Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 Background to the Study

In every society in the globe, there exists a link between the government of a country like Nigeria and its residents through a transparent and hospitable welfare programme that can improve the citizens' lives. For example, the government is responsible for improving overall healthcare, providing basic infrastructure, and fostering an environment in which businesses can thrive. On the other hand, citizens are expected to contribute to the progress of the State by abiding by the law and paying their taxes on time. The government has constantly pledged to increase non-oil revenue such as taxation to support capital expenditures such as health care expenditures to the satisfaction of the public[1]. The government primarily mobilises financial resources through taxation so as to finance development programmes for its citizens[1]. Therefore, tax revenue is the total amount received by the government through the administration of all kind of taxation within the legislatively mandated period[2]. This fund accounts for a sizeable share of the State's sustainable revenues outside of those derived from the sale of petroleum in the country[2].

This revenue is utilised to support the majority of the government's expenditures, particularly basic amenities such as health infrastructure that promote a healthy populace for economic growth. Consequently, the significance of taxation in Nigeria's economy cannot be overstated[3]. Revenue mobilisation and creation is a fundamental prerequisite for countries to obtain sufficient finance[4]. Nigeria was essentially an agrarian economy, with agriculture being the primary source of income.

This was prior to the British discovery of oil in the Niger Delta in the late 1950s[5,6]. Due to volatile oil prices, globalisation, and the realities of oil demand and supply, the Nigerian government has been obliged to explore alternative funding streams[6]. Taxation is a part of the sources[7]. Due to its constancy, taxation has become a vital source of revenue for the government. Since independence, tax income has contributed significantly to federally collected money[8].

Tax is viewed as a burden that each person must endure in order to maintain his or her government because the government must carry out specific functions for the benefit of people it governs[9]. One of these functions is infrastructure provision. Not only are taxes levied to generate income, but also to influence economic activities[10]. Taxes serve as a tool for addressing inflation and deflation, the balance of payment imbalance, and income redistribution, among others[7]. Despite the amount of money earned by the government through taxation, development in Nigeria remains a pipe dream as poverty, unemployment, a low standard of life, and inadequate infrastructure continue to persist at a very high rate[11].

Health infrastructure, pipe-borne or portable drinking water, road network, waste management, and power are at the top of the World Bank's list of Nigeria's inadequate infrastructure, according to a report[11]. In recent years, Nigeria has undergone considerable infrastructural change in relation to the construction of additional schools, roads, and telecommunications facilities; nevertheless, this transformation is nowhere near adequate[10].

Infrastructural development is the process of enhancing the real production of a society over a specified time period by investing in capital-intensive projects that contribute significantly to the improvement of the living standards of its citizens[1].

To achieve success and rapid development, a society's policies must be centred on infrastructure development. This infrastructure expansion necessitates enormous funds, which can only be gained via taxation. This is because tax revenue provides a flow of funds for the development of priority infrastructure in industrialised nations such as New Zealand, Sweden, Germany, and Great Britain[1]. In Nigeria, as in other nations throughout the world, the government must collect revenue from taxes and other sources to support fundamental social amenities, such as health care, that provide inhabitants a sense of purpose in life.

Due to their developmental consequences, the acquisition and distribution of these public services are often an incentive for tax payers to improve their quality of life and level of living[12]. Consequently, it is anticipated that tax revenue will stimulate infrastructure development, while the size of infrastructure projects will generate tax revenue through voluntary payment[1,13]. This shows that the government must be honest in its smart use of increased tax revenues for public health expenditures in order to promote economic growth in a nation[14,15].

Infrastructure, refers to any actions that are under the scope of "Social Overhead Capital"[16]. SOC encompasses public utilities such as electricity, telecommunications, water supply, sanitation & sewage as well as public works like roads, dams, and drainage[17]. It is necessary for the growth and development of every nation to have infrastructure in place. In other words, one may argue that infrastructure encompasses all public services intended to serve the public (e.g., provision of law and order, education, health care, transportation & telecommunication, electricity, drainage, etc.)[18]. In Africa, the lack of infrastructure is evident, and this has impeded the continent's growth and development. The majority of African nations lag behind other industrialised nations[19].

In addition, according to the United Nations, 884 million people do not have access to drinkable water and 2.6 billion people do not have access to basic sanitation services[20]. Infrastructure is crucial to a nation's development prospects. The soundness of a country's infrastructure may affect its ability to diversify its production, deal with population expansion, reduce poverty, and improve the welfare of its citizens[21]. Therefore, every nation seeks infrastructure development, and to do so, they must engage in local or international revenue mobilisation. Revenue mobilisation in developing nations has become essential in recent years.

There are three tiers of health service provision in the public sector: primary, secondary, and tertiary[22]. At the primary level, preventative, curative, primitive, and pre-referral care are delivered at the doorstep of communities[22]. Nurses, community health officers, community health extension workers (CHEWs), and environmental health officers are medical personnel who perform these services. At the secondary level, general hospitals offer medical, laboratory, and specialist health services, including surgery, paediatrics, and genecology, among others[23]. Doctors, nurses, midwives, laboratory scientists, and pharmacists comprise the majority of secondary-level health workers. General hospitals are the usual facility type. However, tertiary health care is the highest degree of health care in the country[23]. The facilities consist of specialised and teaching hospitals together with government medical centres. They are equipped with advanced technology for specialised health services and function as knowledge generation hubs[23].

Nigeria has a poor health status compared to other developing nations in the same category. According to a 2011 report by World Bank, the life expectancy is 52 years. It was estimated that 124 out of every 1000 newborns do not reach the age of five. Only 39.56 percent of males and 42.25 percent of females live to be 65 years old. There are over 3 million people (15-49 years old)

living with HIV[23]. In Nigeria, the expenditure pattern reveals that just a small amount is spent on the health sector. In 1997, 4.6% of GDP was allocated to health care expenditures. The percentage grew to 6.6% in 2005 before falling to 5.8% in 2009[23]. The total expenditures for 1997, 2005, and 2009 (in millions of naira) were 134,522, 972,921, and 1,596,571, respectively[23]. The number is indicative of the nation's lack of commitment to enhanced health service and delivery.

Government modifications to Nigeria's tax structure have resulted in an increase in revenue. Reforms such as the introduction of Taxpayer Identification Numbers (TIN) and numerous others were implemented to refocus the revenue authority's attention towards producing more tax income[25]. Recent tax numbers indicate that, as a result of these measures, tax revenue has increased and improved dramatically. However, the important question is whether or whether this rise has favourably impacted the health care infrastructure. In spite of the claimed increase in tax revenue and annual government spending on infrastructure, the state of Nigeria's health infrastructure has remained poor and remains a major source of concern for all stakeholders[1,23].

Complementing this issue, tax revenue mobilisation to finance development operations in Nigeria has been a challenging issue due mostly to different forms of opposition to tax collection[1]. In addition, the health workers' union's numerous complaints about the deterioration of the country's health infrastructure, which led to constant industrial strikes, have continued to aggravate the situation in the sector[26]. This scenario inhibits economic activity and thus renders the nation's health sector objectives unattainable. In this regard, citizens are occasionally leaving the nation to receive medical treatment. As a result, it is of utmost concern whether or not the increase in tax revenue has resulted in the development of health care infrastructure and assisted the economic process in Nigeria.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

With recent worldwide crises causing variations in the global oil price, oil revenues have been declining and uncertain. Since tax revenue forms the greatest portion of non-oil government earnings, there is an immediate need to prioritise it. To pay the country's ever-growing infrastructure deficit, the government must produce sufficient tax income. The tax money generated through the years, however, has remained chronically insufficient for addressing the growing infrastructure deficit, particularly in the health sector of the economy, and for expanding growth potentials. To enhance actual tax collection, the Nigerian government has lately updated its tax policy and administration by adopting an electronic tax system and introducing Taxpayer Identification Numbers (TIN) to monitor both tax payers and officials.

Despite recent estimates of increased tax revenue and annual projections of government expenditure on infrastructure, the physical condition of Nigeria's infrastructure, particularly the health sector, has been terrible, causing great concern among all stakeholders in the country. For example, the health sector and hospitals have deteriorated further as a result of antiquated equipment and insufficient power supply, as well as the departure of many of our skilled doctors and other sector-wide strikes.

As a result, the key concern is whether the rise in tax revenue has genuinely enabled infrastructural development, notably in the health sector, as well as economic growth. Current research has demonstrated that tax income and infrastructure development are significant in explaining economic growth[6,27,28]. Moreover, research indicates that the provision of infrastructure has a substantial impact on economic growth[29]. Furthermore, it has been proved that tax money significantly contributes to economic growth[30]. To the best of the researcher's

knowledge, research on how tax income creation affects Nigeria's health infrastructure is lacking. To that end, the study investigates the effects of tax revenue on Nigeria's health care infrastructure development.

1.3 Aim and Objectives of the Study

The aim of this research is to investigate the impact of tax revenues collected by the federal government of Nigeria on infrastructural development of the health sector. The research specific objectives are structured as follows:

i. assess the influence of Company Income Tax (CIT) on infrastructure development of the health sector in Nigeria.
ii. examine the effect of Petroleum Profit Tax (PPT) on infrastructure development of the health sector in Nigeria.
iii. determine the role of Value Added Tax (VAT) on infrastructure development of the health sector in Nigeria.
iv. access the impact of Education Tax (ET)on infrastructure development of the health sector in Nigeria.

1.4 Research Questions

1. Is there any effect of Company Income Tax (CIT) on infrastructure development of the health sector in Nigeria?
2. What is the impact of Petroleum Profit Tax (PPT)on infrastructure development of the health sector in Nigeria?
3. How does Value Added Tax (VAT) affect infrastructure development of the health sector in Nigeria?

4. What is the impact of Education Tax (ET) on infrastructure development of the health sector in Nigeria

1.5 Hypotheses

$H_0$1: Company Income Tax (CIT) has no significant impact on infrastructural development of the health sector.

$H_0$2: Petroleum Profit Tax (PPT) has no significant impact on infrastructural development of the health sector

$H_0$3: Value Added Tax (VAT) has no significant impact on infrastructural Development of the health sector.

$H_0$4: Education Tax (ET) has no significant impact on infrastructural development of the health sector.

$H_0$5: There is no joint relationship significant influence of Company Income Tax (CIT), Petroleum Profit Tax (PPT), Value Added Tax (VAT) and Education Tax (ET) on infrastructural development of the health sector in Nigeria.

1.6 Significance of the Study

The study will contribute to knowledge in multiple ways. First, it is anticipated that the findings of this study will contribute to the management science literature on taxation revenue generation and health infrastructure development. The findings will be beneficial for verifying current theories under harsh conditions not found in affluent economies, where the majority of taxation's earliest studies were conducted. The findings and conclusion will provide regulatory agencies

with insight into the existing condition of taxes in Nigeria and the possible responses. In addition, this study will act as a resource for Nigerian university students engaged in accountancy and other relevant courses. This study's findings will also serve as a resource for accounting students, lecturers, and scholars. It will also serve as a catalyst for further research on the topic.

1.7 Scope of the Study

This study will explore the impact of tax funds received by the federal government of Nigeria on the growth of infrastructure in the health sector. This study will be carried out in Oyo State. This study examines the impact of tax revenue collections on the growth of the nation's health-care infrastructure from 2013 through 2022. The study will analyze secondary data from the CBN Statistical Bulletin and the Internal Revenue Service. Revenue Collections from Company Income Tax (CIT), Petroleum Profit Tax (PPT), Education Tax (EDT), and Value Added Tax (VAT) will serve as proxies for Tax revenue collections, while Government spending on health infrastructure will serve as a proxy for Health Care Infrastructural Development.

1.8 Limitation of the Study

Every research project has constraints, and this project is no exception. The research's main limitation is its reliance on secondary data. Primary data from government expenditure on health infrastructure from the CBN Statistical Bulletin and data on tax revenue the Federal Inland Revenue Services (FIRS) which would have had a significant impact on the study's outcome, were not feasible.

1.9 Operational Definition of Terms

Health Care: maintenance or improvement of health via the prevention, diagnosis, treatment, amelioration, or cure of disease, illness, injury, and other physical and mental impairments in people.

Health Sector: Statutorily established to provide Nigerians, regardless of their location within Nigeria's territorial jurisdiction, with health care services.Health Infrastructure entails the personnel, facilities, and structures necessary to provide world-class health care. It refers to the components of basic hospital service delivery, including structural and preventative maintenance of facilities.

Infrastructural Development: Infrastructural development is the process of enhancing the real output of a society over a specified time period by investing in capital-intensive projects that contribute significantly to the improvement of the living standards of its population.

Tax: It is essentially a charge levied by the government for the general benefit. This study, on the other hand, defines tax as an obligatory levy imposed by the government on eligible individuals, products, or activities for specified or inferred purposes in the national interest.

Taxation: Taxation is a veritable source of income generation to help a country's economy expand and offer essential amenities to its citizens.

Tax Revenue: Tax revenue is the total amount earned by the government in a particular time from the administration of all types of taxation imposed by the legislative.

Endnotes

1. O. M. Lateef, I. O. Lasisi, D. Adegboye, A. Ajepe, & B. N. Isife, *Tax Revenue Collections and Health Care Infrastructural Development in Nigeria.* **Journal of Finance and Accounting**, 10(1), 2022, 19-24.

2. J. Clemens, & S. Veuger, *Implications of the COVID-19 Pandemic for State Government Tax Revenues*. **National Tax Journal**, 73(3), 2020, 619-644.

3. W. E. Pibowei, *The Impact of Gas Exploration Taxes on Economic Growth in Nigeria (1981-2020).* **SSRN Comparative Political Economy Fiscal eJournal**, 9(40), 2021, 1-20.

4. I. K. Ofori, P. E. Ofori, & S. Asongu, *Towards Efforts to Enhance Tax Revenue Mobilisation in Africa: Exploring Synergies between Industrialisation and ICTs*. **European Xtramile Centre of African Studies Working Paper**, WP/21/058, 2021, 1-30.

5. B. B. Orbunde, J. O. Aromona, & A. Jacob, *Impact of Petroleum Profit Tax (PPT) on the Growth of the Agricultural Sector of Nigerian Economy.* **Bingham University Journal of Accounting and Business**, 5(1), 2020.

6. A. A. Adenugba, & C. F. Ogechi, *The Effect of Internal Revenue Generation on Infrastructural Development: A Study of Lagos State Internal Revenue Service.* **Journal of Educational and Social Research**,3(2), 2013.

7. U. B. Cornelius, *Economic Meltdown and the Nigerian Oil-Dependent Economy*. **Studies in Politics and Society**, 2010.

8. N. O. Udezo, & J. K. Onuora, *Effect of Tax Reforms on Revenue Performance in Nigeria*. **Journal of Innovative Finance and Economics Research**, 9(1), 2021, 118-30.

9. A. Oseni, *The Effects of Value Added Tax on Government's Revenue Generation Profile in Nigeria: A Conceptual Approach***. International Journal of Economics and Financial Management**, 2(4), 2017, 2545-5966.

10. J. O. Anyaduba, & E. J. Aronmwan, *Taxes and Infrastructural Development in Nigeria*. **Nigerian Journal of Banking, Finance and Entrepreneurship Management,** 1(1), 2015, 14-28.

11. O. R. Oyewumi, O. J. Otusanya, & G. B. Adeyeye, *Infrastructural Development and Tax Compliance of Small and Medium Enterprises Owners in Lagos State, Nigeria.* **Global Journal ofAccounting**, 6(1), 2020, 12-23.

12. S. Taddesse, *Taxation for Sustained Prosperity: Collaborative Tax Policy Setting & Administration*. Bublish, Inc., 2022.

13. O. O. Oluyombo, & O. M. Olayinka, Tax Compliance and Government Revenue Growth in Nigeria. **Lapai International Journal of Administration,** 1(2), 2018, 245-253.

14. U. Ewa, W. Adesola, & E. Essien, *Impact of Tax Revenue on Economic Development in Nigeria.***International Business Research,** 13(6), 2020.

15. O. R. Oyewumi, O. J. Otusanya, & G. B. Adeyeye, *Infrastructural Development and Tax Compliance of Small and Medium Enterprises Owners in Lagos State, Nigeria*. **Global Journal of Accounting**, 6(1), 2020, 12-23.

16. C. U. Kalu, F. N. Onuigbo, C. P. Imoagwu & C. Njemanze, *Infrastructure in the Context of Economic Growth and Development in Nigeria: Implications for the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).* **Journal of International Economic Relations and Development Economics**, 1(1), 2021, 59-73.

17. M. C. Nwande, & G. C. Olorunfemi, *The Operation and Maintenance of Rural Infrastructure for Development in Nigeria- The Policy Options*. **International Journal of Innovative Development and Policy Studies**, 9(4), 2021, 90-101.

18. W. G. Bonga, & R. Sithole, *Problematic Infrastructure Factors affecting Development in the 21st Century for Zimbabwe.***World Journal of Economics and Finance,** 6(1), 2020, 40-49.

19. L. Edgar, *Building a Bridge between WASH in HCFs and the Right to Water through the Lens of Maternal and Child Health.* **EMORY International Law Review Recent Developments**, 2022, 34-59.

20. R. A. Idialu, *Righteousness as a Precursor to National Greatness in Proverbs 14: 34 and its Relevance for Nigerian Socio-Economic Development*. **Asia-Africa Journal of Mission and Ministry**, 23, 2021, 98-119.

21. O. B. Owino, *An Empirical Analysis of Value Added Tax on Economic Growth: Evidence from Kenya Data Set*. **Journal of Economics, Management and Trade**, 22(3), 2019, 1-14.

22. O. A. Makinde, A. Sule, O. Ayankogbe & D. Boone, *Distribution of Health Facilities in Nigeria: Implications and Options for Universal Health Coverage*. **The International Journal of Health Planning and Management**, 33(4), 2018, 1179-1192.

23. S. A. Udeorah, J. B. Obayori, & O. Onuchuku, *Health Care Expenditure and Economic Growth in Nigeria.***International Journal of Research and Innovation in Social Science**, 2, 2018.

24. I. D. Onisanwa, *The Impact of Health on Economic Growth in Nigeria*. **Journal of Economics and Sustainable Development**, 5(19), 2014, 159-166.

25. A. A. Mohamud, & N. N. Isak, *Reforming the Tax System of the Federal Government of Somalia.***Journal of Tax Administration**, 5(2), 2019, 125-137.

26. E. O. Olorunsuwa, A. D. Ajayi, M. D. Bot & I. H. Baamshal, *Medical Negligence and Challenges of Healthcare Delivery in Nigeria: A Review of Some Selected Cases.* **Global Journal of Health Related Researches**, 4(1), 2022, 148-162.

27. W. O. Ajiteru, L. O. Adaranijo &L. A. Bakare, *Tax Revenue and Infrastructural Development in Osun State*. **International Journal of Innovative Finance and Economics Research,** 6(2), 2018, 50-61.

28. R. Adeleke, T. Osayomi, & T. Adeoti, *Does Sub-national Government Revenue have an Effect on Socio-Economic and Infrastructural Development in Nigeria? A Geographical Analysis*. **Regional Science Policy & Practice,** 13(5), 2021, 1603-1614.

29. A. T. Olufemi, O. L. Jayeola, A. S. Oladele & A. O. Naimot, *Tax Revenue and Economic Growth in Nigeria*. **Scholedge International Journal of Management & Development,** 5(7), 2018, 72-85.

30. O. K. Olushlola, B. O. Oliver, M. E. Okon & O. D. Osang, *Tax Revenue and Economic Growth in Nigeria: An Econometric Approach.***IIARD International Journal of Economic and Business Management**, 6(2), 2020, 52-60.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

2.1 Conceptual Review

2.1.1 Infrastructural Development

Infrastructure is commonly viewed as the basic and necessary services that must exist for development to occur. Infrastructure can also be viewed as the physical structures required for the functioning of society[51]. These particular elements serve as a catalyst for development and the betterment of citizens' wellbeing. There are two sorts of infrastructures: "Hard" Infrastructure and "Soft" Infrastructure[51]. The term "hard" infrastructure refers to the large physical networks required for the operation of a modern industrial nation, whereas "soft" infrastructure refers to all of the institutions required to maintain a country's economic, health, cultural, and social standards, including the financial system, education system, health care system, government system, law enforcement, and emergency services[51]. Infrastructure development can be viewed holistically as continuous per capita income growth rates.

The presence of physical, social, and economic infrastructures can support and expedite infrastructural development. It involves enhancing the quality of infrastructure components such as roads, power, ICT, water, and sanitation[51]. Infrastructure has been used as a catch-all phrase for numerous endeavours. The development of a country's infrastructure is critical to the development of its industries and economy as a whole. Power, roads, telephones, trains, irrigation, water supply and sanitation, ports and airports, storage facilities, and oil and gas pipelines are all examples of infrastructure. Infrastructure is viewed as critical to enabling inclusive and long-term economic prosperity. As a result, a large amount of policy emphasis has been focused on infrastructure development in order to improve the growth, productivity, and quality of life of developing-country inhabitants[51].

With the absence of these infrastructure and services, progress will be nearly impossible. Traffic congestion, irregular electricity supply, inaccessible roads and networks, inadequate telecommunications services, and inadequate drinking water are all characteristics of Nigeria's present infrastructure[52]. According to certain writers discussing Nigerian highways, the density of these roads is the lowest in Africa[51]. In addition, they claim that 31% of roads are paved, compared to 50% in middle-income countries. In the present development policy perspective, there has been a recent emphasis on infrastructure development[51]. To do this, governments will require a significant infusion of revenue, which can be collected through taxation. Infrastructure is a collection of social amenities such as transportation and communication that are built to promote society's overall well-being. As a result, infrastructure development is the combination of facilities and social services undertaken to improve a nation's quality of life. Infrastructure development investments are critical for both developed and developing countries to achieve long-term growth. However, in many developing economies, the current infrastructure stock deteriorates, and public expenditure for infrastructure expansion is decreased or poorly accounted for[1,51].

Filling the 'infrastructure gap' would thus need a coordinated effort to protect the quality of current infrastructure capital, as well as openness in the financing and implementation of ongoing infrastructure development projects and initiatives. Infrastructure accounts for the vast bulk of a country's public sector capital stock, and research on public capital is largely concerned with the effects of infrastructure on economic growth and productivity. Infrastructure investment and development create an enabling environment for economic growth and advancement[52].

Additionally, infrastructure can be described from two perspectives. The first perspective identifies all infrastructure elements that provide public services such as transportation,

communications, education, energy, and water[52]. The second perspective identifies all infrastructure elements that provide public services such as transportation, communications, education, energy, and water[52]. According to the first approach, infrastructure can be defined as capital assets that generate public services, because infrastructure inherently possesses features of a public good, such as non-excludability and positive externalities[54].

