 4.3 | 4.3 | 82.6 |
| disagree | 12 | 10.4 | 10.4 | 93.0 |
| strongly disagree | 8 | 7.0 | 7.0 | 100.0 |
| Total | 115 | 100.0 | 100.0 |  |

***Source: Field survey 2018 [SPSS COMPUTATION]***

The data presented in the table above shows that 40 respondents, representing (34.8%) affirmed strongly agree, 50 respondents representing (43.5%) affirmed agree, 5 respondents representing (10.4%) affirmed No opinion, 12 respondents representing (10.4%) affirmed disagree while 8 respondents representing (7.0%) affirmed strongly disagree. This shows that the majority of the respondents agree. Hence we conclude that Export prohibition and control is form of government regulation on export business.

**Table 4.4.6**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Directives on Export Taxes, Charges and Levies** | | | | | |
|  | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | strongly agree | 50 | 43.5 | 43.5 | 43.5 |
| Agree | 30 | 26.1 | 26.1 | 69.6 |
| no opinion | 5 | 4.3 | 4.3 | 73.9 |
| Disagree | 15 | 13.0 | 13.0 | 87.0 |
| strongly disagree | 15 | 13.0 | 13.0 | 100.0 |
| Total | 115 | 100.0 | 100.0 |  |

***Source: Field survey 2018 [SPSS COMPUTATION]***

The table above shows that 50 respondents, representing (43.5%) affirmed strongly agree, 30 respondents representing (26.1%) affirmed agree, 5 respondents representing (4.3%) affirmed no opinion, 15 respondents representing (13.0%) affirmed disagree while 15 respondents representing (13.0%) affirmed strongly disagree. This shows that the majority of the respondents strongly agree. Hence we conclude that directives on export taxes, charges and levies are forms of government regulation on export business.

**Table 4.4.7**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Implementation of the local content act** | | | | | |
|  | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | strongly agree | 35 | 30.4 | 30.4 | 30.4 |
| Agree | 45 | 39.1 | 39.1 | 69.6 |
| no opinion | 15 | 13.0 | 13.0 | 82.6 |
| Disagree | 12 | 10.4 | 10.4 | 93.0 |
| strongly disagree | 8 | 7.0 | 7.0 | 100.0 |
| Total | 115 | 100.0 | 100.0 |  |

***Source: Field survey 2018 [SPSS COMPUTATION]***

In the table above, 35 respondents, representing (30.4%) affirmed strongly agree, 45 respondents representing (45.1%) affirmed agree, 15 respondents representing (13.0%) affirmed no opinion, 12 respondents representing (10.4%) affirmed disagree while 8 respondents representing (7.0%) affirmed strongly disagree. This shows that the majority of the respondent agree. Hence we conclude that implementation of the local content act is form of government regulation on export business.

**Table 4.4.8**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Issuance of Export Licenses to export companies** | | | | | |
|  | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | strongly agree | 31 | 27.0 | 27.0 | 27.0 |
| agree | 59 | 51.3 | 51.3 | 78.3 |
| no opinion | 5 | 4.3 | 4.3 | 82.6 |
| disagree | 12 | 10.4 | 10.4 | 93.0 |
| strongly disagree | 8 | 7.0 | 7.0 | 100.0 |
| Total | 115 | 100.0 | 100.0 |  |

***Source: Field survey 2018 [SPSS COMPUTATION]***

The table above shows the result of the respondents 31(27.0%) respondents strongly agree, 59(51.3%) of the respondents agree, 5 (4.3%)of the respondents no opinion while 12(10.4%)of the respondent disagree, whereas 8 (7.0%) of the respondents strongly disagree. From the result, majority of the respondents agree. Therefore, there is a strong indication that Issuance of Export licenses to export companies are forms of government regulation on export business.

**RESEARCH QUESTION THREE**

What are the reasons for government regulations on export business in Enugu Metropolis?

