

NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND THE GENDER GAP IN NIGERIA, LESSONS FROM THE MALAYSIAN EXPERIENCE

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ABSTRACT

At independence from Britain in 1957, the Malaysian economy was predominantly mining and agriculturally based. The government started a transition towards a more multi-sector economy with the formation of the Malaysian 1st-8th Development Plans from 1963. The Development Plans encouraged improved women's education, employment, and engagement in politics amongst others. Compared to Nigeria where there is no special place for women in Nigerian's development plans. Consequently, adult literacy rate for women in Malaysia rose from 74% in 1990 to 83 in 2000. By occupation, women are spread across all spheres of life endeavours. Women represent 41% of all manufacturing employees, 40% of all finance, insurance, real estate and business services, 39% of wholesale and retail trade, hotel and restaurant employees. This paper used qualitative research design to interrogate the development plans of Nigeria and Malaysia and applied modernization theory of development to explain modernization processes of Nigeria and Malaysia since independence. In Malaysia, women in political parties were included in the higher level public decision-making bodies against Nigeria where women are relegated to women's wing. The work explained that politically, in Malaysia, the participation of women in politics was advanced because the government engaged women as view women veritable partners in development compare to Nigeria where the percentage of women in politics is infinitesimal compared to that of men. The paper argues that the sluggish development experienced by Nigerian compared to Malaysia is due to gender gap and near exclusion of women in Nigerian's development plans. The active involvement of women in all facets of governance and development has been seen as a veritable tool for political development and nation-building.

Keyword National, development Nigeria Gender lessons

INTRODUCTION

Development theory is a conglomeration or collection of theories about how desirable change in society is best achieved. Such theories draw on a variety of social science disciplines and approaches. Depending on which theory that is being looked at, there are different explanations for the process of development and their inequalities. Development theories can be regarded as a set of ostensibly logical propositions, which aim to explain how development has occurred in the past and/or how it should occur in

the future, this explanation has been used both develop and developing countries of the world to explain development.

Development theories can either be normative, that is, they can aim to explain how development has occurred in the past and can generalize about what should happen or be the case in the ideal world or positive in the sense of dealing with what has generally been in the past. (Hettne 1995) Macmuarry (1955) argues that a theory can be a body of knowledge or collective vision. Thomas (2007) theorized how to develop this body of knowledge and in (2008) explained that development economics is a branch of economics which deals with economic aspects of the development process in low-income countries. Stressing that its focus is not only on methods of promoting economic development, economic growth, and structural change but also on improving the potential for the mass of the population and engenders economic growth, for example, through health, education and workplace conditions and through the public or private channel (Khun 2008). Cairncross (1961) pointed out that development economics involves the creation of theories and methods that aid in the determination of policies and practices and can be implemented at either the domestic or international level (Cairncross 1961). This may involve restructuring market incentives by using mathematical methods such as inter-temporal optimization for project analysis, or it may involve a mixture of quantitative and qualitative methods. There are however, other views to development aside from the economic perspective that can explain different development agendas which will reflect different goals and objectives, social, economic, political, cultural, ethical, moral and even religious.

influences of development. Brundtland (1997) for instance defined development that can endure from generation to generation as sustainable development. By sustainability of development, they refer to that kind of development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the need for the future generation to meet their own needs. They argue that needs change, so it is unlikely that those of the future generation will be the same as those of the present generation. This further implies that development itself contributes to needs and thereby helping to define the needs and development direction differently for each generation and for different cultures. (Brundtland 1997). Development also have strategies which Hettne (2005) defined as the practical paths to development which may be pursued by international agencies or states in both developing and developed worlds, non-governmental organizations and community-based organizations or individuals, in an effort to stimulate change . Arguing, that development strategy is an effort to change existing economic and social structures and institutions in order to find enduring solutions to the problems facing decision makers since development strategy implies an actor normally the state.