Though infrastructures do not always display these traits to the same extent, the term "infrastructure" can also apply to public goods that are not necessarily infrastructure, such as military equipment[54]. There may also be privately held infrastructure that is not necessarily subject to infrastructure characteristics like non-excludability[53]. Infrastructure can alternatively be defined as the stock of all basic facilities, including capital equipment, that are essential for the maintenance of productive activity and the effective operation of a country[55]. It encompasses "Social Overhead Capital," "Economic Overheads," "Overhead Capital," and "Basic Economic Facilities"[53,56]. It is a "umbrella" term for several social and economic elements. Although there is not yet a globally recognised definition of infrastructure, almost all definitions include the notion that infrastructure relates to long-term capital goods provided by government or the private sector[53]. Infrastructure is divided into two parts: economic infrastructure and social infrastructure. Roads, telephones, power lines, motorways, railroads, airports, seaports, supplies, and sanitation are all examples of economic infrastructure[51,57].

Social infrastructure, on the other hand, refers to those types of infrastructure that contribute to the enhancement of human welfare and living conditions. Such social infrastructure is believed to boost the health, educational, and cultural levels of the population[51]. Included among them are hospitals, schools, universities, libraries, clinics, hospitals, parks, and sculptures. Infrastructural development comprises increasing a country's capital stock by financing investments in basic

physical infrastructure such as train lines, roads, airports, bridges, and water distribution, as well as human capacity development[53]. Overall, these investments benefit the country's economic performance, promote foreign direct investment, and drive local entrepreneurship and small businesses, resulting in economic growth and increased productive capacity and welfare.

Infrastructure investment is the entire public gross fixed capital formation (GFCF) and includes "the total net value of general government acquisitions of fixed assets over the accounting period, plus fluctuations in the valuation of non-produced assets (such as subsurface assets)"[55]. The IMF (2015) reports that after three decades of consistent decline, infrastructure investment as a proportion of GDP has begun to rise in certain regions of the world[53]. Average public investment in advanced economies (AEs) has continuously declined from a peak of just under 5 percent of GDP in the late 1960s to a record low of just over 3 percent of GDP in 2012[53]. In contrast, public investment rates in emerging markets (EMs) and low-income developing countries (LIDCs) peaked at over 8% of GDP in the late 1970s/early 1980s, dropped to approximately 4-5% of GDP in the mid-2000s, and have subsequently rebounded to 6-7% of GDP[53].

Consequently, public investment rates in AEs are at record lows, but they have largely risen in EMs and LDCs over the past decade[53]. Some scholars employ a spending paradigm to characterise infrastructure investment. According to the authors, infrastructure investments are in and of themselves public or budget expenditures that can be made annually to expand infrastructure in specific locations and so grow the existing public physical capital stock[53]. This includes the construction of roads, ports, schools, hospitals, and so on. This perspective parallels the notion of public investment in national accounts statistics, which is capital expenditure. The authors believe that the enhanced emphasis on meeting the MDGs through "big push" plans centered on boosting investment levels is one of the factors that have increased the importance of

countries accelerating their infrastructural development efforts[43]. Using the "golden rule of public investment" as a lens, some researchers defined infrastructural investment as government spending channeled into the development of infrastructures that will have positive effects on the economy by supporting economic growth[53,57].

In addition, the breakdown of Nigeria's Infrastructural Master Plan reveals that energy will cost $1 billion, transportation will cost $775 billion, agriculture, water, and mining will cost $400 billion, housing and regional development will cost $350 billion, ICT will cost $325 million, social infrastructure will cost $150 billion, and vital registration and security will cost $50 billion. This Plan vividly illustrates the enormous investment gap in Nigeria's infrastructure development. The catastrophic status of the nation's transportation infrastructure is depicted by the $775 billion necessary for the transportation industry. Only 21 km/sq. km (18%) of the federal road network's 197,000 km are paved. The government contributes only 24% of required funding. On the other hand, researchers estimate that Nigeria has a housing deficit of 17 million units[59]. This can be resolved if the nation can produce one million housing units year for the following seventeen years[58]. These figures demonstrate Nigeria's infrastructure development lag. Without private investment, the federal government cannot close this funding deficit. In its National Policy on Public-Private Partnership, the government acknowledges that it must make enormous investments beyond its available resources to close the infrastructure gap. And that it believes the private sector can play a significant role in contributing a portion of this increased investment via public-private partnerships. Achieving these indicative infrastructure goals for Nigeria would cost $14.2 billion year, the most of which would be allocated to federal infrastructure spending[58].

Infrastructure Charge

The requirement for housing is inextricably linked to urbanisation. While the development of houses or apartment blocks is generally privately funded, the related infrastructure (roads, pavements, streetlights, gas and power lines, water conduit, sewerage, etc.) is frequently funded by public funds. It is evident that the local charge on evaluation of building land – the infrastructure charge should play a crucial role in these circumstances. The charge on evaluation of building land is paid by the lot's owner if he has a possibility to connect it to municipal water conduit or sewerage. The initial condition is that the municipality build (i.e., finance) the water conduit and sewerage. It makes no difference whether there is a building on the land, who owns the building (since the principle superficies solo credit was not followed by the communist state in the twentieth century), or whether the owner wishes to link his land to the water conduit or sewerage system[59].

The crucial moment to set the charge duty is the moment when the land´s owner can connect the land to the municipal water conduit or sewerage. It must be a new water conduit or sewerage, not a reconstruction of the existing one. The generally binding ordinance must be adopted till the end of the year in which the municipal water conduit or sewerage was approved. This rule causes problems in practice, especially if the water conduit or the sewerage is approved at the end of the calendar year. It would be more convenient to set a one-year limit after the approval of the structure[59].

The charge rate can be the difference between the prices before and after the possibility to connect the lot to water conduit or sewerage at maximum. The charge rate must be published in the generally binding ordinance. The price of land varies for different types of development, i.e., it depends on the purpose of construction built on the land (e.g., family houses, apartment buildings, buildings with social care services, hotels and restaurants, buildings for services and

trade, buildings for industry and storage, sports buildings or agricultural buildings). Therefore, the charge rate can be set differently according to the individual categories of building land. However, within one category (of the same type of development), it must be set in the same way[60]. While maintaining the principles of equality, the charge rate may be set a. differentially – separately for each plot of land, provided that such a rate determination would be evidenced by the exclusivity of the valuation of the plot in comparison with the valuation of the other plots; b. with different rates for sets of plots of land having the same or similar qualitative character; c. with one rate for all land affected by the construction of a water conduit or sewerage. However, for land valued in the same way, a charge rate must be always uniform. If the municipality decides to set the charge at one rate for all land affected by the construction of water conduit or sewerage, it must set the charge rate according to the valuation of the land with the lowest price with respect to the purpose of development[59].

Infrastructural Development in Nigeria

Infrastructure is often seen as the basic and necessary services that must be provided if development is to take place. Infrastructure refers to the physical structures required for society to function[61]. Infrastructure is defined as those specific aspects that act as a catalyst for development and improved citizen welfare. Infrastructural development can be viewed holistically as sustained rates of income per capita increase. The presence of physical, social, and economic infrastructures can support and accelerate infrastructure development. Development will be nearly impossible if these infrastructure and services are not in place[62]. Traffic congestion, unreliable power supply, inaccessible roads and networks, poor telecommunication services, and bad drinking water are all characteristics of Nigeria's present infrastructure. When describing Nigerian roads, it was discovered that the roads had the lowest density in Africa. They also claim

that 31% of roads in low-income nations are paved, compared to 50% in middle-income ones. Recently, infrastructure development has been prioritized in the federal government of Nigeria's current development policy vision 20: 2020. To do this, governments will need a significant infusion of revenue, which can be obtained through taxation[63].

2.1.2 Healthcare Infrastructure

Integrates all facilities established for the treatment of a disease and other human ailments with a high degree of timeliness, efficiency, and safety[1]. Improving the public care system and society is a genuine means of improving human dignity and well-being[1]. Researchers disagree as to whether health causes economic growth or economic growth causes health improvement[1]. Other research have focused on whether increased government health-care spending contributes to economic growth. All of these considerations show that long-term government revenue sources, such as taxation, can have an impact on a good public health system.

2.1.3 Taxes in Nigeria

Taxation is the principal source of revenue for the government's activities. Taxation is the method by which nations execute policies to redirect private-sector funds to the public sector[1]. Taxes are described as a reliable source of money for the government to implement its programs[2]. From these definitions, it is clear that taxes are a means through which the government finances its varied activities. Taxes can be either direct or indirect, based on who carries the tax burden[1]. Direct taxes, such as the Personal Income Tax, Corporate Income Tax, Petroleum Profit Tax, and Capital Gains Tax, are levied directly on the income and property of individuals and corporations, whereas indirect taxes are levied on individuals or groups who are not intended to bear the burden or incidence, but will shift it to others. Indirect taxes are often charged on goods or

services, with the burden falling on the eventual payers and users rather than the producer or initial payment. Customs, excise, stamp, and value-added taxes are included. The principal sources of tax collection for the government are CIT, PPT, and VAT, as well as education tax, which was enacted and revised in response to the need for enormous infrastructural development[5].

PPT, on the other hand, is the Nigerian tax on petroleum extraction profits. Furthermore, education tax represents the Nigerian government's 2 percent of assessable profit[9]. The primary goal of this levy is to fund the necessary physical infrastructure for learning and teaching in the nation's higher education institutions, which includes the healthcare facility[1].

Federal, state, and local governments collect taxes from individuals and businesses to fund expenditures[10]. The government needs this revenue to fund its growing spending. To generate revenue from taxes, the government levies a tax on the profits and income of individuals and businesses, respectively[10]. Taxation is the primary source of revenue for modern governments, accounting for 90% or more of their average income[6,11]. This shows that tax revenue is a mandatory levy imposed by the government through its agencies on its citizens' income, consumption, and capital[12]. These taxes are levied on personal income, including wages, earnings, dividends, interest, and discounts[13]. Additionally, business profits, petroleum profits, capital gains, and capital transfers are subject to this tax[13]. To provide security, the government imposes a levy on its subjects or their property.

2.1.3.1 Tax Revenues Collected by the Federal Government of Nigeria

According to the Federal Inland Revenue Services, there are various sorts of taxes paid in Nigeria[7]. Included are Corporate Income Tax (CIT), Value Added Tax (VAT), Petroleum Profits

Tax (PPT), Personal Income Tax (PIT), Stamp Duties (SD), Withholding Taxes (WHT), Capital Gains Tax (CGT), National Information Technology Development Levy (NITDL), and Tertiary Education Tax (EDT)[7].

Company Income Tax (CIT)

The tax system allows the government to collect the revenue required to carry out its primary tasks. A tax is an obligatory charge imposed by the government on a person or his property in order to provide security, social amenities, and conditions for society's economic well-being[14]. Tax can alternatively be inferred as an obligatory payment made by all parties to the government of a country from which critical services are provided, without necessary elaborating on how the funds were spent or correlating the services with the money collected[15].

CIT is a business tax. It is available at a 30% rate on the income of any registered corporation that is not engaged in petroleum operations[15]. In a closed economy, corporate taxation is relatively simple, but it becomes more complicated when corporations operate in multiple countries[15]. Although corporation income tax is not the largest contributor to tax revenue in Nigeria, it is one of the most essential taxes collected by the federal government and aids in the development of various crucial sectors in the country. Businesses can access government services such as better road networks, effective and efficient communication, energy and water supply by paying taxes. The government also develops human resources by constructing universities and technological institutes, which help enterprises to run properly and productively. Consequently, the amount of tax paid by these enterprises should be a significant indicator of the contribution they contribute to the economy as they operate[6].

CIT is levied on profits accruing in, earned from, brought into, or received in Nigeria in regard to any trade or, rent, premium, dividends, interest, and any other source of yearly profit[16]. Nigeria introduces corporate income tax in 1961, which is regulated by the Federal Inland Revenue Services[17]. Profits earned, derived, brought, or received in Nigeria by all Nigerian corporations must be subject to Company Income Tax. Taxes paid by both governmental and private limited liability firms on the revenue of non-resident corporations doing business in Nigeria are also included[18]. Rent on property use, dividends, interest, royalties, discounts, charges, annuities, and payments for services performed are all examples of annual profits or gains[18]. Therefore, the Nigerian Company Income Tax Act is collected from both Nigerian and international corporations. In Nigeria, corporate income tax is one of the most important sources of revenue for the government. The CIT law has been revised several times since its establishment, and the CIT rate varies according to business type and annual income[19].

The Federal Inland Revenue Service is entirely in charge of the corporate income tax in Nigeria[19]. Act II of 200720 modifying the Companies Income Tax Act is the current enabling legislation. S.84 of the CITA 1990 defines a company as "any person or corporation other than a sole corporation formed by or under any law in force in Nigeria or elsewhere"[20]. Companies created and registered by the Companies and Allied Matters Act or any statute replaced by the Act are recognised in Nigeria as companies[20]. Although CAMA defines a foreign company as a corporation incorporated outside of Nigeria, the existence of foreign corporations in Nigeria for commercial reasons is not recognized. It just defines it for the purpose of identifying it so that it can comply with the necessary incorporation processes prior to conducting business in Nigeria and qualify for registration exemption[20].

The Companies Income Tax Act provides a broader definition of Company. A Company is defined under Section 105 of the Act as "any Company or Corporation (other than Corporation Sole) constituted by or under any legislation in force in Nigeria or elsewhere"[6,20]. According to this definition, the Act recognises both Nigerian and international corporations, albeit on different grounds[6]. The corporate income tax rate is currently 30% for all registered corporations except those engaged in petroleum operations. It is one of the principal federal taxes collected, and it contributes to the funding of national growth and development. Given widespread worry about government budget deficits for a long period, it seems appropriate to advocate for tax rate reductions. These calls are based on the belief that the statutory income tax rate is disproportionately high, putting an unnecessary burden on Nigerian enterprises and contributing to poor economic performance.

The statutory Company Income Tax rate, which has been 30 percent since 1996, is higher than the tax rate in other developed nations (those in the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), while the effective tax rate is comparable to other African nations[22]. The United States (US) effective tax rate averaged 27.7 percent from 2006 to 2010, while the average effective tax rate for 21 OECD countries was 23.5 percent. This OECD average assigns equal weight to the tax rates of both major and small countries. However, Nigeria Company Income Tax rates applicable to companies beginning in 1961 are as follows: 1 April 1961 - March 1972 - 40%, 1 April 1979 - 31 March 1986 - 45%, 1987 - 1988 - 40%, 1989 - 1990 - 40%, 1992 - 1995 - 35%, and 1996 - present - 30%20. Based on the data presented above, it is clear that no country, large or small, levies a rate as high as Nigeria's current 30 percent.

Figure. 2.1: Nigeria CIT

Source[23]

According to the diagram, the Federal Inland Revenue Service (FIRS) collected N532.48 billion in Company Income Tax (CIT) on behalf of the federal government of Nigeria in the first quarter of 2022, representing a 35.6% increase over the same period in the previous year. In the first quarter of 2022, company income tax collection grew by 35.6% compared to the same period in 2021. The company's quarterly income tax revenue climbed by 53.1% over the fourth quarter of 2021, when compared to N347.81 billion[23].

Classification of the Assessment in Company Tax

Best of Judgment (BOJ): This is how tax is assessed by the applicable tax authority when no financial data or tax returns have been provided to the tax authority to be used as a basis for the assessment[23]. Since the company's financial data are unreliable, the BOJ's method of assessment may be used[23].

Self-Assessment of Tax Payable: This is a system in which a corporation pays tax in installments and is authorized by the relevant tax authority to estimate its chargeable revenue and tax liabilities for the assessment year[24]. Section 53 of the Company Income Tax Act (CITA), 2011 provides for self-assessment of tax liability[23].

The Currency of Assessment: This section specifies the currency of a company's tax assessment, as specified in section 54. According to this section of the Act, an income tax assessment made pursuant to sections 52, 53, or 55 of this Act shall be made in the currency in which the transaction giving rise to the assessment was conducted[23].

The Company Income Tax Act is the enabling legislation for taxing companies in Nigeria. The Act was first enacted in 1961[17]. Since then, it has undergone numerous alterations and amendments, culminating in the Act of 2007. The Federal Internal Revenue Service (FIRS) administers the income tax of corporations. Except for enterprises engaged in exploration, drilling, and extraction of petroleum, a company's income is liable to tax based on total profit or chargeable profit. Non-resident corporations are subject to taxation in Nigeria if their profits or gains are attributable to activities conducted in Nigeria. At a rate of 30%, corporate organisations must pay annual tax on their profits[17]. If the criteria of fairness, convenience, certainty, and administrative efficiency are applied, it is evident that Nigeria's corporate income tax administration falls short of expectations. Indeed Nigeria will rank poorly due to improper checking and inconsistent monitoring, independent contractors and micro and small businesses avoid paying taxes.

In a study on company income tax and the Nigerian economy, it was determined that noncompliance with tax laws and regulations is still ingrained in the tax system due to inefficient

internal management, despite the fact that company income tax is a significant non-oil tax source for government[25]. There is a need for a comprehensive revision and reform of the Nigerian corporate income tax structure. The corporate income tax allowed for certain exemptions. The assessable profits or income of exempted corporations are not subject to taxation. Non-profit organisations, pioneer companies, companies established by statute (whether federal, state or local government), export companies with a focus on spare parts, equipments and raw materials, companies enjoying a three-year tax holiday, such as those involved in the mining of solid minerals, and companies supplying inputs to manufacturing organizations are exempt from paying company income tax[25]. The present corporate income tax rate is 30%, but the Act additionally allows for a 20% tax rate for specialised enterprises with a maximum annual turnover of one million naira (N1M) for a maximum of five years[25]. Since 1961, Nigeria has had several Company Income Tax rate regimes, whilst Canada has a low rate of 16.5%, Germany has a low rate of 15%, Romania 16%, and Egypt 20%[6,25]. According to subsection 33(2) of the Income Tax Act (Canada), 2007, a corporation is required to pay a minimum tax if it incurred a loss from all of its activities in any assessment year, or if the assessable total profit resulted in either no tax payable or a minimum tax[5,25].

Petroleum Profit Tax (PPT)

The updated Petroleum Profit Tax Act of 2007 governs the Petroleum Profit Tax. All businesses registered in Nigeria or earning money from oil and gas operations in Nigeria are subject to a 50-85% tax on petroleum income[26]. In 2009, the petroleum profit tax imposed a tax rate of 85 percent on exports and 65.75 percent on domestic sales of oil and gas[6]. The petroleum industry is regarded as the greatest and most important contributor to Nigeria's GDP. Nigeria is Africa's most populous country. The petroleum industry's contribution to the Nigerian economy can be

assessed in terms of income. The petroleum industry has contributed significantly to foreign exchange reserves and government revenues. Given that the PPT is the greatest donor to Nigeria's tax revenue, it is reasonable to deduce that it is also one of the most important contributors to the country's infrastructural development[6]. Those nations who are sufficiently endowed with petroleum can rely their economic development on this resource. Furthermore, they highlight the potential benefits of increased economic growth and job creation, increased government revenues to finance poverty reduction, knowledge transfer, infrastructure development, and promotion of related businesses[26].

PIT is Nigeria's principal source of tax revenue. It is a system of indirect taxation imposed by the government on firms operating in the upstream sector of the petroleum industry[28]. This relates mostly to the rules about rents, royalties, margins, and profit sharing in oil mining, prospecting, and exploring contracts. Similarly, Petroleum Profit Tax (PPT) could be considered an upstream oil industry-applicable tax. In accordance with the Petroleum Profit Tax Act of 1959, however, petroleum operation consists principally of petroleum exploration, development, and production. Due to its 70 percent and 95 percent contributions to overall government income and foreign exchange earnings, respectively. PPT is one of Nigeria's most important tax collections[6,29].

The Petroleum Profit Tax Act of 1959, as amended, requires corporations to pay petroleum profit tax when they sell taxable oil and gas. The transfer of taxable oil to a refinery is considered a disposal under the PPTA in Nigeria, and the tax is dependent on the company's profit from petroleum activities. The petroleum operation, according to the statute, consists primarily of crude oil exploration, development, production, and sales. Section 8 of the Petroleum Profit Tax Act (PPTA) requires all petroleum-operating enterprises to file a return, along with an audited annual account and computations, within a certain time limit after the end of the accounting

period[29]. PPT puts a tax on petroleum operations' income. The petroleum profit tax was implemented when substantial quantities of oil were discovered in Nigeria during 1956 and 1958[73]. Nonetheless, the petroleum profit tax was implemented in 1959, noting that the importance of petroleum to the Nigerian economy prompted a new law managing the taxes of revenues from petroleum operations. The enacted Act(s) were largely supported to regulate operators in the upstream subsector of the petroleum business and to boost government revenues from the petroleum industry.

Due to petroleum's unique position in the Nigerian economy, the petroleum profit tax is an important source of government revenue in Nigeria. This tax is governed by the Petroleum Profit Tax Act (1959), as modified, and is paid on the earnings of Nigerian oil-producing enterprises in order to generate government revenue[29]. It gives the government the option of collecting additional revenue in addition to other types of income, which is required to meet the government's pressing commitments. Simply put, the purpose of the petroleum profit tax is to generate revenue to improve the welfare of a country's citizens, with a particular emphasis on promoting economic growth and development through the provision of basic amenities for improved public services through an efficient administrative system and structure. The petroleum profit tax's objectives are to generate government revenue, regulate the economy and economic activities, and control income and employment[32]. That is, the Nigerian government is in charge of establishing the level of taxes to be levied on the revenues of the country's oil companies. The petroleum profit tax is one of Nigeria's major levies in terms of revenue sharing, accounting for 95 and 70 percent of foreign exchange earnings and government revenue, respectively[6]. This is due to the oil industry's status as Nigeria's economic cornerstone. Since the early 1970s, when oil

was discovered, oil revenue has dominated the economy, accounting for about 70% of total revenue for the last 30 years[29].

Petroleum earnings tax and royalties have made a significant contribution to government revenue. Its receipts climbed from 8564,3 million in 1980 to 12504 million in 1987, 26909 million in 1990, 525100 million in 2000, and 2038300 million in 2006[33,34]. Furthermore, since its adoption in Nigeria, petroleum profit tax collections have increased. Increases in petroleum profit tax collections suggest that there are more money available for economic expansion. Furthermore, if the petroleum profit tax revenue is invested in viable initiatives, the economy will benefit by supporting growth and eventual economic independence. If, on the other hand, tax revenue is mismanaged and/or used for unproductive purposes, economic advancement would be hampered.

Objectives of Petroleum Profit Tax in Nigeria

According to a study, countries with a significant supply of petroleum can base their economic development on this resource[6,35]. They emphasize the potential benefits of improved economic growth and job creation, increased government income to finance poverty reduction, technology transfer, infrastructure improvement, and promotion of related sectors. In Nigeria, the administration of the Petroleum Profits Tax has been largely concerned with producing revenue at the expense of supporting economic growth and development. The following are Nigeria's petroleum taxation objectives:

i. To transfer wealth between wealthy and industrialized economies represented by multinational firms that control the knowledge, skills, and capital required to build the industry and impoverished and emerging economies from which petroleum is produced[35].

ii. Second, the enormous profit potential of successful oil ventures makes it a feasible source for meeting the government's sociopolitical and economic commitments to the public.

iii. Thirdly, because of the substantial potential for environmental contamination and degradation as a result of industry activity, it is a target for environmental taxes as a means of regulating its activity and supporting the government's quest of a cleaner, healthier environment[35].

iv. Fourthly, to fulfill the government's purpose of exercising right and control over public assets, the government imposes excessively high taxes in order to limit the number of industry participants and discourage rapid depletion in order to preserve some of it for future generations. This would help the government achieve its goal of regulating the growth of the petroleum sector[35].

v. Lastly, Pollution and environmental infractions might be taxed to make industry cleaner. According to the Petroleum Earnings Tax Act of 1959, while determining taxable profits from petroleum activities, an oil company may deduct all outgoings and expenses that are wholly, entirely, and unavoidably incurred for petroleum operations[35].