**Table 4.4.9**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Enhance the efficiency of export control administration.** | | | | | |
|  | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | strongly agree | 39 | 33.9 | 33.9 | 33.9 |
| Agree | 31 | 27.0 | 27.0 | 60.9 |
| no opinion | 10 | 8.7 | 8.7 | 69.6 |
| disagree | 20 | 17.4 | 17.4 | 87.0 |
| strongly disagree | 15 | 13.0 | 13.0 | 100.0 |
| Total | 115 | 100.0 | 100.0 |  |

***Source: Field survey 2018 [SPSS COMPUTATION]***

The information supplied in the above table indicates that 39 respondents, representing (33.9%) affirmed strongly agree, 31 respondents representing (27.0%) affirmed agree, 10 respondents representing (8.7%) affirmed no opinion, 20 respondents representing (17.4%) affirmed disagree while 15 respondents representing (13.0%) affirmed strongly disagree. This shows that the majority of the respondent agree. Hence we conclude that government regulation on export business enhances the efficiency of export control administration.

**Table 4.4.10**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Ensure compliance with the local content act by the exporting companies.** | | | | | |
|  | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | strongly agree | 55 | 47.8 | 47.8 | 47.8 |
| agree | 35 | 30.4 | 30.4 | 78.3 |
| no opinion | 5 | 4.3 | 4.3 | 82.6 |
| disagree | 12 | 10.4 | 10.4 | 93.0 |
| strongly disagree | 8 | 7.0 | 7.0 | 100.0 |
| Total | 115 | 100.0 | 100.0 |  |

***Source: Field survey 2018 [SPSS COMPUTATION]***

In the table above, 55 respondents, representing (47.8%) affirmed strongly agree, 35 respondents representing (30.4%) affirmed agree, 5 respondents representing (4.3%) affirmed no opinion, 12respondents representing (10.4%) affirmed disagree while 8 respondents representing (7.0%) affirmed strongly disagree. This shows that the majority of the respondents strongly agree. Hence we strongly agree that government regulation on export businessensure compliance with the local content act by the exporting companies.

**Table 4.4.11**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Reduce distortions of competition and ensure more level-playing field.** | | | | | |
|  | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | strongly agree | 31 | 27.0 | 27.0 | 27.0 |
| agree | 40 | 34.8 | 34.8 | 61.7 |
| no opinion | 11 | 9.6 | 9.6 | 71.3 |
| disagree | 19 | 16.5 | 16.5 | 87.8 |
| strongly disagree | 14 | 12.2 | 12.2 | 100.0 |
| Total | 115 | 100.0 | 100.0 |  |

***Source: Field survey 2018 [SPSS COMPUTATION]***

From the result of the table above, it can be ascertain that 31 (27.0%) affirmed strongly agree, 40(34.8%) of the respondents affirmed agree, 11 (9.6%) affirmed no opinion 19(16.5%) of the respondents affirmed disagree, whereas 14 (12.2%) of the respondents affirmed strongly disagree. From the result, majority of the respondents affirmed agree. Hence we conclude that

government regulation on export businessreduce distortions of competition and ensure more level-playing field.

**Table 4.4.12**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Reduce export control management costs, in particular for SMEs.** | | | | | |
|  | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | strongly agree | 50 | 43.5 | 43.5 | 43.5 |
| Agree | 31 | 27.0 | 27.0 | 70.4 |
| no opinion | 9 | 7.8 | 7.8 | 78.3 |
| Disagree | 14 | 12.2 | 12.2 | 90.4 |
| strongly disagree | 11 | 9.6 | 9.6 | 100.0 |
| Total | 115 | 100.0 | 100.0 |  |

***Source: Field survey 2018 [SPSS COMPUTATION]***

The data presented in the table above shows that 50 respondents, representing (43.5%) affirmed strongly agree, 31 respondents representing (7.8%) affirmed agree, 9 respondents representing (7.8%) affirmed No opinion, 14 respondents representing (12.2%) affirmed disagree while 11 respondents representing (11. 6%) affirmed strongly disagree. This shows that the majority of the respondents strongly agree. Hence we conclude that government regulation on export business reduce export control management costs, in particular for SMEs.