Scientists such as David Apter (1986), on the political system and history of democracy; Seymour Lipset (1959), maintained that economic development leads to social changes which tend to lead to democracy. They explained development using modernization theory. Modernization theory analysed development as the processes in which modernization in societies take place. The theory looks at which aspects of countries are beneficial and which constitute obstacles to economic development. The idea is that development assistance targeted at those particular aspects can lead to the modernization of 'traditional' or 'backward' societies. Modernization theory observes traditions and pre-existing institutions of so-called "primitive" societies as obstacles to modern economic growth. Modernization which is forced from outside upon a society might induce violent and radical change.

However, while modernization theory explained modernization as a process of transforming from traditional to modernism, structuralism theorists like Rostow (1960) viewed development from the structural aspects which impede the economic growth of developing countries. For structuralism, the unit of analysis is the transformation of a country's economy from, mainly, subsistence agriculture to a modern, urbanized manufacturing and service economy. To them, policy prescriptions resulting from structuralist thinking would include major government intervention in the economy to fuel the industrial sector, known as import substitution industrialization (ISI). Rostow (1960) supports the structuralism argument and maintained that development of the developing country can be enhanced through ISI import substitution industrialization. Arguing that structural transformation of the developing country is pursued in order to create an economy which in the end enjoys self-sustaining growth. This can only be reached by ending the reliance of the underdeveloped country on exports of primary goods (agricultural and mining products) and pursuing inward-oriented development by shielding the domestic economy from that of the developed economies. Stressing that trade with advanced economies is should be minimized through the erection of all kinds of trade barriers and an overvaluation of the domestic exchange rate; in this way, the production of domestic substitutes of formerly imported industrial products is encouraged.

The logic of the strategy rests on the infant industry argument, which states that young industries initially do not have the economies of scale and experience to be able to compete with foreign competitors and thus need to be protected until they are able to compete in the free market. Proponents of basic needs have argued that elimination of absolute poverty is a good way to make the people active in society so that they can provide labour more easily and act as consumers and savers. The structuralists argue that the only way Third World countries can develop is through action by the state. Third world countries have to push industrialization and have to reduce their dependency on trade with the first World, and trade among themselves.

On the other hand, dependency theory which is essentially a follow up of structuralism thinking, shares many of structuralism core ideas. The point of divergence between the structuralists and the dependency theorist is that structuralists did not consider that development would be possible at all unless a strategy of delinking and rigorous ISI was pursued; dependency thinking could allow development with external links with the developed parts of the globe. Dependency thinking starts from the notion that resources flow from the 'periphery' of poor and underdeveloped states to a 'core' of wealthy countries, which leads to accumulation of wealth in the rich states at the expense of the poor states. Contrary to modernization theory, dependency theory states that not all society's progress through similar stages of development. To them, periphery states have unique features, structures and institutions of their own and are considered weaker with regards to the world market economy, while the developed nations have never been in this colonized position in the past. Dependency theorists argue that underdeveloped countries remain economically vulnerable unless they reduce their connections to the world market. Dependency theory states that poor nations provide natural resources and cheap labour for developed nations without which the developed nations could not have the standard of living which they enjoy. When underdeveloped countries try to remove the Core's influence, the developed countries hinder their attempts to keep control. This means that poverty of developing nations is not the result of the disintegration of these countries in the world system but because of the way in which they are integrated into this system.

The basic needs model was introduced by the international labour organization in 1976, mainly in reaction to prevalent modernization- and structuralism-inspired development approaches, which were not achieving satisfactory results in terms of poverty alleviation and combating inequality in developing countries. It tried to define an absolute minimum of resources necessary for long-term physical well-being. The poverty line which follows from this is the amount of income needed to satisfy those basic needs. The approach has been applied in the sphere of development assistance, to determine what a society needs for subsistence, and for poor population groups to rise above the poverty line.

Again, Rostow on the linear stages of growth model accentuated that there are stages of growth model which is a well-known example of the linear stages of growth model today. In it, Rostow explained five stages through which developing countries had to pass to reach an advanced economy status: (1) Traditional society, (2) Preconditions for take-off, (3) Take-off, (4) Drive to maturity, (5) Age of high mass consumption. He argued that economic development could be led by certain strong sectors; this is in contrast to Marxism which states that sectors should develop equally. According to Rostow's model, a country needed to follow some rules of development to reach the take-off stage, to progress through the stages and to maintain the age of high consumption stage.