Value Added Tax (VAT)

The value added tax (VAT) is a kind of consumption tax. It is imposed at each stage of the consumption chain and is borne by the final user of the product or service[36,37]. The incremental value that a producer adds to his raw material purchases before selling the processed goods or services is defined as value added tax[38]. African countries such as Benin Republic, Cote d'Ivoire, Kenya, Madagascar, Mauritius, Senegal, Togo, and Nigeria have implemented VAT. In numerous nations, VAT has become a significant source of government revenue. VAT was

adopted in Nigeria, namely in 1993, although full-scale implementation began in 1994[27,39]. Despite a series of revisions to the Act27, the government can claim it at a rate of 5% of the value of goods and services, the lowest in the world. VAT is an ideal type of tax that has made major contributions to the development of Nigeria's infrastructure. According to research, VAT is expected to be Nigeria's second long-term source of total federally collected revenue[40]. VAT was implemented in Nigeria in 1991, but went into effect on January 1, 1994, as required by the VAT Decree 1993. VAT is a type of indirect taxes based on people's overall consumption[41]. Value added tax is the difference between the rise in the value of products or services during the manufacturing or delivery process, and it is a tax on the value added rather than the overall value of goods or services sold[27]. Value added is computed by deducting from the value of goods or services the cost of other goods or services utilised in the process of producing the goods or providing services[35]. The IMF defines VAT as a "indirect tax imposed on each sale beginning from the start of production to the distribution cycle that adds up to the customer," which implies that each seller in the distribution chain embraces VAT from the time of purchase to the time of sale, which means the VAT is added to the sales price[42]. The following items are exempt from paying value added tax:

i. Medical and pharmaceutical products

ii. Basic food items such as beans, yam tubers, rice, cassava, millet, meat, fish, and infant foods,

iii. Books and educational materials including exercise books, laboratory equipment, school fees, PTA.

iv. Newspapers and Magazines,

v. Baby products such as feeding bottles, carriages, clothes, napkins, baby cream and powder, soap and toys,

vi. Commercial vehicles and their spare parts,

vii. Agricultural equipment/products and fertilisers, veterinary medicine, whereas exempt activities include: medical services, community bank and people's bank services, plays and performances held by educational institutions. Furthermore, all diplomatic commodities are VAT-free, including house rent, private transactions such as occasional sales of domestic or household activities, furnishings, personal effects, and private motor vehicles[43].

All manufacturers, distributors, importers, and suppliers of goods and services in Nigeria must register for VAT[44]. VAT registration is required for accountants, lawyers, architects, and engineers, among others. VAT registration grants registered individuals several rights and duties. The VAT inspector has the right to visit registered persons on a regular basis to provide advice. It has been claimed that VAT is progressive in nature and, as a result, has a number of advantages, including a shift in taxation toward expenditures rather than income, thereby resolving evasion issues; however, other schools of thought contend that VAT causes inflation. As a result, the average guy will suffer: Companies have also argued that VAT will raise the cost of their products, lowering demand. VAT supporters argue that it is a more reliable and predictable source of government revenue, while VAT opponents argue that it will impose additional administrative costs for which they are unprepared. As a result, the VAT is a consumption tax that is collected throughout the manufacturing process. The origins of Nigeria's value-added tax may be traced back to the country's income tax law and practice[43].

Given the low voluntary compliance with our tax laws, Dr. S.P. Okongwu, the previous Minister of Budget and Planning, convened a 20-member study group in 1991 to review the entire tax system. Because of the low voluntary compliance with our tax laws, the study group advocated establishing VAT in Nigeria. As a result, the government at the time established an MVAT committee to perform feasibility studies on the implementation of VAT in Nigeria[43].

VAT is classified into three types: production VAT, where only the value of non-capital purchases is removed, gross net product GNP VAT, and consumption VAT, where only the value of capital purchases is deducted43. In the absence of foreign trade, consumption VAT becomes W+P+D = C+I, where W represents wages, P profits, D depreciation, and C and I represent consumption and investment, respectively[43]. The income VAT allows a company to deduct the entire value of its noncapital purchases from other businesses, whereas the wages VAT does not. In order to assess the tax base, a company might deduct its net income from its capital[43].

VAT is a consumption tax levied on the rise in the value of goods and services during their production or distribution. VAT is also a consumption tax that is applied at each stage of a transaction but is ultimately borne by the final consumer of the taxed products or services[36]. It is governed by the 1993 VAT Act No. 102 and went into effect on January 1, 1994[45]. VAT is a self-assessment tax that is paid when tax returns are filed with the government[27]. Despite the fact that VAT is a multi-stage tax, it has a single effect and does not raise consumer prices above the specified rate, regardless of the number of stages at which it is paid[44]. In Nigeria, the Federal Inland Revenue Service (FIRS) manages the Value-Added-Tax System in close collaboration with the Nigeria Customs Service (NCS) and the State Internal Revenue Service (SIRS)[20].

The VAT Act empowers FIRS to conduct VAT-related corporate inspections, audits, and investigations. Despite the fact that this is dependent on each country's policy, and recent commentary on the tax system indicates that VAT is directly proportional to a nation's economic growth and development, VAT as a consumption tax was considered and implemented globally because it matched the revenue needs of countries in an increasingly globalised economy. The value-added tax rate of 5% on taxable products and services in Nigeria has not altered twenty-four years after its enactment and implementation. Furthermore, FIRS circulars did not clarify the extent of language like "basic food" and "medical care". Despite the fact that the increase to enhance coverage is superior, there has been agitation from many sectors to increase the VAT rate, but it has not received the approval of the Nigerian government's legislative arms. Only by reforming the VAT in accordance with the rate of global economic development will the issue of revenue expansion be addressed. Consumption taxes account for the vast majority of internally generated revenue in modern economies. Many taxable items and services are included in tables 2.1 and 2.2[20,43].

Table 2.1: Taxable Goods and Rate of Tax In Nigeria VAT Act 2007 as Amended Provided

Taxable Goods and Services (Selected Goods)

S/N	Taxable Goods	Previous Rate (%)	Present Rate
1.	All goods manufactured and assembled in Nigeria	5	7.5
2.	All goods imported into Nigeria	5	7.5
3.	Household Furniture and Fittings	5	7.5
4.	Petrol & All Petroleum Products	5	7.5
5.	Jewels and Jewelries	5	7.5
6.	Textiles, carpets and clothes	5	7.5
7.	All Vehicle Parts	5	7.5
8.	Cigarettes and Tobacco	5	7.5
9.	Soaps and Detergent	5	7.5
10.	Mining and Minerals	5	7.5
11.	All agricultural products	5	7.5

Source: Researcher's Compilation, 2022

Table 2.2: VAT Services

S/N	Taxable Goods	Previous Rate (%)	Present Rate
1.	Legal Services	5	7.5
2.	Services Rendered	5	7.5
3.	Financial Institutions	5	7.5
4.	Accounting and Auditing	5	7.5
5.	Computer Services	5	7.5
6.	Architects	5	7.5
7.	Surveyor	5	7.5
8.	Engineering	5	7.5
9.	Repairs	5	7.5
10.	Air Travels/Car Hire	5	7.5
11.	All Goods and Services	5	7.5

Source: Researcher's Compilation, 2022

The standard rate of value-added tax is 7.5% (raised from 5% on February 1, 2020)[46]. Goods and services purchased by diplomats, as well as items purchased for use in donor-funded humanitarian activities, are examples of zero-rated commodities. Exempted include plants and machinery for use in export processing zones (EPZs) or free trade zones (FTZs), basic food items (based on a list), medical products and services, pharmaceutical products, books and educational materials, and exported services[46]. Government agencies and oil and gas companies are required to deduct and remit the VAT charged by their suppliers. All other businesses must collect value-added tax from their customers and remit it to the tax authorities. The Finance Act of 2019

established a reverse charge mechanism for services that did not generate a tax invoice. VAT returns must currently be submitted in cash[46].

For the automatic collection and remittance of VAT, the FIRS has developed a platform known as FIRS VAT-Collect46. Domestic airlines and other retailers use the technique to quickly recoup VAT on ticket sales. The Minister of Finance released the VAT Modification Order 2021, which replaces the VAT Modification Order 2020 and expands the list of exempt items listed in the VAT Act's first schedule[46]. Non-resident enterprises rendering services to Nigerian clients are expected to charge, collect, and submit VAT in the transaction currency to the Federal Inland Revenue Service (FIRS).

Education Tax (ET)

The education tax decree No. 7 of 1993 requires enterprises registered in Nigeria to pay 2% of their assessable income as education tax, to be distributed in the ratio of 50:40:10 to higher, primary, and secondary education, respectively[47,48]. Universities, polytechnics, and colleges of education get the remaining portion of higher education financing in a 2:1:1 ratio. In 1995, the government established the education tax fund, requiring businesses with more than 100 employees to contribute 2% of their pretax earnings to the fund[49]. Primary education receives 40%, secondary education 10%, and higher education 50% of these monies[49].The education tax is assessed alongside the corporate income tax. Non-compliant parties must pay 5% plus interest at the commercial rate[13]. Act No. 40 of (22nd Dec.) 1998 altered the operation of the Education Tax Fund (ETF) in response to the widely acknowledged drop in educational standards and the severe deterioration of infrastructure and other facilities at all levels of the Nigerian educational system[15]. The ETF ensures that education tax funds are used to improve the quality of education in Nigeria

by funding educational facilities and infrastructure development, promoting creative and innovative approaches to educational learning and services, stimulating, supporting, and enhancing improvement activities in educational foundation areas such as teacher education, teaching practice, and library development, and championing new literacy-enhancers.

The Education Tax arose as a result of the establishment of the Education Fund. The fund is managed by the Board of Trustees formed under Section 4 of this Act50, which was established for the rehabilitation, restoration, and consolidation of education in Nigeria. The Board of Trustees is made up of a chairman, six individuals representing the country's six geopolitical zones, the Accountant-General of the Federation, a representative of the Minister of Education, the Vice-Chancellors of Nigerian Universities, the Rectors of Polytechnics and Colleges of Education in Nigeria, the Provosts of Colleges of Education in Nigeria, the National Chamber of Commerce, Industry, Mines and Agriculture (NCCIMA), and the Manufacturers Association of Nigeria. Furthermore, the makeup of the Board of Trustees must reflect the Federation's six geopolitical zones, and board members are chosen for their vast competence in the public and private sectors, particularly the commercial, financial, and educational sectors[50].

Generally, the functions of the Board of Trustees include the following:

i. monitor and oversee tax collection by the Federal Inland Revenue Service and transfer to the Fund;
ii. administer and disburse the tax; and
iii. coordinate with the appropriate Ministries or entities in charge of tax collection or safe-keeping.
iv. receive requests and, after due consideration, approve admittable projects;

v. ensure disbursement to various levels and categories of education;

vi. monitor and evaluate project execution;

vii. invest funds in appropriate and safe securities;

viii. update the Federal Government on its activities and progress through annual and audited reports;

ix. monitor progress and suggest improvements within the limits of this Act; and

x. do any other things necessary or ancillary to the Fund's objectives under this Act or as may be assigned by the Federal Government[50].

The Board of Trustees is responsible for administering the Act's levy and disbursing funds from the Fund to Federal, State, and Local Government educational institutions, including primary and secondary schools[50]. These include:

i. Works centers and prototype development;

ii. Staff development and conference attendance;

iii. Library system at various levels of education;

iv. Research equipment procurement and maintenance;

v. Higher Education Book Development Fund;

vi. redressing any imbalance in the enrollment mix of higher education institutions; and

vii. Execution of the nine-year compulsory education programme.

When dividing the tax among the several levels of education, the higher education section is supposed to get 50%, the primary education section 30%, and the secondary education section 20% of the revenue collected in any given year[50]. Furthermore, the tax accruing to the higher

education portion shall be distributed in the ratio of 2:1:1 among universities, polytechnics, and colleges of education[50].

Furthermore, the Board of Trustees is expected to administer, manage, and disburse the tax imposed by this Act on the basis of equality among the Federation's six geopolitical zones; equality among the States within a zone; and equality among local governments or area councils within a State or the Federal Capital Territory, Abuja, respectively.

Nonetheless, the Board of Trustees shall have the authority, based on the provisions of subsections (1), (2), (3), and (4) of the act, to take into account the particularities of each geopolitical zone in the distribution and management of the tax imposed by this Act between the various levels of education[50]. Finally, failure to pay the Education tax results in a penalty. The penalties for a first offense is N10,000 or three years in prison, while the fine for a second or subsequent offense is N20,000 or five years in prison, or both fine and imprisonment[50].

2.2. Theoretical Framework

For this study, three theories were used. They include optimal theory of taxation, political economy theory of fiscal policy and benefit received theory

2.2.1 Optimal Theory of Taxation

This theory has three main proponents: Ramsey (1927), who proposes linear commodity taxes to boost revenues and redistribute, Pigou (1920), who advocates linear commodity taxation to account for externalities, and Mirrlees (1971), who advocates nonlinear income taxation[1]. The theory employs a normative tax analysis method based on traditional welfare economics tools. According to the theory, a tax system should be able to collect taxes in a way that is fair to

individuals, removes blockage and meddling in economic decisions, and does not impose undue costs on taxpayers or tax administrators. The goal of optimum taxation theory is to maximize the social welfare of individuals in society. The social planner is frequently viewed as a utilitarian with a social welfare function based on the individual utilities of society members in optimal taxation. According to the argument, the government is the social planner and is responsible for developing a reasonable tax system to generate money and benefit taxpayers. The primary goal is to choose a tax system that maximizes the welfare of society's citizens. In layman's terms, the government's social planner is in charge of supplying[1].

The goal of this theory is to maximize the social welfare of individuals in society. The social designer is naturally treated as a functional in optimal taxation, with a social welfare function based on the values of individuals in society. According to OPT, the government is the social developer, and it is responsible for establishing a good tax system for both revenue generation and the well-being of taxpayers. The fundamental goal is to select a tax system that improves citizens' well-being. However, government are saddled with provision of varieties of infrastructural facilities such as road construction and other indispensable facilities to fulfilling life through tax revenue[64].

Optimal taxation theory considers how taxes can be stretched to give the best outcomes in terms of social welfare[65]. It features two models, the Ramsey rule and the Laffer curve model[66] .

The Ramsey model produces the functions which argued that the excess burden of taxation will be minimized by setting the ratio of taxation inversely proportional to price elasticity of demand for tangible and intangible electronic products. This model implies that governments try to reduce the excess burden (efficiently loss) of taxing within the constraints of a particular revenue

requirement. According to Ramsey rule, the "optimal" taxation rate is the rate that minimizes the excess burden of taxation while still generating the requisite revenue from tangible and intangible electronic company. The Laffer curve, designed by economist Arthur Laffer, posits that the government will try to earn as much money as possible while disregarding the efficiency losses imposed by taxing. Only constitutional limitations and additional legislation can curb the government's drive for more revenue. The Laffer curve addresses the inverse relationship between taxation and physical and intangible electronic products, as well as the influence on tax revenues. The analysis demonstrates that a higher tax rate is not always the most effective rate; in electronic commerce transactions, a lower tax rate may produce more tax revenue than a higher tax rate[67].

Given that taxes are the primary source of revenue by which the government finances its activities, such as infrastructure development in the health sector, the theory is relevant to this study because it explains that a tax system should be able to raise taxes in a way that treats people fairly, reduces obstruction and interference in economic decisions, and does not impose undue costs on taxpayers or tax administrators.

2.2.2 Political Economy Theory of Fiscal Policy

According to the notion, governments levy taxes and use the proceeds to finance infrastructure investment in order to expand the availability of public goods and services and to pursue the supply of specified, high-quality public infrastructure. The theory makes it abundantly clear that tax revenue collection is primarily meant to improve the state's "fiscal capacity" so that it can conduct infrastructure development spending and investment, which can greatly raise growth and economic performance. According to empirical data, during periods of low tax receipts,

governmental investment on infrastructure is typically one of the areas most harmed[50]. A plausible explanation for this could be that positive gains from infrastructure investment are not immediate and have a long lag when compared to other direct government spending, such as transfers and wage increases, which have immediate gains and benefits that affect the majority of the population. However, it is important to note that the size of the effect of revenue creation on public investment spending might vary due to variances in macroeconomic structure, economic conditions, and level of development[53]. Consequently, within the context of the political theory of fiscal policy, the current challenge, particularly for developing economies such as Nigeria, relates to the policy decisions made by the government, which determines how best to allocate the limited resources collected into alternative competing sectors[53].

The theory advances the viewpoint that governments raise tax revenues and then use the collected funds to finance infrastructure investment in order to improve the availability of public goods and services and to pursue the supply of specific quality public infrastructure. The theory explicitly states that the purpose of collecting tax revenues is to strengthen the state's "fiscal capacity" to undertake infrastructure development spending and investment, which can subsequently go a long way toward stimulating growth and economic performance. According to empirical evidence, when tax revenues are low, one of the areas that suffers the most is public spending on infrastructure[68]. A plausible reason for this could be that the positive gains from infrastructure investment are not immediate and have a long lag when compared to other direct government spending such as transfers and wage increases, which have immediate gains and benefits that affect the general population. However, given variances in macroeconomic structure, economic conditions, and level of development, the magnitude of the effect of income generation on public investment spending may vary[69].

This theory became relevant to this study because it clearly states that the purpose of collecting tax revenues is to improve the state's fiscal capacity to undertake infrastructure development spending and investment, which can then go a long way toward stimulating growth and economic performance, particularly in the health sector.

2.2.3 Benefit Received Theory

The theory is based on the assumption that taxpayers and the state have an exchange relationship. The state offers some products and services to members of society in exchange for a proportionate contribution to the cost of these supply. Taxes should be levied based on the advantages derived from government spending[70].

Proponents of the notion contend that an exchange relationship exists between a people's government and tax payers. On the basis of this relationship therefore, the government has a responsibility of providing goods, services and basic infrastructures for use by members of the society, who in return are expected to make contributions through taxation in proportion to whatever benefits that may have been derived from their access to the amenities, infrastructures, goods and/or services provided by government[71]. Impliedly, a contractual relationship exists between a people's government and the taxpayers; as such, the government has a responsibility to provide public goods and/or services, while the taxpayers bear the costs associated with the provision of such public goods and services in proportion to the level of benefits[72].

Clearly, the BRTT assumes that inhabitants of a state or country should be taxed in proportion to their consumption of social goods and/or government services. The argument held that residents would pay more taxes if they felt they had reaped significant benefits from the state's operations. The argument further suggested that government services cannot be quantified and assessed

because certain citizens who pay taxes do not have the opportunity to enjoy them. Since every government's revenue should be reinvested in fundamental infrastructure and social amenities for long-term economic development, the researcher believes that the BRTT is appropriate for this study.

As a result, this theory is pertinent to this study since it examines the benefits of taxation as assessed by the state's capital infrastructure and the level of economic growth.

2.3 Review of Empirical Studies

In a study titled tax revenue and infrastructure expectation gap in selected sub-Saharan African countries. The adequate provision of infrastructure is seen as an agent of growth in countries all over the world. However, Sub-Saharan African countries are struggling with great developmental challenges attributable to infrastructural deficiencies. Governments expand their budgets on a yearly basis to ensure efficient transportation, telecommunications, electricity, and water infrastructures, among other things, in order to boost economic growth. Ironically, government spending on infrastructure in this region is viewed as a waste of scarce resources because investment in the expansion of these economies does not physically portray infrastructure development, creating a gap in stakeholders' expectations. The study found that tax income had a significant effect on the entire infrastructural expectation gap in Sub-Saharan Africa. According to the study, tax revenue influenced the gap in infrastructure expectations in Sub-Saharan African countries. It was suggested that governments in Sub-Saharan African countries prioritize stakeholders' interests while making strategic decisions in order to close the infrastructure gap in these countries[73].

A study seeks to determine the extent of relationship between tax administration and tax revenue in plateau state. The specific objective of the study was to examine the effect of tax effectiveness on revenue generation of plateau State. The design adopted in this study was survey and the population of the study was 400 staffs of plateau state revenue board. Sample size was determined using Krejcie and Morgan table which resulted in 196. The major approach of the study was a questionnaire survey, with analyses performed using SPSS version 23. To establish the relationship between the independent variable tax revenue and the dependent variable tax revenue, the correlational method was applied. The findings demonstrate a significant and favorable association between tax administration and tax revenue. The findings also demonstrated a strong positive link between tax effectiveness and tax revenue. As a result, the study indicated that tax revenue can be used to generate more revenue. Furthermore, significant revenue leads to progress. According to the study, tax collection devices utilized by tax officers must be devoid of corruption and theft. If this is not done, revenue collected may fall short of expectations, and the Federal Government, state governments, and local governments should urgently fully modernize and automate all of their tax systems, improve tax payer convenience in the assessment and payment process, while also instituting effective and modern human resource management practices in tax authorities, among other recommendations. This study gives important insight into the relevance of tax income for the government, stakeholders, and policymakers[74].

In a study titled urban infrastructure financing in India: applying the benefit and earmarking principles of taxation. As a result of their agglomeration, knowledge, and networking externalities, cities in developing nations, like India, are engines of economic growth and structural transformation. However, there is a significant mismatch between their functions and

budgets. As such, they have continuously neglected fundamental urban public infrastructure, which are vital to sustaining growth. This is perplexing because externalities in cities provide unexpected benefits to both stationary and mobile elements. Surprisingly, no mention of benefit taxation is made. The equity of taxation is an approach for funding urban infrastructure. To answer the needs of planned urban development in India, this study proposes integrating the golden rules of local public finance, principles of benefit taxation, value capture financing and earmarking, borrowing, tax increment financing, and tax-sharing in the spirit of cooperative federalism. The conclusions are applicable to other emerging countries as well[75].

A study is geared towards investigating the impact of tax revenues collected by the government on infrastructural development in Nigeria. This study is limited to taxes collected by Nigeria's federal government. A longitudinal research design was employed. This design was chosen after observing variables over a period of time (1980 to 2014). The Error Correction Model was used to analyze the hypotheses raised. According to the findings, CIT and TET have a substantial impact on the degree of infrastructure development, whereas PPT and VAT have little impact. Based on these findings, the report suggests, among other things, that tax administration, particularly VAT administration, be done in such a way that collection and remittance cannot be evaded so that its effect may be properly seen in the extent of infrastructural facilities and also, future researches can improve on this study by employing multi-proxy approach rather than the single proxy[63].