**RESEARCH QUESTION FOUR**

To what extent do government regulations affect export business in Enugu Metropolis?

**Table 4.4.13**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Decrease in sales due to sluggish export.** | | | | | |
|  | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | strongly agree | 19 | 16.5 | 16.5 | 16.5 |
| Agree | 41 | 35.7 | 35.7 | 52.2 |
| no opinion | 10 | 8.7 | 8.7 | 60.9 |
| Disagree | 25 | 21.7 | 21.7 | 82.6 |
| strongly disagree | 20 | 17.4 | 17.4 | 100.0 |
| Total | 115 | 100.0 | 100.0 |  |

***Source: Field survey 2018 [SPSS COMPUTATION]***

The information supplied in the above table indicates that 19 (16.5%) respondents affirmed strongly agree, 41(35.7%) respondents affirmed agree, 10 (8.7%) respondents affirmed no opinion , 25 (21.7%) respondents affirmed disagree while 20 (17.4%) respondents affirmed strongly disagree. This shows that the majority of the respondents agree. Hence we conclude that government regulation decrease in sales dues to sluggish export.

**Table 4.4.14**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Reduction in sales due to high export duties.** | | | | | |
|  | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | strongly agree | 39 | 33.9 | 33.9 | 33.9 |
| Agree | 51 | 44.3 | 44.3 | 78.3 |
| no opinion | 5 | 4.3 | 4.3 | 82.6 |
| Disagree | 12 | 10.4 | 10.4 | 93.0 |
| strongly disagree | 8 | 7.0 | 7.0 | 100.0 |
| Total | 115 | 100.0 | 100.0 |  |

***Source: Field survey 2018 [SPSS COMPUTATION]***

From the result of the table above, it can be ascertain that 39 (33.9%) affirmed strongly agree, 51(44.3%) of the respondents affirmed agree, 5(44.3%) affirmed no opinion 5(4.3%) of the respondents affirmed disagree, whereas 12(10.4%) of the respondents affirmed strongly disagree. From the result, majority of the respondents affirmed agree. Hence we conclude that the government regulation reduction in sales due to high export duties.

**Table 4.4.15**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Increase in personnel expenses.** | | | | | |
|  | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | strongly agree | 30 | 26.1 | 26.1 | 26.1 |
| Agree | 50 | 43.5 | 43.5 | 69.6 |
| no opinion | 10 | 8.7 | 8.7 | 78.3 |
| Disagree | 15 | 13.0 | 13.0 | 91.3 |
| strongly disagree | 10 | 8.7 | 8.7 | 100.0 |
| Total | 115 | 100.0 | 100.0 |  |

***Source: Field survey 2018 [SPSS COMPUTATION]***

The information supplied in the above table indicates that 30 (26.1%) respondents affirmed strongly agree, 50 (43.5%) respondents affirmed agree, 10 (8.7%) respondents affirmed no opinion , 15 (13.0%) respondents affirmed disagree while 10 (8.7%) respondents affirmed strongly disagree. This shows that the majority of the respondents agree. Hence we conclude that government regulation on export business increase in personnel expenses.

**Table 4.4.16**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Hike in export duties.** | | | | | |
|  | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | strongly agree | 30 | 26.1 | 26.1 | 26.1 |
| agree | 56 | 48.7 | 48.7 | 74.8 |
| no opinion | 9 | 7.8 | 7.8 | 82.6 |
| disagree | 12 | 10.4 | 10.4 | 93.0 |
| strongly disagree | 8 | 7.0 | 7.0 | 100.0 |
| Total | 115 | 100.0 | 100.0 |  |

***Source: Field survey 2018 [SPSS COMPUTATION]***

The data presented in the table above shows that 30 respondents, representing(26.1%) affirmed strongly agree, 56 respondents representing (48.7%) affirmed agree, 9 respondents representing (7.8%) affirmed No opinion, 12 respondents representing (10.4%) affirmed disagree while 8 respondents representing (7.0%) affirmed strongly disagree. This shows that the majority of the respondents agree. Hence we conclude that government regulation hike in export duties.