This paper explained the developmental stages of Nigeria from her independence and compared them with Malaysian developmental stages. The paper examined the developmental strategies employed by both countries in their quest to move from traditional to modernised societies, from infant industries to manufacturing and services-oriented industries and underscored the lessons Nigeria could learn from the industrial growth place of Malaysia today in the global world.

DEVELOPMENT PLAN: THE NIGERIAN EXPERIENCE

Development plan in Nigeria can be classified into three eras. The First Development plan 1966-1968 implementation extended to 1969-70 due to the Nigerian civil war. One major employment promotion scheme in the First National Development Plan was the establishment of the National Manpower (NMB) in 1962 first national development Plan. The first national development plan 1966-68 aimed at and required cooperation between public and private sectors, and as expected between federal and regional governments. It also aimed at a high level or rate of development expected to supersede the colonial plan before it. Obiekeze and Obi (2004), reported that the plan which was expected to last for six years had a proposed total investment expenditure of about N2, 132 million. However, the subsequent crisis culminating in the thirty-month Nigerian Civil War 1967-1970 punctured the implementation of this. Osifo-Whiskey 1997 in Okigbo argued that: in the 1st National development plan that each region's programs are like the others.

Apart from the Nigerian Civil War (1966-1967) aborted 1st national development plan Nigeria had other developmental plan these include the second National Plan (1970-74) can be referred to as “Oil-boom development plan” because it coincided with the period that Nigeria made high earnings from the sale of crude oil and allied products having emerged from a devastating civil war and with lessons to learn (Ujo in Ugwu 2009). Third (1975-80) National development plan also fell within the ‘oil-boom’ years, and in that era was seen as the largest and the most ambitious ever launched (compared to the ones that preceded it. The plan aimed to achieve objectives such as to increase per capita income; even distribution of income; reduction in the level of unemployment; increasing the supply of high-level manpower, diversification of the economy; balanced development and indigenization of economic activities. The initial total expenditure for this plan was put at N30 billion over five years. (Osifo Whiskey 1987) The Fourth National Development according to Ijaiya and Usman (2000). The Fourth National Development Plan (1981-85) like the ones before it reaffirmed the long-term national objectives of the preceding plan corroborated that this “was also launched simply to consolidate the third National Development Plans and with much more commitment to petroleum resources”. The industrial policy objectives of this plan were; promotion of export-oriented industries.

The Plan according to an Annual review of population law (1984) calls for the establishment of a benchmark for population censuses through the activities of a newly established National Population Commission. The Plan seeks a decline in the fertility rate through the voluntary use of family planning services and an increase in formal education. During the Plan period, the question of liberalizing the abortion law will be under consideration; the delivery of health care will be improved to strengthen the downward trend in child, infant, and maternal mortality and morbidity rates; efforts to prevent illegal immigration will be intensified; and the government will attempt to encourage trained and skilled personnel to remain in the country. To combat over urbanization, the government will also pursue a policy of integrated urban and rural development.

The enhancement of local value-added through the development of small-scale industries, local sourcing of inputs; improving the efficiency of government-owned enterprises and acquisition of technical skills and development worth noting here is the Integrated Development Initiatives: Structural Adjustment Programme which Obikeze and Obi (2004) attempted to articulate their discourse on Structural Adjustment programme SAP under the caption of “Fifth National Development Plan”; Onah (2006) submitted with finality that “the idea of a fifth National Development Plan, mooted in late 1980 never materialized”. The launch of the purported plan was postponed twice in a row in 1987 and 1988. Instead of the plan were series of integrated Development Initiatives which Okoli and Ona (2002) referred to as rural development strategies such as Agricultural Development Scheme, National Accelerated Food Production Programme (NAFPP); and Directorate for Food, Road and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI). Again the Nigerian Rolling Plans 1990-1999 and Vision 2020 were also some of the national development initiatives of Nigeria in her quest for development. In this, Nigeria resorted to the use of (ad-hoc) short-term instruments for economic management and as Daggash (2008) asserted, the era of Rolling Plans (1990-1999) which he derisively tagged an era of the rolling stones that gathered no moss”.