A study examined indirect taxes and road construction in Nigeria. The public's ongoing demand for accountability has raised concerns regarding the impact of tax revenue on road development in Nigeria, as a result of the government's incessant collection of taxes with no matching effect on a good road network. As a result, the purpose of this research is to assess the influence of

indirect taxes on road construction in Nigeria. From 1985 through 2020, the study looked at the effects of customs and excise duty, as well as value added tax, on road construction. Secondary data was acquired from the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS), the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN), and the Financial Intelligence Review Service (FIRS), as well as other pertinent official publications. The data was analyzed using Ordinary Least Square (OLS), ADF Unit root test, Co-integration analysis, VECM, and Granger causality text to assess the causality among the variables involved. The study found that both VAT and CED have a positive and considerable impact on road building in both the short and long run. The study indicated that indirect taxes had a strong positive impact on Nigerian road construction. It is recommended that the government expend more efforts to increase the coverage of value added tax in Nigeria in order to increase value added tax income mobilization, and that revenue derived from indirect taxes be spent wisely, particularly towards the provision of good road infrastructure in Nigeria[64].

In a study titled impact of taxes on the export-import tendencies in the countries of the EU in unstable present-day. Both researchers and politicians are interested in the issue of tax and transfer rationales. Taxation is one of the primary sources of government revenue and is regarded as a valuable resource for the welfare state. Taxation has an impact on the development of international trade and company because the latter picks a more appealing location with a lower tax burden and costs. However, the country's prestige, competitiveness of sectors, infrastructure development, safety, and transparency are all key criteria for domestic and foreign industry and investors. That is why it is critical to investigate the impact of taxes on export and import policy. This article examine the evolution of export-import tendencies in EU countries from 2002 to 2018. Statistics are computed for the EU-28 countries. The findings reveal that tax revenue values as a percentage of GDP change slowly and vary little from predetermined levels. A

similar pattern may be seen in the major tax categories, but the fiscal lag for direct taxes, indirect taxes, and social contributions varies. According to research, distinct export-import strategies and taxation structures predominate across EU countries. The model is based on a system of two equations and employs an econometric technique to examine the influence of taxes on the evolution of export-import patterns in the EU. The analysis shows that lowering export tax rates has a positive effect on the intensity of export activities in the short term, but it may increase the national economy's reliance on foreign markets in the long term. Thus, lower import tax rates help to strengthen domestic producers' competitiveness in foreign markets while intensifying competition in the domestic market[76].

A research evaluated the impact of environmental taxes on mitigation of pollution in agriculture. The study challenge is centered on the increasing worldwide environmental pollution, the decline of countries' natural potential, and the significance of exploring effective solutions to these issues. The study examines the impact of environmental taxes as an environmental policy tool for reducing pollution and increasing agriculture's natural potential. Environmental taxes are one of the most important weapons in the EU for reducing GHG emissions. The research goal is to conceptually support the role and impact of environmental levies on pollution reduction in agriculture. Environmental taxes have generic and specialized aims, and they are related to traditional tax functions such as fiscal, regulatory, and redistributive. The discovered environmental taxes' strengths, shortcomings, applicability, and limits allowed for the assessment of these taxes' prospects in terms of pollution reduction. The environmental taxes were classified according to numerous attributes in the classification schemes. Furthermore, environmental tax objects, particularly those in agriculture, were discovered and validated. The possibilities and constraints of applying environmental levies to agriculture in the context of the European Green

Deal implementation were described. To demonstrate the problem's importance, the following theoretical approaches were used: Scientific literature analysis, comparative analysis, systemic analysis, document analysis, generalization analysis, and other common research methods are all examples of common research methods. The bibliometric method was used in the analysis of the relations between environmental taxes goals and functions from the theoretical perspective[77].

A study examined empirically, the impact of company income tax on infrastructural development in Nigeria. The research design used in this study is ex-post facto. Secondary data from the CBN statistical bulletin, the Federal Inland Revenue Service (FIRS), and the National Bureau of Statistics for various years were used in this analysis. The data spans the years 1981 to 2017. The dynamic Least Squares for co-integrated regression data analysis technique is used in this work. The study's findings show that corporation income tax is often not characterized by threatening fluctuations year after year over the period. This is a good indicator for policymakers because it means that, over the business cycle, corporate income tax collection will retain some significant consistency and hence may be relied on in forecasting, budget planning, and fiscal coordination. At the 5% level, the results show that the coefficient is positive and statistically significant. As a result, we reject the null hypothesis that CIT has no beneficial and significant impact on Nigerian infrastructure development. According to the study, the government should focus on increasing and encouraging corporate income tax revenue. The positive relationship between Company Income Tax and Infrastructural Development indicates that a higher Company Income Tax will result in increased infrastructural development in Nigeria; therefore, efforts should be directed toward broadening the tax base, ensuring transparency in collections, and ensuring proper utilization[69].

A study accessed comparative effect of tax revenue on economic growth of selected African countries. Revenue from taxes is frequently viewed as a substitute for long-term financing within a stable and predictable fiscal framework in order to foster economic growth and ensure government financing of citizens' social and infrastructure demands. The objective of this study is to look at the impact of tax income on economic growth in ten countries from Africa's five sub-regions: West Africa, Southern Africa, North Africa, Eastern Africa, and Central Africa. As a statistical tool for analysis, the study used various OLS regression techniques. According to the study, CIT, PIT, CED, and VAT as a whole have no substantial impact on the GDP of Botswana, Cameroon, Tunisia, DR/Congo, Egypt, Ghana, Kenya, Nigeria, and Uganda. On the contrary, CIT, PIT, CED, and VAT as a whole have a considerable impact on South Africa's GDP. The study recommended, among other things, that African countries implement and maintain policies that will promote continuous and sustainable growth in tax revenue from customs and excise duty, personal income tax, corporate income tax, and value added tax, all of which are progressive in nature, and ensure that tax revenue generated is adequately utilized to ensure long-term economic growth[70].

A research focused on administrative tolerance and tax revenue. Raising sufficient tax revenue is one of the main objectives of all governments at any given moment. Thus, any policy that goes in this direction and which does not undermine or compromise the rule of law and threatens the sustainability of the government is a welcome initiative. In this context, the term 'administrative tolerance' first appeared in Cameroon's public administrative landscape. The difficulty with this phenomena today is that the initial foundation upon which it was founded is now under threat of extinction due to the dishonesty and selfishness of some administrative officials in both public and commercial enterprises. The purpose of this study was to look at the impact of the synergy

between administrative tolerance implementation and tax income on a sectoral level. Because the data for the study were secondary, the expofacto research design was utilized, and a model was constructed to suit the study's aim. SPSS Version 23.0 was used to analyze the data, and a multiple regression model was used. The findings revealed a synergistic relationship between Administrative Tolerance and Tax Revenue over the study period, using the three proxies of Private Secondary School Enrollment as a percentage of Total Secondary School Enrollment, Commercial Services Exports measured in current US dollars, and percentage Fuel Export as a percentage of Total Merchandise Exports. As a result of the study, it was discovered that Administrative Tolerance in the Private Secondary Education sector has a considerable positive influence on Tax Revenue, whereas any similar tolerance in Commercial Services Exports and Fuel Exports has a negative effect on Tax Revenue. This study suggests that the government establish a framework for Administrative Tolerance that specifies when, how, and to what extent such tolerance should be applied to each sector. A blanket policy should not be applied to all sectors at any same time because it may have a detrimental impact on tax revenue[78].

A study analysed the Determinants of tax revenue an empirical evidence from Pakistan. Raising tax revenue is a critical question for non-resource-based revenue-generating economies. Few studies have been conducted to investigate the relationship between economic and financial variables and tax income. This question has never been addressed by researchers in Pakistan. In the example of Pakistan, this analysis uses economic and financial issues as exogenous variables and tax income as an endogenous variable from 1980 to 2019. The study used ARDL Bound Testing since it comprises data from stationary variables at the level and first difference. According to the study, financial characteristics positively influence tax revenue, whereas per capita income has an inverse association with tax revenue. According to the study's findings,

financial variables such as bank capital to total asset ratio, bank non-performing loans, and the bank risk premium on lending are positively related, while economic variables such as broad money and foreign development assistance are negatively related, with the exception of per capita income. According to the study's findings, growing reliance on indirect taxing results in a negative connection between tax revenue and national income since it disproportionately affects the poor. It implies that established financial institutions, inclusive growth, money market consolidation, and a progressive tax structure could assist the economy in generating more rewarding income generation activity. Indirect taxes leads to disparity and regressive taxation, both of which impede economic growth; therefore, it is suggested efficient taxation with more portion of direct taxation by the study[79].

In a study titled governance: a source to increase tax revenue in Pakistan. Improved governance in any economy indicates government stability, secured law and order, and minimum internal and external conflicts. A greater level of governance may demonstrate that economic activity and tax revenue collection are performing well. Thus, it is critical in any growing country to explore the relationship between governance and tax revenue collection). As a result, we intend to analyze the impact of governance on tax revenue in Pakistan using inflation and industrial value-added as control variables). Using data from 1976 to 2019, the Autoregressive Distributive Lag (ARDL) cointegration technique is used to determine the long- and short-run effects of postulated variables on tax revenue. The findings of a cointegration on the hypothesized model show that government stability, law and order, and internal and external conflicts have a positive and significant impact on tax income in both the long and short run. Hence, it is concluded that governance is an important source of increasing tax revenue in Pakistan. Furthermore, industrial value-added and inflation have a favorable impact on tax income. Based on these findings, it is

suggested that the government make concerted efforts to strengthen governance and industrial operations in order to increase tax revenue collection[80].

The study evaluated the effect of electronic commerce transactions on tax revenue. The purpose of the study was to investigate the degree to which e-commerce transactions and tax income are mutually beneficial. This aimed to validate or disprove the fear that e-commerce facilities are being utilized as ways for tax avoidance, negatively impacting tax income and leaking the nation's tax purse. In Nigeria, the impact of e-commerce transactions on tax collection was studied utilizing ATMs, POS, mobile phones, and web transfers. The study used an ex-post facto research design, taking into account data from e-transactions and tax income. Data for the study were gathered from the CBN annual report, CBN economic evaluations, and Federal Inland Revenue Service publications. To investigate the impact of each payment terminal on tax revenue, a symbiosis analysis was performed. For the hypotheses tests, the ordinary least square (OLS) regression method was used, and it was discovered that e-commerce transactions of ATM and web transfers have a significant effect on tax revenue, whereas point of sales (POS) and mobile phone transactions have a significant effect on tax revenue but not as much as ATM and web payments. Poor consumer education contributed to the low meaningful effect of POS and mobile phone transactions. It was concluded that there is a symbiotic, albeit commensurate, relationship between e-commerce transactions and tax revenue, and that e-commerce transactions contribute significantly to the volume of tax revenue generated in a modern market economy that has evolved in accordance with global payments mode. It was recommended that the Federal Inland Revenue Service work with other well-meaning organizations to educate low-income consumers about the simplicity of making and receiving payments through electronic

terminals. Similarly, revenue agencies demand some changes to ensure that all taxable etransactions are effectively tracked, captured, taxed, remitted, and accounted for[66].

A study aimed to analyze the economic impacts of infrastructure investment in Africa, focusing on the Guinea-Bissau economy. The study discover that natural resource revenues (or aid)-funded infrastructure projects generate externalities that boost factor returns using a dynamic CGE model. Improvements in private investment have a multiplier effect on GDP and job prospects. Household income and spending increased, with the poor benefiting the most. Income disparity has decreased. However, funding through a combination of debt and direct taxation has the opposite impact. We propose an African pro-poor growth agenda[81].

A study evaluated the effect of tax revenue on foreign debt in Nigeria. Debt is a salvaging factor to cushion the effect of recurrent budget deficit, a connecting bridge for the gap between revenue and expenditure as well as means of financing sustainable growth in an economy. However, Nigeria's debt profile, both domestic and international, continues to rise despite the country's poor economic performance; thus, this study looked at the impact of tax income on foreign debt. The study employed an ex post-facto research design, with 39-year time series data (1981-2019) acquired from the CBN Statistical Bulletin 2019 and FIRS annual reports. The data were deemed authentic and reliable after being validated by the authorized agencies. The data was analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. The study's findings demonstrated that tax collection had a substantial impact on Nigeria's foreign debt. It is recommended that the Nigerian government focus on developing an acceptable policy mix and establishing feasible measures to broaden the tax base, as the existing level of tax collection is insufficient to cushion the rise in the country's foreign debt profile[82].

A research on the effect of real sector output on tax revenue in Nigeria was conducted. Tax revenue has remained the most reliable and controllable source of revenue to governments all over the world. This is not the case in Nigeria, where tax money makes for a modest part of total government revenue. As a result, this study looked into the impact of real sector output on tax income in Nigeria. Ex-post facto study design was used with validated macro data acquired from 1981 to 2017. Several tests were performed, including descriptive statistics, trend analysis, and stationary tests utilizing the Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) test. The ARDL bound test was used to examine whether the variables had a long run relationship. The study revealed that real sector output had a considerable positive influence on tax revenue collection in Nigeria after controlling for inflation and exchange rate. Furthermore, the exchange rate and inflation rate had a major moderating effect on Nigerian tax revenue. In addition, the granger causality test found that there is no bi-directional relationship between real sector output and total tax revenue. The report advised that the government strengthen its efforts to stimulate growth in the real sector of the economy in order to obtain long-term increases in tax income. Furthermore, the government's macroeconomic policies on currency rates and inflation rates should be implemented in a way that maximizes revenue from taxes[83].

A study examined the effect of tax revenue on the economic development of Nigerian, and to ascertain whether there is any difference in using HDI and GDP in establishing the relationship. The approach used in this study was to build a linear model of tax revenue and human development index using ordinary least square (OLS) regression technique and error correction model (ECM) using annual time series data from 1995 to 2015. The findings from the study indicate a favorable and significant association between tax revenue and economic development. The results also show that when the effect of tax revenue on economic

development is measured using HDI, the relationship is weaker than when the link is measured using GDP. This implies that using GDP to assess economic development provides a specific view of the relationship between tax income and economic development in Nigeria. Despite the fact that both have a positive and significant relationship, the results produced by utilizing GDP to measure Economic growth differs from economic development as measured by HDI. As a result, we argue that tax money can be used to promote economic development in Nigeria. However, we believe that policy on tax income for economic development should be based on the human development index rather than the GDP. As a result, this study gives useful insight for stakeholders, government, and policymakers into the relevance of tax revenue for economic development; tax revenue should be sensibly used for economic development if we want to urge citizens to continue paying tax[84].

Another research was focused on the effects of political risk factors on tax revenue in Kenya. In the post-independence period, Kenya enacted a wide range of tax reforms with the goal of increasing tax income to promote economic growth while reducing dependency on external support. The majority of the measures have aimed to broaden the revenue base. However, tax receipts continue to be insufficient, and deficits have persisted. Previous research on tax revenue growth examined the influence of the foreign sector, stage of development, demographic considerations, and sectoral mix on tax revenue growth. These research' models did not account for political risk factors such as democratic accountability, bureaucratic quality, and internal conflict. Such variables can have a large direct or indirect impact on tax collections. Using data from 1984 to 2016, this study calculated tax revenue models with these parameters captured. According to the findings, a rise in the quality of bureaucracy and democratic accountability leads to an increase in tax income. Institutional efficiency has been proven to increase tax

collections during times of social turmoil, indicating the presence of a displacement and inspection effect. Internal disagreements have been demonstrated to reduce tax income. In order to enhance tax collections, the Kenyan government and its revenue authority should strengthen the quality and effectiveness of institutions, as well as implement effective control measures on acts of civil war, terrorism, and civil unrest[85].

In a study titled explaining specific taxes management and use in the health sector. Taxes contribute to government spending on the development of health care facilities and services since they are a key source of revenue and an important economic instrument for policymakers seeking to promote public health. Given the financial constraints confronting the health sector, as well as the public health issues that affect every society, levying special taxes on certain commodities, services, and activities can be useful in this regard. The study attempts to describe the numerous characteristics of specific taxes in the health sector, as well as the management of these resources to meet health system goals. In 2020-2021, a qualitative research design was used to conduct semi-structured interviews with open-ended questions. In total, 38 managers, policymakers, economists, key experts, and other individuals were interviewed as informants. Purposive and snowball with the most variation were also used. In addition, content analysis was used to provide light on the data. The transcribed interviews were then entered into MAXQDA for code extraction and classification. This study categorized 5 main themes and 23 subthemes. Accordingly, the key subjects covered the objectives and conditions of particular health taxes, designated taxes, taxes on commodities and measures that are harmful to health, value-added taxes, and green taxes[86].

A study was designed to assess the relationship between components of tax revenue and economic development of the Nigerian economy. The ex-post facto research design was used for

this aim, and secondary time series data for the study period (2003-2017) were gathered from relevant records of suitable agencies. In this study, the components of tax revenue examined included value added tax, petroleum profit tax, personal income tax, corporate income tax, and customs and excise charges, whilst economic development was measured by real GDP and the Human Development Index (HDI). The data was examined using the Autoregressive Distributed Lag approach in conjunction with other statistical techniques. The results from the study have far-reaching policy ramifications. Specifically, it was discovered that, despite petroleum profit tax being a major component of tax revenue, its relationship with measures of economic development (real GDP and HDI) was negative, implying that revenue generated from petroleum profit tax is not properly and directly channeled to the provision of infrastructure that will boost Nigeria's economic development. Based on the foregoing, we urge that considerable percentages of PPT and other revenue be dedicated and properly channeled to infrastructure development[72].

In a study titled financial inclusion and tax revenue. Financial inclusion has the potential to bring massive quantities of income into the global economy, creating new opportunities and difficulties for countries. People's tax contributions to the government may increase as they become more financially included and their salaries grow through time. Thus, utilizing an enormous dataset of 137 nations from 2011 to 2017, this study attempts a response to the key question of whether changes in tax income are connected with changes in financial inclusion for countries around the world. The Global Findex database and panel data methods are used in this work. The empirical data indicate that there is a significant and positive relationship between financial inclusion and tax revenues, and that it is one of the tax revenue determinants. The results are consistent across several taxation sources, including corporation tax revenue, income

tax revenue, and direct tax revenue. Policymakers around the world might use this tremendous opportunity to increase tax revenues by exploring measures to increase financial inclusion[87].

A study investigated governance quality and tax revenue mobilization in Nigeria. An assessment of governance quality as a primary predictor of tax revenue collection is critical for both the government and the Nigerian people. It has become necessary as a result of many emerging economies' reliance on several taxes to raise revenue. The generation of tax revenue is critical to the achievement of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and the economic success of emerging nations. This study investigates the impact of political (political stability), institutional (corruption), and weak governance on tax revenue collection in Nigeria. The study used time series data from 2000 to 2020 to achieve this goal. Following the unit root test, the data is subjected to the Ordinary Least Square (OLS) test. According to the findings, corruption and political instability have a favorable and considerable impact on tax revenue mobilization in Nigeria. Poor governance, on the other hand, has a favorable but minor impact on Nigeria's tax revenue mobilization. The study aims to improve governance quality by reducing corruption and boosting openness in tax administration. To do so, countries must implement policy reforms such as developing an effective and severe judicial system, providing monetary incentives for tax officials to reduce the possibility of corruption, and, most importantly, extending the revenue base rather than increasing tax rates. As a result, tax administration will improve, as will the economy's overall tax revenue collection[88].

A research examined government accountability and tax revenue in Nigeria. This study was prompted by the urgent need to focus attention on, and grow, a nation's revenue, particularly from sources under her control. According to the study, if governments are regarded to be accountable, more citizens will pay their tax obligations voluntarily. The notion that government

is accountable reduces the need for coercion and the expenses of tax collection, while increasing tax income. The corruption perception index (CPI) was used to represent government accountability, while the total tax money earned by the Federal Inland money Service (FIRS) from 1995 to 2020 was used to represent tax revenue. The study's objectives were to determine the relationship between government accountability and tax income, as well as the causal relationship between the two. In the analysis, the OLS estimation and the Granger causality test were applied. According to the findings, there is no substantial predictive association between government accountability and tax revenue, and neither taxation granger nor government accountability granger causes tax revenue. According to the survey, taxpayers in Nigeria are compelled to comply with their tax duties rather than willingly. When citizens respond to government inaction with even the most little form of civil disobedience, any type of coercion is used against them. The report advocated the development of institutional facilities and mechanisms with political legitimacy in order to collect revenue from citizens[89].

A study assessed the impact of economic and financial factors on tax revenue in South Asia. Funds are imperative to meet governments' goals. Several economic and financial factors have an impact on these funds as well as the country's internal income generation policies. Only a few studies have looked at how economic and financial conditions affect tax income. There has been no research publication that considers South Asia for panel study. This study examines the impact of economic and financial factors on tax income in South Asia from 1980 to 2019. Panel ARDL and WALD tests are used in the study to ensure that the specification is met. According to the study, financial variables have a beneficial impact on tax income. GDP per capita has a long-run positive association with tax revenue, whereas per capita income has a short-run negative relationship. Financial variables such as M2 (Broad Money), Manufacturing Value

Added, and DFPS (Domestic Finance to Private Sector) positively effect tax income, according to the study's findings. GDP per capita has a positive link with tax revenue, whereas official development assistance, trade openness, and urbanization have a negative relationship with tax revenue. According to the analysis, a larger indirect tax results in a negative link between tax revenue and national income. It contends that strong financial institutions, equitable growth, a large money market, and a progressive tax structure could assist the economy in generating more rewarding income generation activity. Developing countries rely significantly on indirect taxation, which disproportionately affects the poor, generates disparities, enforces regressive taxation, and eventually stifles economic growth. As a result, the study proposes efficient taxation and a bigger share of direct taxation, which could be an effective macroeconomic strategy[90].

A study assessed the impact of non-oil tax revenue on the economic growth of Nigeria for period from 2004 to 2013. Company income tax, VAT, and customs and excise duties were purposely chosen to represent non-oil tax revenue. Data on corporate income tax, VAT, and customs and excise duties were obtained from the Central Bank of Nigeria statistics bulletin and the National Bureau of Statistics. A regression study was performed to evaluate whether or not non-oil tax revenue has a major impact on the national economy. The findings revealed that corporate income tax, value added tax, and customs and excise duties have a considerable impact on the nation's economic growth. This means that non-oil taxes are critical revenue sources in Nigeria. The study recommended that the nation's revenue base be diversified more to non-oil tax revenue in order to strengthen its impact on the economy[91].

In a study titled implications of national tax policy on local pharmaceutical production in a southwestern state Nigeria. One of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) is to provide

universal access to high-quality, affordable medications. Access to essential medicines is defined as the availability of medicine at an affordable price in public and private health institutions, including retail pharmacies, within one hour of the population's home. The country's reliance on imports to cover the medicinal demands of a rising population has ramifications for the expansion of the domestic pharmaceutical sector, as well as the availability and cost of important medicines. The purpose of this research is to better understand the dynamics of tariffs and tax policy on local medication manufacture in Nigeria's pharmaceutical industry. Key Informant Interviews (KIIs) were used in this qualitative investigation. 15 stakeholders were interviewed in all. Thematic analysis was used to analyze the conducted interviews. Atlas.Ti version 8.2 was used to analyze the generated data. The assessment of the pharmaceutical industry sub-sector highlights the industry's numerous issues and explains why the pharmaceutical businesses in Nigeria are performing sub-optimally. Key stakeholders in the industry have raised worry about the fact that a significant portion of medications taken in Nigeria are imported. Several factors are causing local manufacturing to underperform. Some of the highlighted concerns included an unfavorable tax environment, high production costs, infrastructural deficiencies, little government patronage, and a lack of access to low-interest rate loans. Tax breaks and incentives, on the other hand, are tried and true ways for encouraging and facilitating the growth of pharmaceutical enterprises[92].