**RESEACRH QUESTION 5**

How have government regulations benefited export business in Enugu metropolis?

**Table 4.4.17**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Increase in sales due to export expansion** | | | | | |
|  | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | strongly agree | 34 | 29.6 | 29.6 | 29.6 |
| Agree | 50 | 43.5 | 43.5 | 73.0 |
| no opinion | 7 | 6.1 | 6.1 | 79.1 |
| Disagree | 13 | 11.3 | 11.3 | 90.4 |
| strongly disagree | 11 | 9.6 | 9.6 | 100.0 |
| Total | 115 | 100.0 | 100.0 |  |

***Source: Field survey 2018 [SPSS COMPUTATION]***

From the result of the table above, it can be ascertain that 34 (29.6%) affirmed strongly agree, 50 (43.5%) of the respondents affirmed agree, 7 (6.1%) affirmed no opinion 13(11.3%) of the respondents affirmed disagree, whereas 11 (9.6%) of the respondents affirmed strongly disagree. From the result, majority of the respondents affirmed agree . hence we conclude that government regulation increase in sales due to export expansion.

**Table 4.4.18**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Decrease in Personnel expenses** | | | | | |
|  | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | strongly agree | 30 | 26.1 | 26.1 | 26.1 |
| Agree | 25 | 21.7 | 21.7 | 47.8 |
| no opinion | 20 | 17.4 | 17.4 | 65.2 |
| Disagree | 15 | 13.0 | 13.0 | 78.3 |
| strongly disagree | 25 | 21.7 | 21.7 | 100.0 |
| Total | 115 | 100.0 | 100.0 |  |

***Source: Field survey 2018 [SPSS COMPUTATION]***

The table above table indicates that 30(26.1%) respondents affirmed strongly agree, 25 (21.7%) respondents affirmed agree, 20 (17.4%) respondents affirmed No opinion, 15 (13.0%) respondents affirmed disagree while 25 (21.7%) respondents affirmed strongly disagree. This shows that the majority of the respondents strongly agree. Hence we conclude that decrease in personnel expenses.

**Table 4.4.19**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Decrease in export levies and charges** | | | | | |
|  | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | strongly agree | 40 | 34.8 | 34.8 | 34.8 |
| Agree | 30 | 26.1 | 26.1 | 60.9 |
| no opinion | 14 | 12.2 | 12.2 | 73.0 |
| Disagree | 18 | 15.7 | 15.7 | 88.7 |
| strongly disagree | 13 | 11.3 | 11.3 | 100.0 |
| Total | 115 | 100.0 | 100.0 |  |

***Source: Field survey 2018 [SPSS COMPUTATION]***

The information supplied in the above table indicates that 40 (34.8%) respondents affirmed strongly agree, 30 (26.1%) respondents affirmed agree, 14 (12.2%) respondents affirmed no opinion , 18 (15.7%) respondents affirmed disagree while 13 (11.3%) respondents affirmed strongly disagree. This shows that the majority of the respondent agree. Hence we conclude that decrease in export levies and charges.

**Table 4.4.20**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Decrease in beaucratic procedures** | | | | | |
|  | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | strongly agree | 28 | 24.3 | 24.3 | 24.3 |
| agree | 42 | 36.5 | 36.5 | 60.9 |
| no opinion | 10 | 8.7 | 8.7 | 69.6 |
| disagree | 25 | 21.7 | 21.7 | 91.3 |
| strongly disagree | 10 | 8.7 | 8.7 | 100.0 |
| Total | 115 | 100.0 | 100.0 |  |

***Source: Field survey 2018 [SPSS COMPUTATION]***

The data presented in the table above shows that 28 respondents, representing (24.3%) affirmed strongly agree, 42 respondents representing (36.5%) affirmed agree, 10 respondents representing (8.7%) affirmed No opinion, 25 respondents representing (21.7%) affirmed disagree while 10 respondents representing (8.7%) affirmed strongly disagree. This shows that the majority of the respondent agree. Hence we conclude that decrease in beaucratic procedures.