Daggash (2008) added that in a bid “to have a long-term National Vision on which development could be anchored, a bold attempt was made in 1996 to articulate a National vision document, the Nigeria Vision 2010. This development effort had the vision of transforming the Nigerian Nation by 2010 into “a united, industrious, caring and God fearing democratic society, committed to making the basic needs of life affordable for everyone and creating Africa’s leading economy (Ugwu 2009) The National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) offered Nigeria an opportunity to experiment with medium-term economic development plan from 2004 to 2007. Onah (2006:46) posited that NEEDS focused on wealth creation, employment generation, poverty reduction and re-orientating values. These goals, he corroborated can be realized “by creating an environment in which business can thrive and the government

is redirected to providing basic services and people are empowered to take advantage of the opportunities which the plan will usher in. In all of these programs, the government failed to integrate the role of women and SMEs as active partners in development as is done in Malaysia. This can be adduced to be the undoing of the government in realizing the principles and ideas inherent in all the failed national development plans in Nigeria.

MALAYSIAN DEVELOPMENT PLANS

Malaysia, formerly known as Malaya, is regarded as one of the most successful examples of a multi-racial society. Chinese had migrated to Malaya when Portuguese captured Malaya in the sixteenth century. During the British colonial period, Malaysia witnessed a huge number of Chinese and Indian immigrants flocking into the country. Nature and living condition in the China Mainland and India had respectively become the pushing factor for them to leave the countries. Malaysian's political stability and prosperity were seen as the pulling factor for their immigrants to seek for better prospects in Malaya. As such, the immigrants played an important role in influencing the changing lifestyle of the early inhabitants in Malaysia.

Malaysia was an agricultural based economy mainly producing rubber and tin. The indigenous people including the Malays mostly lived in the rural areas and predominantly engaged in the agricultural sector. Thus, the natural segregation of the main ethnic groups based on geographical areas was clearly painted. The Chinese who mostly engaged in business activities had a relatively higher standard of living compared to the Malays and the Indians. After the 1957 independence, the country witnessed a disproportionate pattern of wealth distribution. The Chinese held a big chunk of the wealth compared to the other two main ethnic groups in the country. Poverty was largely prevalent among the Malays since the Malays occupied the rural area while the Indians are in the estates, and whereas the Chinese were concentrated in urban locations of the country. This situation reflected the differences in the incidence of poverty by race, particularly in Peninsular Malaysia. In all of these, women were highly marginal in all spheres of life endeavour and also poor uneducated. The role of entrepreneurship in economic development and poverty reduction especially in developing countries nations has been asserted in the literature. This is Galbraith (2008) argued that the economy of developing nations can be improved through entrepreneurship development. He, however, added that economic development is multidimensional; not only dependent on the traditional economic model of factor inputs but issues such as culture, gender, type of enterprises etc need be considered. (Cunha 2007). Considering the situation and economic disparity in Malay then the government decided to embark on national development agenda for the nation. The 1st national development plan was tagged New Economic Policy (NEP). Basically, the NEP plays a vital role in the history of both economy and politics in Malaysia today. During the period of NEP, Malaysia had substantially reduced its poverty level and led to the growth of Malay's middle and business classes. Apart from

successfully achieving its objectives, the NEP did come up with various consequences which proved to be influential to the wellbeing of the country and people.

THE NEW ECONOMIC POLICY OF MALAYSIA (NEP)

The NEP was formulated and implemented in 1970 for the duration of 20 years. The main initiator of NEP was Tun Abdul Razak, Malaysia's second Prime Minister and was later taken further by the third and fourth Prime Ministers, Tun Hussein Onn and Dr Mahathir Mohammed. The NEP was implemented to attain two-pronged objectives. The first was to eradicate poverty in the country irrespective of race and gender. According to the NEP, the Bumiputra population was to be given 30% share in the modern sector of the economy in order to enhance their participation in the industrial sector and at the same time to raise their living standards. Furthermore, the NEP required the state to intervene in the economy for resources allocation and to control the business enterprises so that the objectives of the NEP could be achieved and to assist the Bumiputra in the areas. These are instances of the government initiatives to preserve the special privileges for the natives. Eventually, the government was to encourage the Malaysians and the indigenous people to participate in the economy so that their living standard could be raised. This indirectly opened up more opportunities for other races especially the Chinese to accumulate wealth (Mohamad, 1970).