In a study titled explicit knowledge and tax revenue performance, an externalization process. One of the goals of developing countries is to increase tax revenue generation in order to lessen their reliance on wealthy countries for financial assistance. Taxpayers who have access to quality and timely tax information can boost compliance and tax revenue generation. The goal of this research is to understand the mechanisms that convert tacit information to explicit knowledge for

easier access, improved compliance, and tax revenue production. To investigate knowledge externalization and tax revenue performance, qualitative data from face-to-face interviews were collected and supported by a documentary study. Twenty tax officials were interviewed face to face in a case study of the Federal Inland Revenue Service (FIRS) of Nigeria, and the data was analyzed using NVivo 10 qualitative software. This study discovered that documenting tacit information and creating a training manual can help to externalize tacit knowledge in tax administration. Furthermore, explicit understanding improved access to information, compliance, and tax revenue generation. The study suggested tacit knowledge documentation and a training manual as a tacit knowledge externalization technique to increase access to knowledge, compliance, and tax revenue production[93].

A study explored the determinants of tax revenues among EAC members. The mobilization of tax revenue in less developed countries is an empirical debate that has gotten a lot of attention. As a result, boosting the tax-to-GDP ratio is a policy choice that requires special consideration in emerging countries, particularly in lower-income economies. Meanwhile, this research will look into the factors that influence the tax revenue-to-GDP ratio in four East African Community (EAC) countries. The analysis is carried out using the Fixed and Panel data approaches, including the most recent data from 2010 to 2020.Four (4) East African Community (EAC) members comprise the sample countries. According to the findings, economic expansion has a considerable positive impact on tax revenues, whereas agricultural growth has a negative impact on tax revenue collections. The impact of the manufacturing and service sectors on tax income is negligible. To increase tax revenue performance, these countries must improve and apply the intended tax policy in order to appropriately tap growth in all economic sectors[94].

Scholars investigated tax revenue, infrastructural development and economic growth in Nigeria. Existing literature has discovered that tax revenue influences infrastructure and economic growth without examining whether infrastructure can effect tax revenue collected. Using annual secondary time series data from 1981 to 2018, this study analyzed the dynamic relationship between tax income, infrastructure development, and economic growth in Nigeria. The unit root qualities of the series were investigated using the Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) and Phillip Perron (PP) tests, while the Johansen Cointegration test was used to determine whether the series are cointegrated. The results show that all of the series are integrated of order 1 and are not cointegrated. A vector autoregression (VAR) causality test was performed, and a VAR at-first difference model was calculated, to investigate the direction of causality and the correlation among the variables. The findings show a one-way causation from tax revenue to economic growth and from economic growth to infrastructure, as well as a bi-directional causality between tax revenue and infrastructure development. The impulse response results reveal that, while tax revenue influences both economic growth and infrastructure, infrastructure has little effect on economic growth but has a considerable impact on tax revenue collected. The report advises that the government embrace fiscal responsibility by being more accountable to taxpayers in terms of providing higher-quality infrastructure that can actually encourage economic growth[95].

The study examined the effect of revenue generation on infrastructural development in Taraba State. Due to limited data availability, the study spanned the years 2010-2019. Because the study involves a time series, secondary data was used, and the data was analyzed using regression with Newey-West standard error. According to the report, IGR has a favorable impact on infrastructure development. Similarly, the Taraba State Government's gift improved infrastructure development. The study recommended that the Taraba State government exploit

other sources of revenue by utilizing tourism centers in the state such as Gumti Park, Crocodile Pond of Wukari, tourism center in Gembu, and other parts of the state that have tourism attraction centers to increase the state's IGR. There should be periodic monitoring of projects awarded by executives to ensure that contractors perform what is expected of them, and the issue of political consideration in contract granting and infrastructure execution in the state should be discouraged. The contract should be granted on the basis of merit to a contractor[96].

A study examined the relationship between Tax Revenue and Nigeria Economic Growth. Data was acquired through secondary sources to achieve this objective. Petroleum Profit Tax, Value Added Tax, and Corporation Income Tax are proxies for tax revenue, whereas Gross Domestic Product is a proxy for economic growth. The acquired data was examined using Stata computer software. According to the study, Petroleum Profit Tax (oil tax revenue) has a positive but non-significant link with Nigeria Economic Growth, but Value Added Tax and Companies Income Tax (non-oil Tax Revenue) have a substantial relationship with Nigeria Economic Growth. The study recommends that the government reduce the widespread corruption and leakages in tax administration in Nigeria, and transparently and judiciously account for tax revenue generated through the provision of higher-quality public goods and services, and that the government should not raise the rates of VAT and CIT in the short run, but instead closely monitor the operations of companies engaged in petroleum operations to reduce tax evasion[97].

A study analysed the impact of tax revenue on Nigeria's economic growth using CIT, VAT and PPT as referents for tax revenue and GDP for economic growth from 2008 to 2017. The study used an exploratory design and an ex-post fact design. The study data were derived from the CBN statistical bulletin. In order to estimate the equilibrium relationship and the cause and effect relationship between the variables in the model, the least squares technique and the Granger

Causality Test were used. The study found a positive but negligible link between the variables studied. The study then concluded that poor management of tax revenue accounts for the insignificant relationship and recommended that the government manage and utilize tax revenue efficiently and effectively by using the proceeds to provide necessary social amenities and embark on aggressive infrastructure development to ensure economic growth[98].

In a research titled tax revenue collections and health care infrastructural development in Nigeria. The major challenges confronting Nigeria's health system in terms of infrastructural decay in recent times are concerning issues for players in the health sector. The degree of neglect in the field, along with reliable revenue sources such as the taxation available to the government to fund this sector infrastructure drew the attention of stakeholders. As a result, this study examines the impact of tax revenue receipts on health-care infrastructure development in the country from 2013 to 2020. The study analyzed secondary data from the CBN Statistical Bulletin and the Federal Inland Revenue Office. Company income tax (CIT), petroleum profit tax (PPT), education tax (EDT), and value-added tax (VAT) revenue were utilized as stand-ins for tax revenue collections, while government spending on health infrastructure was chosen as a stand-in for the development of the health care infrastructure. The approach of multiple linear regression was used to analyze the data. The study finds that PPT and VAT have a significant impact on the country's health care sector's infrastructure growth. The study therefore urges effective and efficient transparent tax collection and political resolve to transparently invest this revenue to boast the development of Nigeria's health care system[1].

Scholars assessed the effect of soda taxes beyond beverages in Philadelphia. The United States (US) has adopted soda taxes in a number of localities with the goal of lowering sugar intake from sugar-sweetened beverages (SSBs). Sugar consumption is associated with obesity, a higher risk

of diabetes, and cardiovascular diseases. These levies specifically target sodas because they are the biggest source of sugar for Americans. If there are alternatives, people may switch where they get their sugar, undermining the policy. We look at the varied impacts of Philadelphia's 2017 soda tax on the buying of other sugar-containing goods. We propose an empirical analysis that focuses on potential dietary substitutions for more sugary items in Philadelphia and its neighboring counties. Following the implementation of the tax, we observe an increase in sugar consumption through purchases of sweetened items of roughly 4.3% in Philadelphia and 3.7% in the nearby communities. Philadelphia's switch to sugary meals cancels out 19% of the reduction in sugar from SSBs. In addition, when Philadelphia's neighboring counties are taken into account, we discover that the substitution cancels out 37% of the decline in sugar from SSBs. These findings imply that

while SSB taxes may be successful in reducing SSB consumption, substitution patterns may limit the tax's success in lowering overall sugar consumption[99].

A study focused on the correlation between tax revenue, investment, and economic growth, taking into account the non-linear effects of tax revenue. The World Bank database was used to extract macrodata for nine ASEAN nations between 2000 and 2020, including Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, and Vietnam. Estimates from panel data were used in this study. This study discovered statistical proof that tax income has a detrimental impact on economic growth. However, the empirical results indicated that increasing tax revenue could lessen the negative effects of tax impacts to promote economic growth when taking into account the non-linear effects of tax revenue. Taxes have a negative impact that is as clear as theories of economic growth, but it relies on the amount of tax collection. Reduced tax

income may promote saving and investment, but it also causes the government deficit to rise, which stunts economic growth by increasing government borrowing, spending, and investment. Additionally, this study offers convincing evidence of the beneficial impact of investment on economic growth in ASEAN nations across the study period[100].

A research study explored the theoretical and empirical literature on the relationship between financial development and tax revenue. Theoretically, there is evidence for both a direct and indirect relationship between financial development and tax revenue, according to a survey of theoretical literature. International commerce and economic expansion are two factors that can indirectly affect tax revenue. Tax revenue and financial development are frequently found to be positively correlated in the empirical literature evaluation. However, there are differences between the findings of earlier studies, particularly in terms of financial development measurements, financial system activity categories, and causation directions[101].

A study investigated the relationship between trade openness and trade tax revenue in Ghana. Vector Error-Correction and Unrestricted Cointegrating Models were calculated to investigate the short-run dynamics of the system, the rate of adjustment to the long-run equilibrium, as well as the static and dynamic long-run consequences. The results showed that trade openness has a beneficial long- and short-term impact on trade tax income. The Granger causality test results showed that trade openness and trade tax revenue have a one-way relationship, indicating that trade openness causes trade tax revenue but that trade tax revenue does not cause trade openness. Trade openness and official development assistance appeared to have a significant impact on trade tax revenue, according to evidence from the forecast error variance decomposition, whereas real effective exchange rate innovations had the lowest forecast error variance. A major goal of practically every nation's market-oriented policy reforms has been to open that nation up to

overseas trade. This study investigates how trade openness affects Ghana's trade tax revenue. This study educates readers on the theory of trade openness, trade tax income, and the variables influencing it in the context of Ghana. It highlights other trade openness policy topics related to trade tax income that require attention for further study. To boost trade volume, the Ministry of Trade and Industry would encourage unconventional exports. Trade volume growth spurs trade openness growth, which boosts trade tax revenue[102].

In a study on tax revenue and infrastructural development in Osun State. This study looked at the relationship between tax revenue and infrastructure development in Osun State. The study used a survey research design using the Osun state ministry of finance staff members and residents of the state as the population. A total of 102 respondents were chosen for the administration of the questionnaire using a purposive sampling technique. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the questionnaires. It was found that tax revenue is a very strong tool for infrastructural development in the State. It was also discovered that the population lacks adequate knowledge of the value of taxes, that the government is not using tax revenue effectively and efficiently, that the state's economy is struggling, which affects how willingly citizens pay taxes, that the populace has little faith in the state's government, that the latter lacks accountability and transparency, and that there is a lack of adequate information about those who are subject to paying taxes both personally and as a business. In the same vein, where citizens do not pay taxes as they should, the government will rely solely on the statutory allocation, there will be insufficient infrastructure, which will negatively affect the state's economy, there won't be continuity between succeeding governments, and finally, there won't be adequate maintenance of government properties[103].

In research titled "Does sub-national government revenue have an effect on socio-economic and infrastructural development in Nigeria"? The possible effects of the various subnational government revenue sources across the country are examined in this study. In contrast, earlier research either investigated the connection between the overall mix of tax income and the nation's socioeconomic and infrastructure development or relied on unit-level assessments. Data for this study came from the National Bureau of Statistics, Federal Ministry of Health, and Federal Ministry of Education. Spatial statistics and stepwise linear regression were used to analyze the data. The results show that federal allocation (FA), which makes up the majority of sub-national government revenue, is spatially dispersed and that states do not produce enough internal revenue. In contrast to the inverse relationships between PAYE, MDA revenue, direct assessment, road taxes, and FA and GDP per capita, employment, and the availability of educational facilities, PAYE, MDA revenue, and FA were related to the availability of health facilities[104].

An ex-post facto research on the effect of internally generated revenue on the Infrastructural development of the five South Eastern States of Nigeria using descriptive statistics, correlation and linear multiple regression for data analysis and data interpretation[105]. The results revealed a significant relationship between internally generated revenue and the cost of infrastructure.

In another study that examined the relationship between government revenue and economic growth in Nigeria. Ex-post facto and exploratory research designs were used in the study. From 1981 to 2018, secondary data were used in the study. The Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression technique was employed in the investigation. The outcome indicates that Value Added Tax (VAT) and federally received revenue have a moderately positive impact on economic growth[106].

In a similar research to study the relationship between internally generated revenue and infrastructural development in Lagos state. Secondary sources were used to collect the data. Multiple linear regressions were employed in the study. According to the report, there is a strong and positive relationship between IGR and infrastructure development in Lagos State[107].

In a study titled revenue generation as a tool for infrastructural development in Nigeria. The importance of revenue generation in Nigeria's infrastructure development was examined in this study. Every government depends on revenue (oil and non-oil) for economic growth and development, especially those of rising nations like Nigeria. This study sought to investigate the relationship between revenue and economic growth in Nigeria as well as the effect of revenue on infrastructural development in Nigeria. The Federal Ministry of Finance, Office of the Accountant General of the Federation, Official Gazettes of the Federal Republic of Nigeria and the several States, Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN), and Nigeria Bureau of Statistics (NBS) provided the time series data for this study. Utilizing the STATA 13 economic program, this study's ordinary least square regression analysis was conducted. The study's main areas of interest are Nigeria's overall income, infrastructure growth, and economic growth between 1981 and 2018. The findings of this study show that economic growth significantly affects Nigeria's infrastructure development. Additionally, it was shown that the monies gathered had a significant influence on Nigeria's economic development. The study suggests that the government step up its attempts to raise money. This enhanced effort should concentrate on raising non-oil revenues such as taxation because the oil market is unstable[108].

In another research that analysed the contribution of states' IGR to economic growth of Nigeria using panel data for the period from 2011 to 2016 across the 36 states of the federation. Descriptive statistics and the Panel Fully Modified Least Square (FMOLS) method are used to

analyze the data. The study uses the Kao Residual Cointegration Test, which identifies a significant degree of cointegration between the variables. The study suggests that Nigeria's economic growth is not greatly influenced by state IGR. Conversely, Inyiama, E Inyiama, Chinedu, and Nnenna's study72 looked at the importance of tax revenue resources for the growth of infrastructure in Nigeria. The analysis made use of secondary data and an ex-post facto research design. The study was conducted from 2006 to 2015. The data were examined using the multiple linear regression technique. The findings showed that tax revenue from sources including company income tax, value added tax, and petroleum profit tax (PPT) has a favorable and insignificant effect on Nigerian infrastructure development[109].

In China, a study reported a U-shape relationship between infrastructural investment and growth, while looking at the role of infrastructural capital on China's regional economic growth, using VECM technique. If there is an excessive amount government investment in infrastructure, they promote the displacement of private capital. According to the results of several studies, Nigeria's infrastructure is significantly impacted by the amount of tax revenue received[110].

In a study on personal income Tax and infrastructural development in Lagos State, Nigeria. In order to ascertain the impact of personal income tax on the state's infrastructural provisions, this study looked at the contributions of personal income tax to infrastructural development in Lagos state. An ex-post facto research design was used in the study. The study analyzed Lagos State's infrastructure development and personal income tax from 1997 to 2018. Secondary data were gathered from the Lagos State Ministry of Finance, the Lagos State Ministry of Budget and Planning, and the Lagos State Internal Revenue Services (LIRS). Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyze the data. According to the study, the state's infrastructure is significantly impacted by personal income tax. EDH and EDR given infrastructure provisions.

On EDH, at the 5% level of significance [= 0.380; P-value= 0.008], Adjusted R2= 0.150, F-stat= 3.678. At the 5% level of significance, Adjusted R2= 0.315, F-stat= 3.915, and Prob (F-stat)= 0.028 on EDR [= 0.352; P-value= 0.154]. The study demonstrates that the government spent more of its PIT revenue on housing infrastructures than it did on other types of infrastructure[111].

In a study to analyse the effect of internally generated revenue (IGR) and infrastructural development of local government areas in Nigeria. This study's objective was to explore the effects locally generated income may have on how infrastructure is developed in Nigeria's Local Government Areas (LGAs). Over the years, a shortage of funding has increased strain on the local government system in the nation. As a result, it has been unable to build the infrastructure required for development in the various villages. The current inquiry covers the design and presentation of three research questions and objectives in accordance with the aforementioned problem definition. Two different theories—the theory of federalism and the idea of resource mobilization—were used to analyze the study. The study focused on the utilization of both primary and secondary data and employed a survey research approach. The secondary data comes from official sources such periodicals, annual reports, journals, and newspapers, while the main data came from mailed questionnaires. The study employed databases that were kept by the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) and Central Bank of Nigeria. The data show that local governments' IGR is shockingly inadequate, and that by increasing revenue streams and effectively using these money, local communities will be encouraged to build infrastructure[112].

Similarly, in a study that examined the impact of IGR on economic development in Nigeria. Additionally, a retrospective research methodology was used in the study. The study covered the years 1981 through 2016 and used secondary data. The data were analyzed using multiple regression and the t-test. The study showed that while Federal Government Independent Revenue

(FGIR) also has a positive and significant impact on RGDP, overall IGR, state government IGR, and local government IGR have positive and large effects on Real Gross Domestic Product (RGDP)[113].

A study investigated the effect of internally generated revenue on infrastructural development of South East States of Nigeria. An ex-post facto research design was used in the study. These supplementary data were used. For data analysis, the study used linear multiple regression, correlation, and descriptive statistics. In the South East States, the cost of infrastructure was shown to be significantly correlated with IGR, according to the study. Similar to this study, another one looked at IGR's effect on Nigeria's economic growth. Ex-post facto research design was also utilised in the study. The study used secondary data and spanned the years 1981 to 2016. The multiple regression and t-test were used to analyze the data. The study found that while federal government independent revenue (FGIR) had a significant and beneficial impact on real gross domestic product (RGDP), state and local government independent revenue (IGR) and total IGR did not[114].

A study analysed the relationship between IGR and infrastructural development of public universities in Ondo State, Nigeria. The study used original data. There were 50 management personnel in total. In Ondo State's public colleges, the study found a negative and substantial correlation between IGR and the amount spent on infrastructure[114]. Similar research examined how IGR affected the effectiveness of local government in Nigeria's Rivers State. Ex-post facto research design was employed in the study. The Ogba/Egbema/Ndoni Local Government Council was specifically chosen for the investigation. From 2006 to 2013, statistical analysis was done using secondary data. T-statistics is this statistical analytical method. The study discovers that tax money had a small but positive impact on the upkeep and building of roads[116].

In a study titled the behaviour of tax revenue amid corruption in Nigeria: evidence from the non-linear ARDL approach. The creation of sufficient tax money to cover Nigeria's expanding expenditures is one of the nation's biggest issues, yet corruption has persisted, especially in the public sector. Using Nigeria's quarterly data from 1999 to 2019 we apply the non-linear autoregressive distributed lag (NARDL) technique to analyze the behavior of tax income despite corruption. The outcome of the NARDL limits test for cointegration shows that tax revenue and corruption, along with income level, agriculture, inflation rate, foreign aid, and female labor force participation, have a long-run association. The findings of the estimation show that the behavior of tax revenue is asymmetries. We find evidence of both a significant positive impact of short-term bad changes in the fight against corruption and a considerable negative impact of long-term positive changes in the fight against corruption on tax revenue. Income level, foreign aid, and the presence of women in the labor force are other long-term key factors of tax collection in Nigeria. On the basis of these empirical findings, this paper makes several suggestions[117].

A study analysed the impacts of governance and corruption on different types of taxes in selected African economies using the random effects and fixed effects estimators. The study found that good governance raises tax revenues, while corruption has a negative impact on tax revenues. The results of the regression analysis show that an improvement in the corruption index (less corruption) has a positive impact on tax revenue. Tax revenue also increases at a high-income level and decreases at a low-income level. Other variables, such as income per capita, inflation, agriculture, trade openness, tariff rate, and tax rate, were taken into consideration in the study[118].

In a study titled impact of foreign direct investment on tax revenue: The Case of the European Union. Through technology transfer, the creation of new managerial skills, international trade,

increased company productivity, and other means, foreign direct investment (FDI) is a crucial factor in fostering national competitiveness and economic development. With a focus on the economy of the European Union (EU), this study seeks to examine the relevance of FDI and its effects on tax revenue and competitiveness. Using information on EU nations between 1999 and 2019, an empirical analysis is done to establish the relationship between inward and outward FDI and tax income. The information was taken from the databases of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) and the World Bank's World Development Indicators database (WDI). An econometric model was created to achieve the study's goal and ascertain how FDI affects tax revenue. Multiple regression analysis, panel data analysis, and systematic and comparative literature analysis are some of the research techniques used. The estimates of the econometric models were derived by locating robust heteroscedasticity-consistent standard errors, and the regression analysis was based on the least-squares method. The findings of the study show that total tax income is significantly stimulated by outbound FDI. On the other hand, inbound FDI reduces tax revenue. A statistically significant lagging impact of the outbound FDI made two years earlier was found by analyzing the lagging effect of FDI on tax income in the EU member states. According to the estimations, the trailing impact serves as a motivator. There was no evidence of a statistically significant lagging effect of FDI inflows on tax revenue[119].

A study examined the effect of spending pattern of the private and public sector on the level of tax revenue in Nigeria. Secondary data were gathered from the Central Bank of Nigeria statistical bulletin 2018 across a ten-year period (2009 to 2018) in order to extract information for the time period covered by this study. A straightforward regression model was used to examine the data. According to the findings, public recurrent spending has a stronger influence on tax revenue levels in Nigeria than other independent variables (public capital expenditure or

private household expenditure levels). In conclusion, neither family nor governmental spending significantly affects Nigeria's tax collection levels. It is advised that the government promote local manufacturing to increase economic activity within the nation where taxes can be raised in order to increase tax revenue in Nigeria rather than raising the consumption tax rate, which will increase the cost of living in Nigeria[120].

Scholars focused on improving infrastructural development to foster sustainable development in Nigeria. They conducted the study using a quantitative approach based on an ex post facto research design that covered the years 1981 to 2017. Their research showed that capital spending and non-oil earnings had a big impact on Nigeria's infrastructure development. Thus, they advocated for an increase in non-oil revenue, a decrease in recurrent expenses, and the redirection of foreign debt into the construction of useful infrastructure. However, their research is also constrained because they did not include any strategies for increasing non-oil earnings[121].

A study was carried out in Nigeria to seek a way of boosting capital expenditure to foster economic development through the use of tax revenue. The study, which was quantitative in character and employed the ex post facto research design, covered the years 2009 to 2018. The study revealed that the spending on capital expenditures is unaffected by tax revenue. Additionally, it was suggested that spending tax money on public goods would motivate tax payers to pay their fair share. However, their analysis did not also take into account the impact of recurring expenses[122].