**4.5 TEST OF HYPOTHESES**

This section is concerned with the testing of hypotheses earlier stated. In doing this, correlation was used. A test of hypotheses help to decide which of the contradictory claims is correct. It acts as guide through the research work in order to draw a logical or empirical conclusion.

**Decision Rule**

If the calculated Pearson correlation value is greater than the critical value (0.05), we accept the null hypothesis and if the calculated Pearson correlation value is less than the critical value (0.05) accept the alternative hypothesis.

**Hypothesis one**

**H**o: There are no export product that are exported by organization in Enugu metropolis.

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Correlations** | | | |
|  | | Export product | organization in Enugu metropolis |
| Export product | Pearson Correlation | 1 | .868\*\* |
| Sig. (2-tailed) |  | .000 |
| N | 115 | 115 |
| Organization in Enugu metropolis | Pearson Correlation | .868\*\* | 1 |
| Sig. (2-tailed) | .003 |  |
| N | 115 | 115 |
| \*\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). | | | |

From the table of values above, the relationship between Export products on organization in Enugu metropolis is positive (0.867), The probability value is 0.03 which is less than 0.05, on this ground, we accept H1 and conclude that there are there are reasons for government regulations on export business in Enugu metropolis.

**Hypothesis Two**

**H**o: government regulations have no effect on export business in Enugu metropolis

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Correlations** | | | |
|  | | Government regulations have no effect | Export business in Enugu metropolis |
| Government regulations have no effect | Pearson Correlation | 1 | .947\*\* |
| Sig. (2-tailed) |  | .000 |
| N | 115 | 115 |
| Export business in Enugu metropolis | Pearson Correlation | .947\*\* | 1 |
| Sig. (2-tailed) | .032 |  |
| N | 115 | 115 |
| \*\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). | | | |

From the table of values above, the relationship between government regulation on Export business in Enugu metropolis is positive (0.947), The probability value is 0.032 which is less than 0.05, on this ground, we accept H1 and conclude that Government regulations have effect on export business in Enugu metropolis

**Hypothesis Three**

**H**o: The various forms of government regulations on export business in Enugu metropolis are insignificant.

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Correlations** | | | |
|  | | Form of government regulations | Export business in Enugu metropolis |
| Form of government regulations | Pearson Correlation | 1 | .867\*\* |
| Sig. (2-tailed) |  | .000 |
| N | 115 | 115 |
| Export business in Enugu metropolis | Pearson Correlation | .867\*\* | 1 |
| Sig. (2-tailed) | .004 |  |
| N | 115 | 115 |
| \*\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). | | | |

From the table of values above, the relationship between form of government regulation on Export business in Enugu metropolis is positive (0.867), The probability value is 0.04 which is less than 0.05, on this ground, we accept H1 and conclude that there are forms of Government regulations on export business in Enugu metropolis

**Hypothesis Four**

**H0:** Government regulations have not benefited export business in Enugu metropolis

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Correlations** | | | |
|  | | Government regulations have not benefited | Export business in Enugu metropolis |
| Government regulations have not benefited | Pearson Correlation | 1 | 1.000\*\* |
| Sig. (2-tailed) |  | .000 |
| N | 115 | 115 |
| Export business in Enugu metropolis | Pearson Correlation | 1.000\*\* | 1 |
| Sig. (2-tailed) | .023 |  |
| N | 115 | 115 |
| \*\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). | | | |

From the table of values above, the relationship between government regulation on Export business in Enugu metropolis is positive (1.000), The probability value is 0.023 which is less than 0.05, on this ground, we accept H1 and conclude that Government regulation have benefited export business in Enugu metropolis

**4.6 Discussion of the Findings**

This study investigated the effect of government regulation on export trade in Nigeria businesses with reference to Enugu Metropolis. From the findings of the study it was discovered that there are different types of export products that are exported by organizations in Enugu metropolis. This information was ascertain from the responses of the respondent in table 4:4.1 – table 4:4.4

Here, the research sought to find out What are the various forms of government regulations on export business in Enugu metropolis? The data in table 4.4.5, 4.4.6, 4.4.7, and 4.4.8, shows that they are various forms of government regulations on export business in Enugu Metroplis. According to the responses of the respondent they indicated that Export prohibition and control, Directives on Export Taxes, Charges and Levies, Implementation of the local content act, and Issuance of Export Licenses to export companies are all forms of government regulation on export business.