The NEP encouraged the development of manufacturing industries which like a vicious circle empowered women to venture in SMEs. The influx of women into the workforce has been seen as one of the dominant global social trends during the past thirty years (Noor Rhanmah 2012), (Desjardin 2009). This is also seen in Malaysia's development since political independence in 1957 and has emphasized steady economic growth, diversification of the economy, reduction of unemployment and improvement in income and wealth distribution (Jamilah 1994). The implementation of New Economic policy (NEP), during the Second Malaysian development Plan from 1971 -75 continued until 1990 and induced rapid economic development in the last three decades (1970-2000). The major structural shift has been from the primary to the secondary sector especially in the manufacturing activities. Malaysian efforts in industrialization started with import substitution in the late 1950s and then switched to export-orientation in the late 1960s (Jamilah, 1994). The emphasis was on the development of resource-based and labour-intensive industries in which Malaysia had a comparative advantage. The labour-intensive industries were mainly textiles, garments, electronics, electrical products, and food processing. In all of these, the government encouraged the active involvement of women in all areas of the New Development Plan.

Socio-economic factors, as mentioned, have, among others, contributed to this shift since the 1970s. It all began when Malaysia decided to transform from an agricultural to an industrial nation. Foreign direct investment and the setup of manufacturing and electronic

industries have further increased employment opportunities for women. The Malaysian culture has also been seen to shifted somewhat, accepting the participation of women in employment, to improve the economic status and quality of life of family units although they are also expected to play an equally important role as a wife, mother and family manager at home. In addition to socio-economic factors, political and legal factors have contributed to the increasing women's participation in the Malaysian workforce. The government has always been supportive in developing the female workforce through its educational, economic and human resource policies to support the economic growth agenda. With higher educational attainments, women competed with the males in technical and nontechnical disciplines, covering all job scopes such as engineering, medicine, teaching, management, etc. The Employment Act 1955, in fact, has been revised to include special provisions for employers to comply, to consider the welfare of women in employment. For example, women at work may now apply for maternity leave at 28 weeks of pregnancy. Women have also been given a legal right to enjoy 60 days of paid maternity leave and a further 90 daAs at first April 2012 further provisions were included in sexual harassment matters to protect the dignity to protect the dignity of women at work. The government has even set up the Ministry of Women, family and community development to explicitly show the commitment and recognition of women's significant role in the Malaysian society, apart from addressing specific issues peculiar to women as a human right. While these developments may be seen to be a strength as well as opportunity to sustain continued economic growth in Malaysia and they also helped to earn respect for women and women's rights in an employment context.

According to Ahmad (1998) before the 1970's, most women in Malaysia, especially the Malaysian Muslims were homemakers. It was a cultural norm, particularly in the eastern society for women to stay at home and manage the family while husbands played the roles of breadwinners. Women's role at home was seen to be noble, raising and nurturing children to be good citizens. On several occasions, qualified women may have to sacrifice their careers for a better family life to reduce stress while trying to balance family life with work life. Some have personally declined promotion opportunities or in the worst scenario, they quit their jobs and find other options such as starting a home-based business which allows them to look after their children while performing work commitments as their own bosses. With the proliferation of manufacturing industries and SMEs many women entered into SMEs and as bosses of their own business at least they do not have to face the challenges of being questioned by employers now and then when they have problems at home while managing children etc.

MALAYSIAN ECONOMY AND WOMEN

With the support of the government, quite a number of Malaysian women became involved in the economy. By 2013, the World Bank reports that 44 percent of women are part of formal labour force while men have a formal labour force participation rate of 56

percent in Malaysia. For nearly three decades the rate for women has stagnated between 44 and 47 percent. In order to change this, the MWFCD has funded over 32 projects with over 87 million USD in an effort to help women overcome the barriers that they face in the formal labour market. However, the government is not the only stakeholder interested in empowering Malaysian women. There are many other contributors to this movement, such as grassroots organizations, international NGOs, and various private sector organizations. ys of extended unpaid leave to manage a new-born baby.