Scholars studied on how to improve the level of economic growth in Nigeria using capital expenditure. In accordance with the ex post facto research design, a quantitative approach was adopted. Based on data obtained on capital expenditure and the GDP of Nigeria from 1970 to

2013, they applied the neo-classical growth model and made adjustments to it to assess the impact of capital expenditure on economic growth. They found a long-term link between capital investment and economic growth in Nigeria and suggested putting accountability measures in place for government spending systems. However, because government revenue was not taken into account, the study was only able to examine government capital expenditure[123].

A study examined the long run effects of GDP and tax revenue on public health expenditure for sixteen major states of India over the period 1980-2014. For the empirical analysis, we use panel long run cointegrating estimators (FMOLS and DOLS) and panel VECM approaches. This study is especially pertinent to India's financial progress toward achieving universal health care because public health expenditures vary widely across Indian states, which are also characterized by low tax revenues and slow GDP development. The empirical finding demonstrates that, while the elasticity of public health spending is less than one, there is a positive and significant impact of per capita GDP and per capita tax income on growth of public health expenditure. Additionally, there is a long-term relationship between the rise of per capita public health spending and the growth of per capita GDP and tax income. These results have policy implications for universal health coverage by improving alternative tax revenue in Indian states[124].

A research on classification framework for carbon tax revenue use was conducted. Carbon pricing could help with the dual goals of reducing global warming and boosting government revenue. The public's approval of carbon pricing policy and, ultimately, its long-term effectiveness, depend significantly on how a government distributes the proceeds from its carbon tax. To that purpose, this study offers a novel, straightforward framework for categorizing the use of carbon tax income that comprises four modalities to account for different aspects of policy

design. These include a thematic approach, a revenue-neutral recycling strategy, a limited approach as opposed to an uncontrolled one, and an approach based on public desire. Then, numerous characteristics are looked at to help decision-makers choose the best modality. Policymakers can use the classification system as a quick reference before beginning more involved and in-depth policy discussions[125].

The influence of tax revenue on economic development in Nigeria was assessed. Economic development is central as government discharges her duties to her citizenry. The need to understand how tax income affects economic growth in Nigeria prompted a study that encompassed the years 2011 through 2020. Three tax revenue streams and one indicator of economic progress were chosen for the study using the personal judgement sampling techniques. Since the ex post facto method was used in the empirical work, secondary data were obtained from pertinent sources. The developed hypotheses were tested using the Pearson Correlation analysis. According to the study's findings, value added tax (VAT) has a positive but insignificant influence on life expectancy, while CIT and PPT have both positive and insignificant effects. These findings are based on correlation coefficients of 0.349, 0.772, and -0.463 as well as significant values of 0.324, 0.009, and 0.178, respectively. The study then came to the conclusion that tax income had an impact on economic development. The study therefore suggests that the government strengthen its CIT policies to ensure that the positive effects are sustained and improved upon, that policy be made to ensure that expenditures made with the proceeds of the VAT results in economic development to ensure a higher life expectancy in Nigeria, and that a portion of PPT revenue be specifically designated and adequately utilized on[126].

In an empirical assessment of tax revenue of the government and economic development between 1996 and 2017 in Nigeria used the Vector Autoregressive Estimates which was conducted by scholars. It discovered a positive association between PPT, Total Tax Revenue (TTR), and HDI, but they discovered a negative relationship between EDT and CIT and HDI. Another study that looked at the economic impact of tax income in Nigeria used secondary data (time series). Regression analysis of the data revealed that Nigeria's education tax had an impact on economic growth[127].

A study identified the determinants of corporate income tax revenue in Vietnam by using a time series data set for the years from 1999 to 2016. The econometric analysis takes into account a number of variables that may have an impact on corporate income tax collection, including GDP at current prices, the burden of corporate income taxes, inflation, the corruption perceptions index, and tax rates. The authors have a number of distributions that they use to analyze both how these determinants affect corporate income tax revenue as well as how each factor affecting that revenue behaves in a model with only one independent variable. The results show that GDP at current prices and the burden of corporate income taxes have a positive influence and are significant for corporate income tax revenue; corruption perceptions index and tax rate have a positive and negligible impact; yearly rate of inflation has a negative and insignificant impact[128].

A study aimed to show the tax-to-GDP ratio condition and explore the relation of tax revenue with Nepal's GDP. It is based on secondary data that is gathered from a variety of published sources, and descriptive and exploratory research designs are used to examine the relationship between tax revenue and GDP. Therefore, the ratio of taxes to GDP cannot guarantee its economic growth. The competent authorities are recommended to boost income in order to

enhance tax revenue; failing to do so will only deepen the public's unhappiness with the government[129].

A study sought to assess the taxes and economic growth nexus in Ghana. The study used annual time series data collected from 1972 to 2019. The Granger causality test, the vector error correction model, and the Johansen Co-integration approach were employed in the study to evaluate the causal relationship between tax revenue and economic growth in Ghana. The long-term association was established using the Co-integration test. The Granger Causality test, in contrast, was employed to determine the short-term link between the model's input variables. The study found that the model can return the short-run connection to the long-run equilibrium path with a speed of adjustment of 61.4%. In addition, the study discovered a one-way association between economic growth and tax revenue characteristics. The study again showed evidence in favor of a significant and positive relationship between direct tax revenue and economic growth as well as a significant and adverse relationship between indirect tax revenue and economic growth. According to the findings, the study suggests that the government progressively switch from concentrating indirect tax collection to direct tax revenue to fund development projects to support economic growth[130].

2.4 Conceptual Framework

The aim of the study is to create a conceptual framework that explains the relationship between tax revenues (Independent Variable) collected by the federal government of Nigeria (Company Income Tax (CIT), Petroleum Profit Tax (PPT), Value Added Tax (VAT), and Education Tax (ET) and the development of the health sector's infrastructure (Dependent Variable). The study will look at how each independent variable interacts with the dependent variable (the

development of the health sector's infrastructure) individually as well as collectively. Tax revenues are considered to have an impact on the infrastructural development of the health sector in the conceptualization of tax revenues received by the federal government and its impact. The development of the health sector's infrastructure is impacted by the federal government's operationalization of tax revenues in terms of the Company Income Tax (CIT), Petroleum Profit Tax (PPT), Value Added Tax (VAT), and Education Tax (ET).

2.4 Conceptual Framework

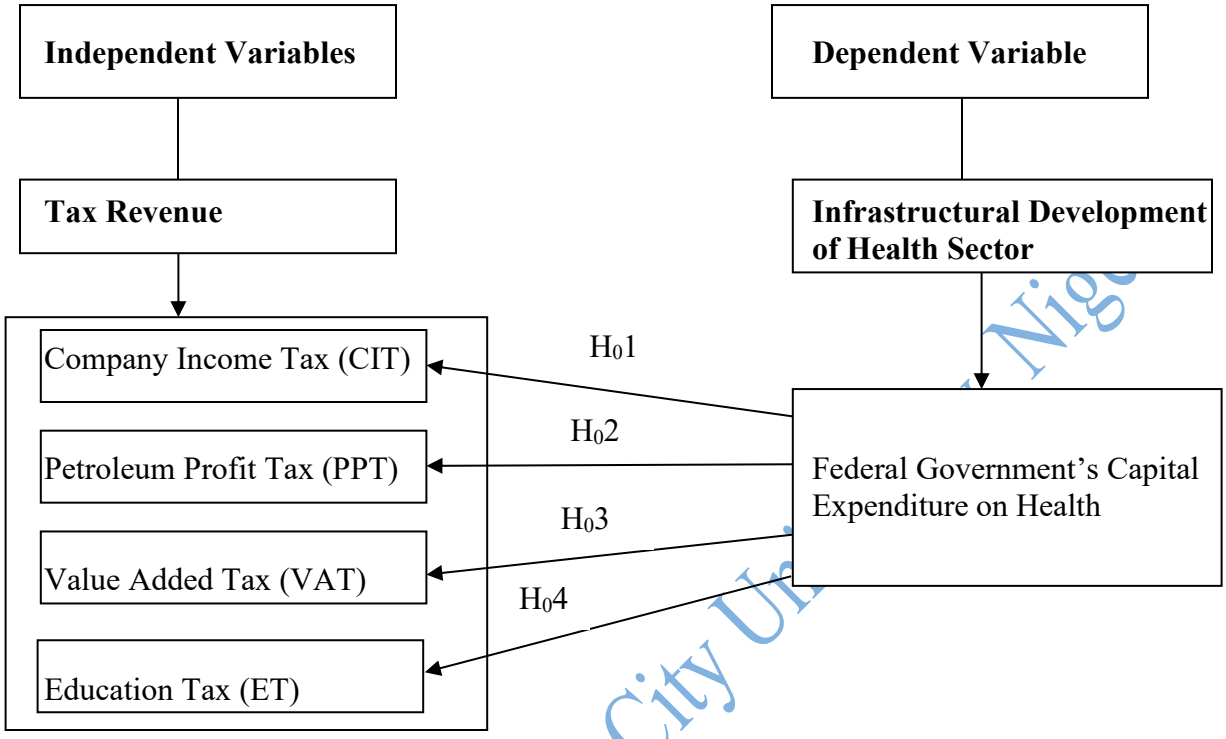

Figure 2.2: Conceptual Framework

Source: Researcher's Compilation, 2022

2.5 Summary of Gap in Literature Reviewed

This section provided a review of the literature that was pertinent to the research topic. It began with a conceptual review of variables where pertinent terms (taxes, infrastructural development, healthcare infrastructure) were defined and clarified. This was followed by the theoretical framework that was adopted, which is the optimal theory of taxation and the political economy theory of fiscal policy.

Several studies have been carried out on the influence of tax revenues on infrastructural development various sectors[1,108]. The study's main areas of interest are Nigeria's overall income, infrastructure growth, and economic growth[108]. Another study looked at the relationship between components of tax revenue and economic development of the Nigerian economy[72].This present study is set to fill the gap by focusing mainly on the health sector in Nigeria.Previous research revealed a dearth of literature on the impact of tax revenues on infrastructure development, particularly in the health sector. The impact of tax revenues on the development of the infrastructure in many states, industries, and countries was also demonstrated in a variety of written works. However, very few people—if any—have contributed to the building of the health sector's infrastructure. Hence, this study tends to fill this gap.

Endnotes

1. O. M. Lateef, I. O. Lasisi, D. Adegboye, A. Ajepe, & B. N. Isife, *Tax Revenue Collections and Health Care Infrastructural Development in Nigeria.* **Journal of Finance and Accounting**, 10(1), 2022, 19-24.

2. E. Eze & O. J. Onyedikachi, *Tax Revenue and Economic Growth in Nigeria*. **Accounting and Taxation Review**, 4(4), 2020, 44-53.

3. A. O. Efuntade, O. O. Efuntade & A. O. Akinola, *Tax Revenue and Its Effect on Government Expenditure in Nigeria*. **International Journal of Business &Management**, 8(9), 2020, 279-283.

4. C. Nnubia, G. O. Okafor, O. D. Chukwunwike, O. S. Asogwa, & R. J. Ogan, *Effect of e-Taxation on Revenue Generation in Nigeria a Pre-Post Analysis.***Academy of Entrepreneurship Journal**, 26(3), 2020, 1-9.

5. C. A. Egbuhuzor, & A. L. Tomquin, *Effect of Indirect Taxes on Economic Growth in Nigeria*. **Journal of Accounting and Financial Management**, 7(1), 2021.

6. K. A. Yahaya, & T. O. Bakare, *Effect of Petroleum Profit Tax and Companies Income Tax on Economic Growth in Nigeria.* **Journal of Public Administration, Finance and Law,** 13(1), 2018, 100-121.

7. W. A. Abomaye-Nimenibo, J. E. Michael, & H. C. Friday, *An Emperical Analysis of tax Revenue and Economic Growth in Nigeria from 1980 to 2015*. **Global Journal of Human-Social Science**, 18(3), 2018, 8-33.

8. O. O. Okonkwo, N. N. Amahalu, & J. C. Obi, *Tax Revenue and Productivity of Nigeria.***African Journal of Business and Economic Development**, 2(1), 2022, 26-40.

9. E. J. Kaka, *Literature Review of Taxation and Debt Servicing in Nigeria*. **International Journal of Auditing and Accounting Studies**, 2(2), 2020, 213-231.

10. C. O. Olaoye, & A. T. Ekundayo, *Effects of Tax Audit on Tax Compliance and Remittance of Tax Revenue in Ekiti State.* **Open Journal of Accounting**, 8(1), 2019, 1-7.

11. C. N. Ofurum, L. I. Amaefule, B. E. Okonya, & H. C. Amaefule, *Impact of e-taxation on Nigeria's Revenue and Economic Growth: A Pre-Post Analysis.***International Journal of Finance and Accounting**, 7(2), 2018, 19-26.

12. O. Agunbiade, & A. A. Idebi, *Tax Revenue and Economic Growth Nexus: Empirical Evidence from the Nigerian Economy.***European Journal of Economic and Financial Research,** 4(2), 2020.

13. A. O. Oladele, T. C. Ndalu, & F. N. Akani, *The Impact of Tax Audit Practices on Revenue Generation in Nigeria.* **International Journal of Innovative finance and Economic Research,** 9(4), 2021, 42-50.

14. E. Obidimma, & D. Nwuzor, *An Appraisal of the Problems of Tax Evasion and Avoidance in Nigeria*. **International Review of Law and Jurisprudence,** 4(1), 2022.

15. T. O. Asaolu, J. Olabisi, S. O. Akinbode & O. N. Alebiosu, *Tax Revenue and Economic Growth in Nigeria*. **Scholedge International Journal of Management & Development**, 5(7), 2018, 72-85.

16. G. N. Ogbonna, & E. Appah, *Effect of Tax Administration and Revenue on Economic Growth in Nigeria.***Research Journal of Finance and Accounting,** 7(13), 2016, 49-58.

17. N. O. Udezo, & J. K. Onuora, *Effect of Tax Reforms on Revenue Performance in Nigeria*. **Journal of Innovative Finance and Economics Research**, 9(1), 2021, 118-130.

18. A. B. Adefunke, & A. O. Usiomon, *Impact of Company Income Tax on Corporate Profitability in Nigeria*. **Indian Journal of Finance and Banking**, 9(1), 2022, 104-114.

19. S. Aza, K. E. Daniel, & A. S. Innocent, *Effect of Petroleum Profit Tax on Capital Expenditure in Nigeria*. **Bingham International Journal of Accounting and Finance**, 2(2), 2021, 13-27.

20. B. C. Eneje, *Appraisal of Company Income Tax and Value Added Tax on Growth of Nigeria Economy: Imperetive for Reform*. **FUNAI Journal of Accounting Business and Finance**, 2018, 187-198.

21. E Asen, *Corporate Tax Rates around the World, 2020*. Tax Foundation, 2020. https://taxfoundation.org/corporate-tax-rates-around-the-world-2020/

22. Nairametrics, *Billion Company Income Tax*. 2022. https://nairametrics.com/2022/05/26/nigeria-generates-n532-5-billion-company-income-tax-in-q1-

23. Mondaq, *OverviewofCompany Income Tax*. 2020.https://www.mondaq.com/nigeria/tax-authorities/976992/brief-overview-of-company-income-tax-in-nigeria.

24. D. Yoshida, *Effect of Earnings Management, Leverage and Independent Commissioner on Tax Avoidance.***EPRA International Journal of Multidisciplinary Research**, 8(7), 2022, 380-387.

25. M. N. Okeke, C. M. Mbonu & M. N. Amahalu, *Effect of Tax Revenue on Economic Development in Nigeria*. **International Journal of Research in Business, Economics and Management**, 2(4), 2018, 25-61.

26. M. A. Oguntoye, *An Appraisal of the Impact of the Oil Sector on the Nigerian Economy*. Thesis for Masters of Law, 2019.

27. M. N. Okeke, C. M. Mbonu, & N. N. Amahalu, *Tax Revenue and Economic Development in Nigeria: A Disaggregated Analysis*. **International Journal of Academic Research in Accounting, Finance and Management Sciences**, 8(2), 2018, 178- 199.

28. S. C. Unigwe, *Impact of Fiscal Policy on Economic Growth in Nigeria*. 2021.https://www.studocu.com.

29. A. M. Aminu, M. S. Ibrahim, & M. Sulu-Gambari, *Impact Analysis of Petroleum Profit Tax and the Economic Growth in Nigerian: 1985-2019.* **International Journal of Academic Accounting, Finance & Management Research**, 4(10), 2020, 59-68.

30. K. Nwonyuku,*Deepening Tax Compliance Culture in the Educational Institutions of a Private Character in Anambra State, Nigeria*. Being a Paper Presentation at the Workshop on School Improvement Planning and Tax Management for Private Schools Organized by the Integral Development Konsult (IDK) in Collaboration with the Ministry of Basic Education, Awka, Anambra State, 2019.

31. O. Obaretin & H. E. Monye-Emina, *Petroleum Profit Tax and Economic Growth in Nigeria*. **Amity Journal of Economics**, 4(2), 2019, 72-82.

32. E. E. Inimino, O. P. Otubu, & J. E. Akpan, *Petroleum Profit Tax and Economic Growth in Nigeria.***Asian Journal of Sustainable Business Research**, 1(2), 2020, 121-130.

33. W. E. Pibowei, *The Impact of Gas Exploration Taxes on Economic Growth in Nigeria (1981-2020).* **SSRN Comparative Political Economy Fiscal eJournal**, 9(40), 2021, 1-20.

34. S. K. Ngu, *Petroleum Profit Tax and Performance of Listed Oil and Gas Firms in Nigeria.* **African Journal of Business and Economic Development**, 1(4), 2021, 1-13.

35. A. E. Osho, A. D. Omotayo & F. M. Ayorinde, *Impact of Company Income Tax on Gross Domestic Products in Nigeria*. **Research Journal of Finance and Accounting**, 9(24), 2018, 106-115.

36. J. B. Harelimana, *Effect of Value Added Tax Reforms on Revenue Performance in Rwanda Revenue Authority*. **Open Access Journal of Biomedical Science & Research**, 1(3), 2020.

37. A. O. Efuntade, *Value Added Tax and its Effect on Revenue Generation in Nigeria*. **KIU Interdisciplinary Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences**, 1(2), 2020, 353-369.

38. A. A. Ogunmakin, I. A. Adebayo, & D. O. Ojo, *Value Added Tax (Vat) and Minimum Wage in Nigeria: Implications on Government Revenue and the Living Standard of the Populace*. **Journal of Commerce & Accounting Research,** 10(1), 2021.
39. R. O. Kareem, R. A. Arije, & Y. H. Avovome, *Value Added Tax and Economic Growth in Nigeria (1994-2017)*. **Izvestiya, Journal of Varna University of Economics**, 64(2), 2020, 137-152.

40. A. N. Chiamogu & U. C. Nzewi, *Value Added Tax and Nigerian Economy: An Empirical Analysis.* **International Journal of Advanced Academic Research, Social and Management Sciences**, 6(4), 2020, 53-78.

41. A. Oseni, *The Effects of Value Added Tax on Government's Revenue Generation Profile in Nigeria: A Conceptual Approach*. **International Journal of Economics and Financial Management,** 2(4), 2017, 2545-5966.

42. M. M. Bala, *An Evaluation of Value Added Tax in Nigeria, Prospects and Challenges*. **African Scholar Journal of Mgt. Science and Entrepreneurship**, 19(7), 2020, 111-120.

43. C. O. Olaoye, A. A. Ogundipe & O. E. Oluwadare, *Tax Revenue and Economic Development in Nigeria*. **Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal**, 6(9), (2019), 2019, 312-321.

44. C. A. Ayedun, D. O. Durodola, S. A. Oloyede, & A. S. Oni, *The Value Added Tax (VAT) Administration in Nigeria and the Practice of Estate Surveying and Valuation.***Covenant Journal of Business and Social Sciences**, 9(1), 2018, 45-54.

45. J. A. Nmesirionye, E. Jones, &E. V. S. Onuche, *Impact of Indirect Taxes on Economic Performance of Nigeria (1994-2017*). **European Journal of accounting, Finance and Investment,** 5(4), 2019.

46. PWC, *Tax Summaries.*2023.https://taxsummaries.pwc.com/nigeria/corporate/other-taxes#:~:text=Value%2Dadded%20tax%20(VAT),in%20humanitarian%20donor%2Dfunded%20projects.

47. U. Muhammad, & B. Bakwai, *Enhancing Funding in Universities in Nigeria.* **Studies in Educational Planning and Administration**, 5(1), 2015, 184-198.

48. M. S. Ajumise & B. Ezekiel, *Government Expenditure: A Major Determinant Tools on the Management of Tertiary Education in Nigeria*. **IOSR Journal of Research & Method in** Education, 10(4), 2020, 28-32.

49. D. E. Ukpong, A. S. Nseabasi, & C. A. Uneh, *Financing Education in Nigeria for National Development*. **Journal of Poverty, Investment and Development,** 51, 2019, 58-65.

50. Nigerian Finder, *Education Tax in Nigeria: Overview and Details*. n.d https://nigerianfinder.com/education-tax-in-nigeria/

51. M. Thom, *Lights, Camera, but No Action? Tax and Economic Development Lessons from State Motion Picture Incentive Programs*. **American Review of Public Administration**, 48(1), 2018, 33–51.

52. M. I. Maccarthy, & A. A. Jibrin, *Custom and Excise Duties and Infrastructural Development in Nigeria (1997-2021).***BW Academic Journal**, 1(1), 2022.

53. M. A. Nkechi, & J. K. Onuora, *Effect of Internally Generated Revenue on Infrastructural Development of South East States of Nigeria*. **IIARD International Journal of Economics and Business Management,** 4(7), 2018.

54. J. B. Harelimana, T*he Role of Taxation on Resilient Economy and Development of Rwanda*. **Journal of Finance Marketing**, 2(1), 2018, 28-39.

55. J. O. Agwu, *Exchange Rate and Housing Deficit Trends in Nigeria: Descriptive and Inferential Analyses.* In *Housing and SDGs in Urban Africa*. Springer, Singapore, 2021, 237-256.

56. A. I. Adelusi, *The Effect of Tax Revenue on the Economic Growth of Nigeria*. **Journal of Taxation and Economic Development**, 18(2), 2019, 102-114.

57. A. I. Muryshkina & E. V. Gilenko, *Modern Approaches to Social Effects Identification for Transport Infrastructure Projects*. Master's Thesis, St. Petersburg University Graduate School of Management, 2018.

58. P.V. Okoye, N. N. Amahalu, J. C. Obi, J.C., & R. O. Iliemna, *Effects of Tax Leakages on Economic Development of Nigeria*. **Journal of Global Accounting**, 6(1), 2019, 104- 128.

59. M. Janotš, *Local Charge for the Evaluation of Building Land with the Possibility of its Connection to the Construction of Water Supply or Sewerage*.In Těžký, V., Jantoš, M. & Siuda, V. (eds) *Local Charges Act – Commentary*. Prague: Wolters Kluwer, 2017.

60. M. Radvan, *Urbanization and Local Taxes: The Case of the Czech Republic Focused on the Infrastructure Charge.* In Hoffman, I., Rozsnyai, K. F. & Nagy, M. *Urbanisation and Government(s)*. 1st ed. Maribor: Lex Localis – Institute of Local Self-Government Maribor, 2021, 123-137.