The study also found out that there are many reasons for government regulations on export business in Enugu metropolis as indicated by the responses of the respondent in table 4:4.9. table 4.4.10, table 4.4.11 and table 4:4.12.

Accordingto the result of the findings in the study which, the researcher sought to find out what extent does government regulation affect export business in Enugu metropolis? Table 4.4.13, 4.4.14, 4.4.15 and table 4.4.16 provided the necessary data for that question. Government regulations affect export business in Enugu Metropolis.

Finally, it was found thatgovernment regulations benefited export business in Enugu metropolis. This was indicated by the responses of the respondent in the research question 5 table 4.4.17, 4.4.18, 4.4.19 and 4.4. 20 which provided the necessary data.

**CHAPTER FIVE**

**SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

**5.1 Introduction**

This chapter is aimed at summing up the findings of this study as well as to draw the conclusion from the research work. Secondly the researcher gives recommendations based on the findings of the study.

**5.2 Summary of Findings**

The major aim of this study was to investigate the effect of government regulation on export trade in Nigeria businesses with reference to Enugu Metropolis. At the end of the analysis the following result were found:

1. From the findings of the study it was discovered that there are different types of export products that are exported by organizations in Enugu metropolis.
2. They are various forms of government regulations on export business in Enugu Metropolis.
3. The study also found out that there are many reasons for government regulations on export business in Enugu metropolis.
4. Government regulations affect export business in Enugu Metropolis.
5. Finally, it was found thatgovernment regulations benefited export business in Enugu metropolis.
   1. **Conclusion**

The study was carried out to find out the effect of government regulation on export trade in Nigeria businesses with reference to Enugu Metropolis. Based on this study the findings and the literature reviewed, the researcher arrived at the conclusion that there are different types of export product that are exported by organization in Enugu metropolis. There are various forms of government regulation on export business. They are many reasons for government regulation on export business. Government regulations affect export business and the government regulation benefited export business in Enugu metropolis. Even though there are some negative effect of government regulation on export business but the benefit outweighs the negative effect by far. Therefore we say the Government regulation has a positive effect on the export business. The failure of an organization to adopt all these government regulation on export business organizations can lead to fraud, loss of finance and lack of accountability. The growth of any export business depends to a large extent on the government regulations.

**5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS**

Having conducted this research and analyzed the field data, the researcher recommends the following points, which if adhered to will positively increase export business.

1. Governments should encourage exports business and try to amend those regulations that have negative effect on export business since exporting increases jobs opportunities and brings in higher wages and raises the standard of living for residents.
2. The government also should provide subsidies on their own industries to lower prices.
3. Exports are a crucial component of a country’s economy. Exports facilitate international trade and stimulate domestic economic activity by creating employment, production, and revenues. Exporter should try as much as possible to comply with the government regulation.
4. All Exporters should register with the Nigeria Export promotion Council and must renew their registration every two years in order to have all the export subsidies and finance.
5. Organization, companies and business should engage more on exporting business since it broadens the marketing base, extends life of a product and also enhances the company’s image to be seen as more progressive.

**5.5 AREA FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

The following areas are suggested for further research:

1. The same topic in other state
2. The effects of export business in the economic growth in Nigeria
3. The role of exportation on the economy growth of Nigeria

**5.6 Relevance of the research work**

This is study contributed and add more knowledge to the existing body of literature reviewed, it captures the effect of government regulation on export promotion using correlation analysis which other literature reviewed do not follow.

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