Politically female representation has not increased as quickly as the other sectors mentioned; the percentage of female senators rose from 18.2 in 1990 to 25.8% in 2014. Female state legislature representation has increased from 3.4% in 1990 to 11.5% in 2014. 2012, only 15% of women own their own businesses (MWFCD, 2014). However, there is potential for growth in this area, as the Malaysian government has begun to streamline the ease of doing business to benefit women in Malaysia. In fact, Malaysia ranks 18th in the 2015 Ease of Doing Business Report produced by the World Bank. Streamlining business measures will facilitate women starting businesses once other barriers are overcome. While educational opportunities have expanded and health care has improved. Politically, and by the law, Malaysia has a dual justice system. All Malaysian citizens are subject to federal law while Muslims are additionally subject to sharia law. Both of these entities have a significant influence on gender and different sets of rights that are affordable to men and women. The federal government is actively attempting to implement mechanisms that empower women and protect their human rights. In part, the government understands that by empowering women and enabling them to be active participants in the formal labour force, they will benefit and the country's overall economy and spur economic growth. In 1995, the Malaysian constitution amended Article 8(2) to bar gender-based discrimination. Other laws have also been created to grant women paid maternity leave and ensure fairness when facing divorce and inheritance issues

Malaysia ratified CEDAW in 1995, with several reservations of articles that were in conflict with the provisions of Sharia law and Participation of Women in the Malaysian Labour Force, (MWFCD/UNDP, 2014). After attending the Beijing Platform for Action the same year, the Malaysian governments sought to not only eradicate gender-based discrimination but to also enact laws that protect women. There were also laws that directly opened space for women to join the labour force. However, in terms of political representation, the number of women in parliament remains low at 10% since there was no quota in place to the advantage of women in politics. (Roushdy 2015).

CONCLUSION

Today, Malaysia is fast emerging as one of the worlds' most preferred business destinations. Malaysia attracts over 20 million tourists yearly to its economy, unlike Nigeria due to the experience of the military dictatorship which has derailed the country's momentum towards greater progress and prosperity. Nigeria like Malaysia hopes that by 2020 both countries would be able to achieve the goals of vision 2020. That shows the importance Malaysia pays great attention to education and human resources development and training. Consequently, Malaysia spends lion share of the budget in educating the people. Malaysia makes a lot of investment in human resources. The other thing is that they have been able to build necessary infrastructure which would help to propel the economy, unlike Nigeria where the industries are suffering because of bad roads, poor supply of electricity, inadequate potable water and other infrastructure that drive development. Malaysia also encourages the growth of the SMEs through incentives and training this Nigeria is yet to realize and pursue. Malaysia has long recognized SMEs are the engine of growth. There is so much that the government can do before the multinational can come to the country to invest. Nigeria need to empower private sector, and in the case of Malaysia, 99% of establishments belong to the SMEs and there are many agencies providing assistance to SMEs in the areas incentives and training with the intention that if the SMEs prosper it then means so much in terms of export for the country, employment of youths as well as helping the country register higher growth rate. In Malaysia, the SMEs are doing a lot in bridging the linkages between industries including the multinationals. They are actually very important and you cannot hope to have economic prosperity and stability without paying attention to SMEs. Many SMEs are owned by women especially women who find it difficult to manage paid employment and the family responsibilities.

SMEs empower the private sector and, in the case Malaysia, 99% of private establishment belongs to the SMEs and Malaysia has agencies providing assistance to SMEs in terms of incentives and training. Malaysia, believe that if the SMEs prosper, then it means so much export for the country, employment of youths as well as helping the country register higher growth rate. SMEs serve as the linkages between the industries including the multinationals and the government. Another unique thing about Malaysia is that it never compromised on good quality products. When it comes to producing quality products, what is vision and inspiration that drives Nigeria culture of quality in Nigerian's economy? When Malaysia got independence in 1957 they realized that with a population of about 7million they knew that they do not have a big domestic market, so they need to sell abroad and to do that your product must have quality, knowing that once people know that your product is of good quality they will not mind to pay more for your goods, but if your goods don't have quality they think your products are bad and as such, they would not patronize them. In this stretch, it makes

sense to do a lot to improve your product's quality. This means that you will continue to improve and do a lot of innovation on your products.