61. S. Waziri, G. B. Ali, & M. Nura, *Sustainable Infrastructure Development in Nigeria: Challenges of The Construction Sector*. **International Journal of Development and Sustainability**, 3(7), 2014, 1488-1495.

62. O. M. Oisasoje, & S. A. Ojeifo, *The Role of Public Infrastructure in Poverty Reduction in the Rural Areas of Edo state, Nigeria.***Research on Humanity and Social Sciences**, 2(7), 2012.

63. J. O. Anyaduba, & E. J. Aronmwan, *Taxes and Infrastructural Development in Nigeria.***Nigerian Journal of Banking, Finance and Entrepreneurship Management,** 1, 2015, 14-28.

64. T. A. Adegbite, & A. G. Shehu, *Indirect Taxes and Road Construction: An Appaisal of Efficacious Relationship from Nigeria*. **International Journal of Management, Social Sciences, Peace and Conflict Studies,** 5(2), 2022, 49- 62.

65. C. O. Hellerstein, *Challenges of e-commerce in Nigeria: The Panacea for Legal Framework*. **Global Journal of Politics and Law Research**, 2(4), 1997, 1-5.

66. S. A. Effiong, & P. O. Nwanagu, *E-Commerce Transactions and Tax Revenue: A Commensal-Symbiotic Evaluation*. **Test Engineering and Management**, 83, 2020, 26853-26873.

67. S. A. Effiong, & S. E. Attah, *Impact of Income Tax Rates on Tax Revenue in Nigeria*. **International Journal of Economic Development, Research and Investment**, 3(3), 2016, 1-11.

68. T. I. Palley, *Capital Accumulation Is Not Enough: Developing the Domestic Market*. **Challenge**, 2006, 20-34.

69. J. A. Okoror, M. A. Mainoma, & U. J. Uwaleke, *Companies Income Tax and Infrastructural Development in Nigeria.* **Accounting and Taxation Review**, 3(3), 2019, 24-43.

70. I. J. Fineboy, K. O. Nwankwo, & J. C. Akujor, *Comparative Effect of Tax Revenue on Economic Growth of Selected African Countries.* **The International Journal of Business Management and Technology**, 6(4), 2022, 123-140.

71. C. J. Ihenyen, & E. G. Mieseigha, *Taxation as an Instrument of Economic Growth: The Nigerian Perspective*. **Information and Knowledge Management**, 4(12), 2014, 49-53.

72. A. O. Ideh, *Tax Revenue and Economic Development of the Nigerian Economy*. **Nigerian Journal of Management Sciences,** 7(1), 2019, 223-231.

73. O. Daniel-Adebayo, I. R. Akintoye, F. F. Adegbie, & A. O. Ajayi-Owoeye, *Tax Revenue and Infrastructure Expectation Gap in Selected Sub-Saharan African Countries.* **International Journal of Accounting Research**, 7(1), 2022, 75-86.

74. L. N. Maimako, M. N. Kwatmen, & P. D. Gwaison, *Effect of Tax Administration on Tax Revenue in Plateau State Nigeria.* **Dutse Journal of Economics and Development Studies**, 8, 2019, 75-82.

75. A. K. Mishra, & P. K. Mohanty, *Urban Infrastructure Financing in India: Applying the benefit and Earmarking Principles of Taxation*. **Journal of Social and Economic Development,** 2018.

76. N. Dubrovina, V. Dubrovina, O. Shelest, & O. Tulai, *Impact of Taxes on the Export-Import Tendencies in the Countries of the Eu in Unstable Present-Day.* **Journal of European Economy**, 20(4), 2021, 701-716.

77. A. Miceikienė, D. Walczak, & I. Misevičiūtė, *The Impact of Environmental Taxes on Mitigation of Pollution in Agriculture: The Theoretical Approach.* **Management Theory and Studies for Rural Business and Infrastructure Development,** 44(3), 2022, 263-273.

78. V. O. Oben, & A. E. Sunday, *Administrative Tolerance and Tax Revenue: A Synergistic Desparity.* **Journal of Contemporary Issues in Business and Government,** 27(4), 2021, 123-130.

79. A. Manan, Z. Nawaz, W. Ahmed& M. N. Talib, *Assessing the Determinants of Tax Revenue: Empirical Evidence from Pakistan.* **Pacific Business Review**, 4(11), 2022, 69-84.

80. M. S. Hassan, H. Mahmood, M. N. Tahir, T. T. Alkhateeb, & A. Wajid, *Governance: A Source to Increase Tax Revenue in Pakistan.* **Complexity**, 2021, 1-11.

81. J. V. Cateia, L. Savard, & C. A. de Freitas *Economic Impacts of Infrastructure Investment with different Funding Mechanisms: Evidence from Guinea-Bissau.* **Cogent Economics & Finance**, 2022, 1-16.

82. A. N. Nwaobia, S. A. Ogundipe, & R. I. Adejumo, *Effect of Tax Revenue on Foreign Debt in Nigeria.* **International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications,** 11(10), 2021, 260-268.

83. J. O. Oyebanji, F. F. Adeigbe, I. R. Akintoye, & G. O. Ogundajo, *Effect of Real Sector Output on Tax Revenue in Nigeria*. **Fountain University Osogbo Journal of Management**, 4(2), 2019, 112-125.

84. A. O. Amos, & E. Uniamikogbo, *Effect of Tax Revenue on Economic Development of Nigeria.* Unpublished Thesis in the Department of Accounting, Ambrose Alli University, Ekpoma, Edo State, Nigeria. 2018.

85. M. R. Mueni, W. H. Wawire, & P. A. Onono, *Effects of Political Risk Factors on Tax Revenue in Kenya.* **European Journal of Economic and Research**,5(1), 2021, 48-64.

86. M. Kooshkebaghi, S. Emamgholipour, & H. Dargahi, *Explaining Specific Taxes Management and Use in the Health Sector: A Qualitative Study.* **BMC Health Services Research**,22, 2022, 1-17.

87. G. Oz-Yalaman, *Financial Inclusion and Tax Revenue.* **Central Bank Review**,19, 2019, 107-113.

88. P. N. Johnson, & C. O. Omodero, *Governance Quality and Tax Revenue Mobilization in Nigeria***.Journal of Legal Studies***,* 28(42), 2021, 1-41.

89. O. D. Chukwunwike, G. N. Ofoegbu, F. M. Amara, & R. G. Okafor, *Government Accountability and Tax Revenue: Evidence from Nigeria.* **African Journal of Business and Economic Research**, 16(4), 2021, 159-179.

90. A. Mannan, B. Aziz, & Z. Nawaz, *Impact of Economic and Financial Factors on Tax Revenue: Evidence from South Asia.* **Asian Finance Research Journal**, 3(2), 2022, 1-18.

91. K. A. Yahaya & K. Yusuf, *Impact of Non-Oil Tax Revenue on Economic Growth in Nigeria*.**International Journal of Accounting and Management,** 9(2), 2019, 56-69.

92. T. A. Obembe, A. B. Adenipekun, O. M. Morakinyo & K. O. Odebunmi, *Implications of National Tax Policy on Local Pharmaceutical Production in a Southwestern State Nigeria: Qualitative Research for the Intersection of National Pharmaceutical Policy on Health Systems Development.* **BMC Health Services Research**, 22(264), 2022, 1-10.

93. U. Okoh, P. Jehu, & A. Abubakar, *Explicit Knowledge and Tax Revenue Performance: The Role of Externalization Process.* **Review of Socio-Economic Perspectives**, 7(3), 2022, 43-54.

94. M. M. Albimana, & I. M. Hemedb, *The Determinants of Tax Revenues among EAC Members.* **African Tax and Customs Review,** 2022, 11-19.

95. O. D. Ayeni, & J. O. Afolabi, *Tax Revenue, Infrastructural Development and Economic Growth in Nigeria.* **International Journal of Management and Social Science Research Review**, 7(7), 2020, 1-12.

96. U. M. Tanko, & S. S. Shishi, *Revenue Generation and Infrastructural Development in Taraba State*. **International Journal of Business and Technopreneurship**, 10(3), 2020, 379-392.

97. E. E. Onoja, & A. S. Ibrahim, *Tax Revenue and Nigeria Economic Growth.***European Journal of Social Sciences,** 3(1), 2020, 30-44.

98. D. S. Edori, *Tax Revenue and Nigeria's Economic Growth*. **Journal of Accounting and Financial Management,** 8(4), 2022, 173-186.

[99] F. Lozano-Rojas, & P. Carlin, *The Effect of Soda Taxes beyond Beverages in Philadelphia.* **Health Economics,** 31, 2022, 2381–2410.

[100] H. T. Nguyen, & S. N. Darsono, *The Impacts of Tax Revenue and Investment on the Economic Growth in Southeast Asian Countries.* **Journal of Accounting and Investment,** 23(1), 2022, 129-146.

[101] M.S. Samira, & H. Toufik, *The Role of Financial Development in the Collection of Tax Revenue.* **Journal of Finance, Investment and Sustainable Development,** 6(2), 2021, 514-528.

[102] K. N. Agyei, & E. Amankwaah, *Trade Tax Revenue and Trade Openness in Ghana.* **Journal of Emerging Trends in Economics and Management Sciences,** 9(6), 2018, 344-349.

[103] W. O. Ajiteru, L. O. Adaranijo, L. A. Bakare, *Tax Revenue and Infrastructural Development in Osun State*. **International Journal of Innovative Finance and Economics Research,** 6(2), 2018, 50-61.

[104] R. Adeleke, T. Osayomi, & T. Adeoti, *Does Sub-national Government Revenue have an Effect on Socio-Economic and Infrastructural Development in Nigeria? A Geographical Analysis*. **Regional Science Policy & Practice,** 13(5), 2021, 1603-1614.

[105] A. Hammayo, I. Shittu, A. A. Abdullahi, *Impact of State Government Revenues on Infrastructural Development in Bauchi State Nigeria.***International Journal of Accounting and Taxation**, 8(1), 2020, 34-43.

[106] F. I. Joseph, & C. O. Omodero, *The Nexus between Government Revenue and Economic Growth in Nigeria.***Economics and Business**, 34(1), 2020, 35-45.

[107] O. Olalekan, & P. Irewole, *Internally Generated Revenue and Infrastructural Development: Of What Relevance to Lagos*. **IOSR Journal of Economics and Finance**, 10(4), 2019, 58-74.

[108] C. Christian, *Revenue Generation as a Tool for Infrastructural Development in Nigeria*. **Journal of Accounting and Financial Management**, 5(2), 2019, 59-72.

[109] D. Y. Dang, & A. D. Dashe, *Empirical Analysis of the Contribution of States' IGR to Economic Growth of Nigeria: A Panel Study*. **Tax Academy Research Journal**, 1(1), 2017, 61-76.

[110] Y. Shi, S. Guo, & P. Sun, *The Role of Infrastructure in China's Regional Economic Growth*. **Journal of Asian Economics,** 1(49), 2017, 26-41.

[111] O. J. Ade, & A. F. Festus, *Personal Income Tax and Infrastructural Development in Lagos State, Nigeria*. **Finance and Accounting**, 8(6), 2020, 276-287.

[112] R. C. Odoemene, *Internally Generated Revenue (IGR) and Infrastructural Development of Local Government Areas in Nigeria*. **African Journal of Social and Behavioural Sciences,** 10(2), 2020 301-317.

[113] C. O. Modero, M. C. Ekwe, & J. U. Ihendinihu, *The Impact of Internally Generated Revenue on Economic Development in Nigeria.* **Accounting and Finance Research**, 7(2), 2018, 103-114.

[114] A. N. Mbah, & J. K. J. Onuora*, Effect of Internally Generated Revenue on Infrastructural Development of South East States of Nigeria*. **IIARD International Journal of Economics and Business Management**, 4(7), 2018.

[115] A. I. Oyetakin, & L. O. Yahya, *Analysis of Internally Generated Revenue and Infrastructural Development of Public Universities in Ondo state, Nigeria*. **Global Journal of Commerce and Management Perspective**, 6(1), 2017, 24-33.

[116] U. I. Ironkwe, & E. N. Ndah, *Impact of Internally Generated Revenue on performance of Local Government in Rivers State, Nigeria*. **International Journal of Business and Law Research**, 4(4), 2016, 42-58.

[117] A. Nurudeen, Z. A. Mohd, J. David, A. M. Sakanko, A. B. Onyewuchi, & A. G. Awadh, *The Behaviour of Tax Revenue amid Corruption in Nigeria: Evidence from the Non-Linear ARDL Approach.* **Economic Studies,** 31(4), 2022, 55-76.

[118] M. Epaphra, & J. Massawe, *Corruption, Governance and Tax Revenues in Africa*. **Business and Economic Horizons**, 13(4), 2017, 439-467.

[119] L. Gaspareniene, T. Kliestik, R. Sivickiene, R. Remeikiene, & M. Endrijaitis, *Impact of Foreign Direct Investment on Tax Revenue: The Case of the European Union*. **Journal of Competitiveness**, 14(1), 2022, 43–60.

[120] S. I. Audu, *Pattern of Spending and the Level of Tax Revenue in Nigeria.* **International Journal of Research and Innovation in Social Science,** 4(9), 2020, 561-567.

[121] C. V. Okolo, R. K. Edeme, & C. Emmanuel, *Economic Analysis of Capital Expenditure and Infrastructural Development*. **Journal of Infrastructural Development**, 10(1), 2018, 52-62.

[122] A. E. Osho, T. L. Olemija, & A. B. Falade, *The Influence of Tax Revenue on Capital Expenditure and Economic Growth*. **European Journal of Business and Management**, 11(2), 2019, 39-49.

[123] O. J. Oyeleke, J. A. Raheem, & O. E. Falade, *Government Capital Expenditure and Economic Growth in Nigeria: Any Lesson from Disaggregated Functional Analysis*. **European Journal of Business and Management**, 8(31), 2016, 76-84.

[124.] D. K. Behera, & U. Dash, *Impact of GDP and Tax Revenue on Health Care Financing: An Empirical Investigation from Indian States.* **Theoretical and Applied Economics**, 24, (2) 2017, 249-266.

[125.] L. A. Steenkamp, *A Classification Framework for Carbon Tax Revenue Use.* **Climate Policy**, 2221(7), 2021, 897-911.

[126.] D. S. Edori, C. Des-Wosu & C. Ukehinakachi, *The Influence of Tax Revenue on Economic Development in Nigeria*. **European Journal of Accounting, Finance and Investment,** 8(10), 2022, 1-12.

[127.] Okonkwo, I. V. & Chukwu, K. O. *Government Tax Revenue and Economic Development in Nigeria: 1996-2017*. **International Journal of Research in Business, Economics and Management**, 3(3), 2019, 91-105.

[128.] N. H. Cung, & T. T. Son, *Determinants of Corporate Income Tax Revenue in Vietnam.***Advances in Management & Applied Economics**, 10(1), 2020, 89-103.

[129.] A. K. Dahal, *Tax-to-GDP Ratio and the Relation of Tax Revenue with GDP: Nepalese Perspective.***Researcher,A Research Journal of Culture and Society**, 4(1), 2020, 80-96.

[130.] J. MacCarthy, P. Muda, & P. Sunu *Tax Revenue and Economic Growth Nexus in Ghana: Co-integration and Granger Causality Test.***Bulletin of Applied Economics**, 9(2), 2022, 15-35.

Chapter Three

Methodology

This chapter deals with the methodology for this study. It is organized on the basis of the following sub-headings: The contents of this chapter include: research design, population of the study, sample size, sampling technique, source of data, instrument for data collection, validity and reliability of the research instrument and method of data analysis

3.1 Research Design

Ex post facto research design was used for this study. This is because secondary sources were used to compile the study's data. The study used secondary sources of data from pertinent federal government organizations, including CBN Statistical Bulletin and Federal Inland Revenue Services (FIRS).

3.2 Population of the Study

The study's population consisted of tax revenue gathered from CIT, PPT, EDT, and VAT sources between 2013 and 2021[1]. The federal government's capital expenditure on health care was the dependent variable in this analysis, and the control variable will be the inflationary effect rate. The independent variables of the analysis are company income tax (CIT), petroleum profit tax (PPT), education tax (EDT), and value added tax (VAT).

3.3 Sample and Sampling Technique

All tax income collected between 2013 and 2021 makes up the sample size due to the fact that most data's most recent update (like FIRS) was in 2021. Data on the government expenditure on

health infrastructure were obtained from the CBN Statistical Bulletin while data on tax revenue were obtained from the Federal Inland Revenue Services (FIRS)[1,2].

3.4 Description of Research Instrument

For this study, secondary data sources were utilised. This data was obtained from the Federal Inland Revenue Service Annual Statistical Bulletin (2013-2021), and CBN Statistical Bulletin which are made available on the agency's main website.

3.5 Validity of the Research Instrument

Content and construct validity were used in this study. Content validity was used to ascertain if the secondary data sources and variables accurately represent the concepts in this study which are; tax revenue and infrastructural development in the health sector. Construct validity was used to ensure that the selected variables (corporate income tax, petroleum profit tax, education tax, value added tax, and capital expenditure on healthcare) align with the theoretical and conceptual framework in this study.

3.6 Reliability of the Research Instrument

In other to ensure the reliability of the data, the secondary data were obtained directly from the Federal Inland Revenue Service (FIRS) Annual Statistical Bulletin and the CBN Statistical Bulletin, because these sources provide accurate and consistent data over the years under investigation (2013-2021).

3.7 Administration of Research Instrument

Relevant documents or data were obtained from the sources; which are the FIRS Annual Statistical Bulletin and the CBN Statistical Bulletin. After extraction, the data were organised and record in a structured format for analysis in Microsoft Excel. The extracted data were check in other to ascertain the quality and consistency of the data. The collected and cleaned data will then be analysed using the chosen statistical methods.

3.8 Method of Data Collection

The method of collecting secondary data was used for the research. It is recommended that the Annual Statistical Bulletin of the Federal Inland Revenue Service and CBN Statistical Bulletin be examined in order to acquire information regarding tax revenue remittance (2013-2021).

3.9 Method of Data Analysis

The collected data was analysed making use of both descriptive and inferential statistics including techniques from the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 23 such as multiple linear regression. Multiple linear regression is essential in this study because it can be used to estimate the relationships between the dependent variable and independent variables.

3.10 Model Specification

For this study, the dependent variable for this study is the development of the health care infrastructure, and the independent variables are company income tax, petroleum profit tax, education tax, and value added tax.

$$HCt = \alpha 0 + \beta 1CITt + \beta 2PPTt + \beta 3EDTt + \beta 4VATt + \beta 5INFt - \varepsilon t$$

Where: HC=Healthcare Infrastructural Development

CITt=Company Income Tax in year t

PPTt=Petroleum Profit Tax in year t

EDTt=Education Tax in year t

VATt=Value added Tax in year t

INFt=Inflation rate in year t

Eit=error term of firm in year t

A0=is the intercept

B1-β3 = coefficient of independent variables

Endnotes

1. FIRS, Tax Statistics Report. 2021. Statistics. https://www.firs.gov.ng/tax-statistics-report/

2. CBN, Annual Statistical Bulletin. 2022. https://www.cbn.gov.ng/documents/statbulletin.asp.

Chapter Four

Results and Discussion of Findings

This chapter presents the results and discussion of findings which was based on the data used and analysis with respect to the objectives (research questions and hypotheses) of the study. This chapter first shows the instruments' response rate followed by the presentation and interpretation of data (demographic characteristics of respondents, research questions and hypotheses) and then the discussion of findings.

4.1 Presentation of Data

Table 4.1: Descriptive Analysis of Variables

-	Observasion	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
HCD's	9	250.062	547.00	353.5	.07444
CIT	9	933.54	1,747.99	1280.32	.07827
PPT	9	1,157.81	2,666.37	1,910.6	.15222
EDT	9	130.12	279.36	203.73	.11019
VAT	9	767.33	1,531.17	1119.5	.10941
INF	9	8.05	16.95	12.382	3.463

Source: Researcher's Computation 2023

Table 4.1 shows the descriptive analysis of the variables. Specifically, maximum, minimum, mean and standard deviation are extracted and analysed. From the Table, nine (9) observation was used. This is because as at the time of this report, year 2021 was the last year reported and updated on the secondary data sources (FIRS, CBN annual bulletin). It was observed that

Nigerian government spending on health care infrastructure an average of 353.5 billion naira with the maximum expenditure of 547 billion naira in 2021 and 250.062 billion naira in year 2016 respectively for the period under study (2013-2021). The amount collected taxes generated on average is 1,91.1 Billion naira (PPT) for period under study (2013-2021), 128.03 billion naira (CIT), 112 billion naira for VAT and 203.73 billion naira (EDT) for the period under study (2013-2021). The average level of inflation rate for the period under study (2013-2021) is approximately 12.4% which is relatively high. The standard deviation observed from the table show a slightly degree of dispersion among the variables under study. From the Table, Petroleum Profit Tax (PPT) was the highest tax revenue. This implies that most of the tax revenue within period under study was Petroleum Profit Tax (PPT)

4.2 Presentation of Research Questions

Research Question One: Is there any effect of Company Income Tax (CIT) on infrastructure development of the health sector in Nigeria?

Table 4.2: Correlations

Correlations							
		HCD	**CIT**	**INF**	**VAT**	**PPT**	**EDT**
HCD	Pearson Correlation	1					
	Sig. (2-tailed)						
	N	9					
CIT	Pearson Correlation	.702*	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.035					
	N	9	9				

INF	Pearson Correlation	-.577	.288	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.104	.452				
	N	9	9	9			
VAT	Pearson Correlation	.638*	.773*	.570	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	.014	.109			
	N	9	9	9	9		
PPT	Pearson Correlation	.873*	.121	-.489	.012	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.046	.757	.181	.976		
	N	9	9	9	9	9	
EDT	Pearson Correlation	.166	.050	-.558	.117	.493	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.669	.899	.118	.764	.177	
	N	9	9	9	9	9	9

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Source: Researcher's Computation 2023

Table 4.2 shows the Pearson correlation coefficient to analyze the research question developed for this study. The coefficient signs determine the direction of the relationship between the variables which could be either negative or positive. From the Table, expenditure on Health Infrastructural Development has positive relationship with company income tax. Using default 5%, the p-value or Sig. value is 0.035 which is less than the p-value and significant at the $p<0.05$ level (2-tailed). The sample correlation is 0.702 (company income tax correlates with expenditure on Health Infrastructural Development at 0.702) which is a high and a positive relationship. This implies that as a unit rise in company income tax will lead to an increase in expenditure on Health Infrastructural Development and vice versa by 0.702. This suggest that the

higher the revenue collections from company income tax, the higher the Expenditure on Health Infrastructural Development and vice versa. This shows that Company Income Tax (CIT) have a significant positive influence of on infrastructure development of the health sector in Nigeria. This answered the study's first research question.

Research Question Two: What is the impact of Petroleum Profit Tax (PPT) on infrastructure development of the health sector in Nigeria?