In Nigeria prices of a hotel accommodation and other products that promote economic growth are very high when compared to what is obtainable in Malaysia. Malaysia, like Nigeria, is blessed with a lot of resources, but Malaysia, unlike Nigeria. Nigeria needs to keep the prices of goods and services low bearing in mind that they are competing with Singapore, China, and India which also produce very good quality products at very low prices. For instance, in Nigeria, five-star hotels cost well over two hundred dollars but in Malaysia, you do not have to stay in a five-star hotel which cost a hundred dollars to get good services because of there so many three or four-star hotels that can provide very good services. Malaysia does not want have customers once but again and again, whether to visit the country, to stay, to get medical attention .that way the country's GDP continued to grow.

However, for Nigeria to consolidate these economic gains and move higher in the frontlines of growth and development, it must deepen reforms that improve human capital, promote high-quality public infrastructure and encourage competition (Sanusi, 2010). The pillars to sustain this consolidation must include a firm fiscal policy, transparent fiscal operations, development-oriented monetary and exchange rate policies, strengthening of the financial sector and strict adherence to the rule-of-law and respect for the sanctity of contract, as well as commitment to fighting corruption and corrupt practices. In all of these, Nigeria has the opportunity for progress. We must break away from the past to deliver a new Nigeria that the future generations of Nigerians would be proud of. Our electoral process must not only be credible but must be seen to be credible, since robust economic performance necessarily requires a robust political environment to happen.

LESSONS

From all Nigerian's national development plans the performance indicators/indices revealed negative growth in major sectors of the economy in 1985. The strategies that were ushered in grossly affected sourcing of loans and doing business with financial institutions, the manufacturing, and other sectors could not survive, as the economy was wobbling, unemployment and poverty rates increased as a result of this policy option. It can, therefore, be persuasively argued that the Nigerian governing elite started the march towards economic regression from the period as a result of fiscal and financial indiscipline. Again in 1970-74 plan periods in Nigeria was expected to fully participate in the private sector which witnessed the enactment in 1972 of the Nigerian Enterprises Promotion Decree and meant to encourage certain companies and increase Nigerian participation from 40% to 60% ownership.

Lessons for Nigeria from the Malaysia experience also include the fact Nigeria and Malaysia share common historical antecedents, gained their independence from British rule yet Malaysia is industrialized and Nigeria is yet to be, therefore, Nigeria need to borrow industrialization strategies from Malaysia. The federal system of government is the bicameral legislature and the regions are inhabited by different racial and ethnic nationalities Although, Nigeria has changed from bicameral to the presidential system. Both economies were relatively rich in resource. At independence, Malaysia in 1957 and Nigeria in 1960 was leading exporters of primary products because basically the climate in the countries is tropical. A comparison of Malaysia and Nigeria's growth record shows divergence in growth rates and different structural changes to the economy.

Strategies implored by the government include industrialization and active engagement of women in nation building. Nigeria needs to adopt Development Plan that is women-friendly and close the gender gap for Nigeria to be developed and build resilience. More women need to come on board in Nigerian's quest to build economically rotund and politically viral nation as Malaysia. Malaysia, on average has grown at a faster rate than Nigeria. In contrast to Malaysia's post-independent experience, political instability was more pronounced in Nigeria. The military has ruled for 25 out of its 50 years as an independent nation, while in Malaysia there was, relatively, political stability and continuity. The two countries have adopted almost the same ideology in their developmental efforts, while Malaysia plans and moves vigorously towards the attainment of its vision of becoming an advanced economy in 2020. Nigeria in its Vision 2020 wishes to become one of the 20 most industrialized economies by the year 2020, not much yet has been seen in this direction.

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