Additionally, Table 4.2 shows a significant positive relationship between the expenditure on health infrastructure development and the petroleum profit tax (PPT) (P=.046.The p-value, or Sig. value, is 0.046, which is less than the p-value and significant at the $p<0.05$ level (2-tailed), using the default significance level of 5%. The sample correlation, which is high and favorable, is 0.873 (petroleum profit tax (PPT) correlates with expenditure on health infrastructural development at 0.873). According to this, a unit increase in business petroleum profit tax (PPT) will also result in a 0.873 increase in spending on health infrastructure development. This suggests that expenditures on health infrastructure development increase in direct proportion to petroleum profit tax (PPT) revenue collections, and vice versa. This shows that Petroleum Profit Tax (PPT) have also significant impact on infrastructure development of the health sector in Nigeria, thus, answering the research second question.

Research Question Three: How does Value Added Tax (VAT) affect infrastructure development of the health sector in Nigeria?

According to Table 4.2, the relationship between expenditure on health infrastructure development and value added tax (VAT) is positive. The p-value, or Sig. value, is.004 at the default significance threshold of 5%, which is smaller than the p-value and significant at the $p<0.05$ level (2-tailed). Value Added Tax expenditures connect with spending on health

infrastructure development with a sample correlation of 0.638. This suggests that an increase in Value Added Tax (VAT) of one unit will result in an increase of 0.638 in expenditure on health infrastructure development. This suggests that expenditure on health infrastructure development will increase in direct proportion to Value Added Tax (VAT) income collections, and vice versa. This shows that Value Added Tax (VAT) have a significant positive impact on infrastructure development of the health sector in Nigeria, which answered the research third objective.

Research Question Four: What is the impact of Education Tax (ET) on infrastructure development of the health sector in Nigeria

Similarly, from Table 4.2, the expenditure on health infrastructure development shows a non-significant positive association with education tax (EDT) (P=.669), which is higher than the p-value and thus not significant at the p<0.05 level (2-tailed). The tax on education and spending for health infrastructure development are unrelated. This demonstrates that the Nigerian health sector's infrastructure development is not significantly impacted by the education tax (EDT).

Diagnostic Test

Table 4.3: Diagnostic Test

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.823[a]	.677	.140	96.77828	.677	1.260	5	3	.452	2.151

a. Predictors: (Constant), PPT, VAT, EDT, CIT, INF

b. Dependent Variable: HCD_Dependent

Source: SPSS Survey, 2022

In the study's regression technique, the autocorrelation of residual value was tested using the Durbin Watson (DW) statistic. Durbin Watson (DW), which always has a value between 0 and 4, was employed in this investigation. The absence of autocorrelation between the independent variables, as shown by the DW analysis result of 2.151 on Table 4.3, indicates that the independent variables utilized in the study were adequately able to predict the dependent variable.

Table 4.4: Coefficients of Multiple Regression Analysis

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1024.005	547.771		1.869	.158		
	CIT	.327	.241	.347	1.356	.026	.286	3.501
	PPT	.227	.077	.051	.124	.041	.632	1.582
	EDT	.602	1.307	.269	.460	.410	.316	3.163
	VAT	.206	.217	.443	.490	.033	.131	7.610
	INF	.011	0.03	.264	.918	.426	.178	5.630

a. Dependent Variable: HCD_Dependent

Source: SPSS Survey, 2022

From Table 4.4, a test for multicollinearity was used to determine if each variable in a multiple regression model could be accurately predicted linearly from the others. As a result, the coefficient demonstrates the variables' multicollinearity. The table shows the VIF values for EDT, CIT, INF, VAT, and PPT that are larger than 1 and less than 10 as well as the tolerance scores (3.163, 3.501, 5.630, 7.610, and 1.582, respectively). This demonstrates that the data are not multicollinear.

Table 4.5: Model Regression

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	59025.997	5	11805.199	1.260	.0452[b]
	Residual	28098.105	3	9366.035		
	Total	87124.102	8			

a. Dependent Variable: HCD_Dependent

b. Predictors: (Constant), PPT, VAT, EDT, CIT, INF

Source: SPSS Survey, 2022

The joint impact of the Petroleum Profit Tax (PPT), Value Added Tax (VAT), Education Tax (EDT), Company Income Tax (CIT), and Inflation (INF) on the infrastructure development of the health sector in Nigeria is shown in Table 4.5 along with the model summary and coefficients of multiple regression analysis. The table demonstrates the significance of the ANOVA value ($F = 1.260$, $P<0.05$), indicating that the regression model adequately fits the data. According to the model summary, the criterion (dependent variable) and the predictor variables have an extremely

strong correlation (coefficient of determination, or R value, of.823). The value in this instance is.823, which is favorable.

The R2 value of.667 indicates that the predictor variables (Petroleum Profit Tax (PPT), Value Added Tax (VAT), Education Tax (EDT), Company Income Tax (CIT), and Inflation (INF)) can account for 66.7% of the variation in the infrastructural development of the health sector in Nigeria (dependent variable). Other factors that were not taken into account in the study may be responsible for the remaining 33.3%. According to the adjusted R2 value, which provides a more accurate depiction of the data, only the independent variables that should be retained in the model can account for 66.7% of the variation in the infrastructural development of Nigeria's health sector. This therefore means that the remaining 33.3% could be a result of other predictors included or added to the model, but impacts positively or negatively on the Expenditure on Health Infrastructural Development.

From the regression results from Table 4.4 above, at 5% level, the Company Income Tax is favorably significant (p-value=0.026), while the Education Tax is positively significant (p-value=0.021). The coefficient has a value of 0.327. This suggests that the expenditure on healthcare infrastructure development will increase by 0.327 for every 0.328 increase in corporate income tax. This demonstrated that CIT money has a substantial impact on the development of the health care infrastructure in Nigeria. Petroleum Profit Tax is positively significant at the 5% level (p-value=0.041), continuing the same trend. Because of the petroleum profit tax's 0.227 coefficient, an increase in the petroleum profit tax will result in an increase in spending on healthcare infrastructure development, and vice versa. This result implies that PPT has positive significant relationship with Health care infrastructure Development in Nigeria.

Education Tax result is also positively insignificant at 5% confidence level (p-value=0.41). Even though it is not significant, the positive coefficient value (0.602) indicates that changes in the education tax will have an impact on how much money Nigeria spends on developing its healthcare infrastructure. However, the influence of this variable on the growth of the healthcare infrastructure is not particularly great. Value Added Tax is also favorably significant at the 5% level of significance (p-value = 0.033). The Value Added Tax's revenue has a substantial impact on the development of Nigeria's health care infrastructure, as evidenced by the coefficient of 0.306, which predicts that raising the VAT will boost expenditure on that sector of the economy.

Table 4.4 also reveals that the beta coefficient (β) and t- values for CIT (Beta = .347; t = 1.356; Significance = .026), PPT (Beta = .051; t = .124; Significance = .041), VAT (Beta = .443; t = .490; Significance = .033) are relatively significant at $P<0.05$. However, EDT (Beta = .269; t = -.460; Significance = .410) is not significant at $P<0.05$. These findings show that CIT, PPT, and VAT were required in the model since they provided an explanation for the variation in Nigeria's expenditure on the development of its healthcare infrastructure. Therefore, CIT, PPT, and VAT had a significant impact on the construction of the country's health care infrastructure.

The table shows that all of the variables (CIT, PPT, EDT, and VAT) have a positive relationship with Health care Infrastructure Development in Nigeria, regardless of whether there is a positive or negative relationship between the significant predictors and the dependent variable (Health care Infrastructure Development in Nigeria). These findings show that as they expanded, Nigeria's expenditure for the development of its healthcare infrastructure increased as well.

4.3 Presentation of Test of Hypotheses

$H_0$1: Company Income Tax (CIT) has no significant impact on infrastructural development of the health sector.

Results from hypothesis one indicated a positive relationship between expenditure on health infrastructure development and company income tax, which is significant at the p0.05 level (2-tailed) at a p-value of 0.032.

$H_0$2: Petroleum Profit Tax (PPT) has no significant impact on infrastructural development of the health sector

The results of hypothesis two likewise shown a significant positive relationship between expenditure on health infrastructure development and petroleum profit tax (PPT) (P=.0.046), which is less significant than the p-value and significant at the p<0.05 level (2-tailed). Petroleum profit tax (PPT) and expenditure on health infrastructure development had a sample correlation of 0.873 (0.702).

$H_0$3: Value Added Tax (VAT) has no significant impact on infrastructural development of the health sector in Nigeria.

Findings from hypothesis three showed that expenditure on Health Infrastructural Development has positive relationship with Value Added Tax (VAT). At a 0.05 (2-tailed) significance level, the relationship is significant. Value Added Tax and Health Infrastructure Development expenditure correlate by 0.638.

$H_0$4: Education Tax (ET) has no significant impact on infrastructural development of the health sector

Results from hypothesis four demonstrated a non-significant positive relationship between education tax (EDT) and investment on health infrastructure development (P=.669). The results of hypothesis five (Ho5) showed that the beta coefficient () and t-values for CIT (Beta =.347; t = 1.356; Significance =.026), PPT (Beta =.051; t =.124; Significance =.041), and VAT (Beta =.443; t =.490; Significance =.033) are relatively significant at P0.05. EDT, however, have a positive relationship but it is not significant at p<0.05 (Beta =.269; t = -.460; Significance =.410). The amount of infrastructure development anticipated of any government is determined by tax revenue.

4.4 Discussion of Findings

The descriptive analysis revealed that the Nigerian government spent an average of 353.5 billion naira over the study period. For the research period (2013–2021), the average revenue from taxes collected was 191.1 billion naira (PPT), 128.03 billion naira (CIT), 112 billion naira (VAT), and 203.73 billion naira (EDT). The average annual inflation rate for the study period (2013–2021) is roughly 12.4%, which is a relatively high.

Results from hypothesis one indicated a positive relationship between expenditure on health infrastructure development and company income tax, which is significant at the p0.05 level (2-tailed) at a p-value of 0.032. This result is consistent with research that found a positive correlation between company income tax and expenditures for the development of health infrastructure at a 5% level[1]. This research findings is partially consistent with another work which also reported that company income tax influences positively and significantly on

economic growth with an estimating value of 55.79390 (p=0.2580>0.05)[2]. Similarly, this result is corroborated partially in a study on the effect of tax revenue on infrastructural development in Nigeria. It reported that company income tax has a significant and positive effect on capital expenditure (B2=0.602013; p-value = 0.0000 0.05)[3]

The results of hypothesis two likewise shown a significant positive relationship between expenditure on health infrastructure development and petroleum profit tax (PPT) (P=.0.046), which is less significant than the p-value and significant at the p<0.05 level (2-tailed). Petroleum profit tax (PPT) and expenditure on health infrastructure development had a sample correlation of 0.873 (0.702). This finding conflicts with a study's conclusion that there is no relationship between Nigeria's health infrastructure development and the petroleum profit tax (PPT)[1]. This result is also opposed a findings that revealed that Petroleum Profit Tax (oil tax revenue) has a positive but no significant relationship with Nigeria Economic Growth[4]. The result corroborates the findings in a study that showed that Petroleum profit tax has a significant and positive effect on capital expenditure of Nigeria (B= 0.481341; p-value = 0.0060 < 0.05)[3].

Findings from hypothesis three showed that expenditure on Health Infrastructural Development has positive relationship with Value Added Tax (VAT). At a 0.05 (2-tailed) significance level, the relationship is significant. Value Added Tax and Health Infrastructure Development expenditure correlate by 0.638. This research partially supports a study that found that, at a VAT rate of 5%, infrastructural development in Nigeria is positively impacted and statistically significant[5].

Results from hypothesis four demonstrated a non-significant positive relationship between education tax (EDT) and investment on health infrastructure development (P=.669). The results

of hypothesis five (Ho5) showed that the beta coefficient () and t-values for CIT (Beta =.347; t = 1.356; Significance =.026), PPT (Beta =.051; t =.124; Significance =.041), and VAT (Beta =.443; t =.490; Significance =.033) are relatively significant at P0.05. EDT, however, have a positive relationship but it is not significant at p<0.05 (Beta =.269; t = -.460; Significance =.410). The amount of infrastructure development anticipated of any government is determined by tax revenue, which is why this conclusion largely corroborates a prior empirical study that found a relationship between tax revenue and infrastructural development in Osun State[6]. The findings of this study are also in line with research demonstrating that PPT and VAT had a significant impact on the country's health care sector's infrastructure growth[1]. Another study, which partially corroborates the results of this research, revealed that tax income had a substantial impact on the total infrastructure expectation gap in Sub-Saharan Africa (Adj.R2 = 0.51, W (4, 263) = 63.01, p .05)[7]. This result is consistent with a prior empirical study that found that the Nigerian economy was significantly impacted by corporation income tax (CIT), petroleum profit tax (PPT), and tertiary education tax (TAT)[8].

Endnotes

1. L. O. Mustapha, L. I. Olalekan, A. Damilola, A. Ayobami & I. B. Ngozi, *Tax Revenue Collections and Health Care Infrastructural Development in Nigeria*. **Journal of Finance and Accounting**, 10(1), 2022, 19-24.

2. D. G. Edewusi & I. E. Ajayi, *The Nexus between Tax Revenue and Economic Growth in Nigeria*. **International Journal of Applied Economics, Finance and Accounting**, 4(2), 2019, 45-55.

3. H. O. Muojekwu & F. N. Udeh, *Effect of Tax Revenue On Infrastructural Development In Nigeria*. **Journal of Global Accounting**, 9(1), 2023, 161-189.

4. O. A. Ayeni & C. O. Omodero, *Tax Revenue and Nigeria Economic in Nigeria*. **Cogent Business & Management**, 9(1), 2022.

5. J. A. Okoror, U. Uwaleke, M. A. Mainoma & G. E. Oyedokun, *Value Added Tax and Infrastructural Development in Nigeria*. **Journal of Taxation and Economic Development**, 18(2), 2019, 158-181.

6. W. O. Ajiteru, L. O. Adaranijo & L. A. Bakare, *Tax Revenue and Infrastructural Development in Osun State*. **International Journal of Innovative Finance and Economics Research**, 6(2), 2018, 50-61.

7. O. Daniel-Adebayo, I. R. Akintoye, F. F. Adegbie, & A. O. Ajayi-Owoeye, *Tax Revenue and Infrastructure Expectation Gap in Selected Sub-Saharan African Countries.* **International Journal of Accounting Research**, 7(1), 2022, 75-86.

8. F. N. Uwaifo & O. Obaretin, *Tax Revenue and Economic Development in Nigeria*. **Nigerian Journal of Accounting and Finance**, 14(2), 2022.

Chapter Five

Conclusion

This chapter deals with the summary of findings of the study, conclusion, recommendations and contributions to knowledge, and area of further studies.

5.1 Summary of Findings

This study sought to determine how tax money received by the Nigerian federal government affected the growth of the health sector's infrastructure. The findings of the study showed that the Nigerian government spent 353.5 billion naira on average each year. An average of 191.1 billion naira (PPT) in PPT, 128.03 billion naira (CIT), 112 billion naira (VAT), and 203.73 billion naira (EDT) in CIT, EDT, and VAT were earned over the study period (2013–2021).

Results from hypothesis one indicated a positive relationship between expenditure on health infrastructure development and corporate income tax, which is significant at the p0.05 level (2-tailed) at a p-value of 0.035. Results from hypothesis two demonstrated that Petroleum Profit Tax (PPT) has a major impact on the development of the health sector's infrastructure. The petroleum profit tax (PPT) and expenditure on health infrastructural development have a strong positive relationship (P=0.046).

Findings from hypothesis three revealed a positive relationship between expenditure on health infrastructure development and value added tax (VAT). At the 2-tailed p 0.05 significance level, the relationship is significant (P =.004). Findings from hypothesis four indicated that the association between spending on health infrastructure development and education tax (EDT) is not significantly positive (P=.669).

Findings from hypothesis five (Ho5) revealed that the beta coefficient (β) and t- values for CIT (Beta = .347; t = 1.356; Significance = .026), PPT (Beta = .051; t = .124; Significance = .041) and VAT (Beta = .443; t = .490; Significance = .033) are relatively significant at P<0.05. However, EDT (Beta = .269; t = -.460; Significance = .410) have a positive relationship but not significant at P<0.05.

5.2 Conclusion

This study concludes that the only three taxes that have a significant impact on the development of Nigeria's healthcare infrastructure are the petroleum profit tax (PPT), company income tax (CIT), and value-added tax (VAT), while education tax do not significantly influence the development of this infrastructure.

5.3 Recommendations

The following recommendations are therefore put forth based on the findings and objectives of the study:

1. To promote the contribution of these taxes to transparently spending the funds generated on health care development in a way that will strengthen the nations' health facilities, effective, efficient, and transparent structures of collection should be encouraged.
2. The results of this study on corporate income tax showed that corporate income tax has a good and considerable impact on the growth of Nigeria's healthcare infrastructure. Therefore, it is recommended that sufficient company income tax revenue be generated and that the funds be spent on health infrastructure in an ethical manner.

3. The results of this study on the petroleum profit tax also showed that the expansion of Nigeria's healthcare infrastructure is positively and significantly influenced by the petroleum profit tax. Thus, the study recommends sufficient funds be raised by a tax on petroleum profits in order to maintain and enhance the country's health care system.

4. In a similar vein, the findings of this study on value added tax (VAT) showed that VAT has a favorable and considerable impact on the growth of Nigeria's healthcare infrastructure. Therefore, it is also recommended that value added tax (VAT) be used to generate sufficient and transparent revenue.

5. Education Tax (EDT) does not have a positive and significant influence on healthcare infrastructure development. It is recommended that Education Tax (EDT) should be fine-tuned and channelled towards Health care infrastructural development in Nigeria.

5.4 Contribution to Knowledge

The findings of this study contribute to knowledge in multiple ways. Conceptually, this study gave a deeper and richer insight to the concepts that were used in the study beyond that used in prior studies, it contribute to the management science literature on taxation revenue generation and health infrastructure development. The findings of this study have provided the regulatory agencies with insight into the existing condition of taxes in Nigeria and the possible responses. This study's findings also serve as a resource for accounting students, lecturers, and scholars. It will serve as a catalyst for further research on the topic.

5.5 Suggested Area for Further Studies

Areas to look at in further studies are discussed as follows:

1. Since this study ex post facto survey research design, other types of designs can be employed in other studies to provide other kinds of blueprint to arrive at the findings and conclusion of the study.

2. Further study can be done on the impact on tax revenue of other sectors of the nation such as education, security and others.

Bibliography

Chapters in Book

Agwu, J. O. *Exchange Rate and Housing Deficit Trends in Nigeria: Descriptive and Inferential Analyses.* In *Housing and SDGs in Urban Africa*. Springer, Singapore, 2021, 237-256.

Janotš, M. *Local Charge for the Evaluation of Building Land with the Possibility of its Connection to the Construction of Water Supply or Sewerage*. In Těžký, V., Jantoš, M. & Siuda, V. (eds) *Local Charges Act – Commentary*. Prague: Wolters Kluwer, 2017.

Radvan, M. *Urbanization and Local Taxes: The Case of the Czech Republic Focused on the Infrastructure Charge.* In Hoffman, I., Rozsnyai, K. F. & Nagy, M. *Urbanisation and Government(s)*. 1st ed. Maribor: Lex Localis – Institute of Local Self-Government Maribor, 2021, 123-137.

Conference Proceeding/Seminar

Nwonyuku, K. *Deepening Tax Compliance Culture in the Educational Institutions of a Private Character in Anambra State, Nigeria*. Being a Paper Presentation at the Workshop on School Improvement Planning and Tax Management for Private Schools Organized by the Integral Development Konsult (IDK) in Collaboration with the Ministry of Basic Education, Awka, Anambra State, 2019.

Journal

Abomaye-Nimenibo, W. A., Michael, J. E. & Friday, H. C. *An Emperical Analysis of Tax Revenue and Economic Growth in Nigeria from 1980 to 2015*. **Global Journal of Human-Social Science**, 18(3), 2018, 8-33.

Ade, O. J. & Festus, A. F. *Personal Income Tax and Infrastructural Development in Lagos State, Nigeria*. **Finance and Accounting**, 8(6), 2020, 276-287.

Adefunke, A. B. & Usiomon, A. O. *Impact of Company Income Tax On Corporate Profitability in Nigeria*. **Indian Journal of Finance and Banking**, 9(1), 2022, 104-114.

Adegbite, T. A. & Shehu, A. G. *Indirect Taxes and Road Construction: An Appaisal of Efficacious Relationship from Nigeria*. **International Journal of Management, Social Sciences, Peace and Conflict Studies**,5(2), 2022, 49- 62.

Adeleke, R., Osayomi, T. & Adeoti, T. *Does Sub-National Government Revenue have an effect on Socio-Economic and Infrastructural Development in Nigeria*? **A Geographical Analysis. Regional Science Policy & Practice**, 13(5), 2021.

Adelusi, A. I. *The Effect of Tax Revenue on the Economic Growth of Nigeria*. **Journal of Taxation and Economic Development**, 18(2), 2019, 102-114.

Adenugba, A. A. & Ogechi, C. F. *The Effect of Internal Revenue Generation on Infrastructural Development: A Study of Lagos State Internal Revenue Service.* **Journal of Educational and Social Research**,3(2), 2013.

Agunbiade, O. & Idebi, A. A. *Tax Revenue and Economic Growth Nexus: Empirical Evidence from the Nigerian Economy.***European Journal of Economic and Financial Research,** 4(2), 2020.

Agyei, K. N. & Amankwaah,E. *Trade Tax Revenue and Trade Openness in Ghana.* **Journal of Emerging Trends in Economics and Management Sciences,** 9(6), 2018, 344-349.

Ajiteru, W. O., Adaranijo, L. O., Bakare, L. A. *Tax Revenue and Infrastructural Development in Osun State*. **International Journal of Innovative Finance and Economics Research,** 6(2), 2018, 50-61.

Ajumise, M. S. & Ezekiel, B. *Government Expenditure: A Major Determinant Tools on the Management of Tertiary Education in Nigeria*. **IOSR Journal of Research & Method in** Education, 10(4), 2020, 28-32.

Albimana, M. M. & Hemedb,I. M. *The Determinants of Tax Revenues among EAC Members.* **African Tax and Customs Review,** 2022, 11-19.

Aminu, A. M., Ibrahim, M. S. & Sulu-Gambari, M. *Impact Analysis of Petroleum Profit Tax and the Economic Growth in Nigerian: 1985-2019.* **International Journal of Academic Accounting, Finance & Management Research**, 4(10), 2020, 59-68.

Anyaduba, J. O. & Aronmwan, E. J. *Taxes and Infrastructural Development in Nigeria.* **Nigerian Journal of Banking, Finance and Entrepreneurship Management,** 1(1), 2015, 14-28.

Asaolu, T.O., Olabisi, J., Akinbode, S.O., & Alebiosu, O.N. *Tax Revenue and Economic Growth in Nigeria*. **Scholedge International Journal of Management & Development**, 5(7), 2018, 72-85.

Audu, S. I. *Pattern of Spending and the Level of Tax Revenue in Nigeria.* **International Journal of Research and Innovation in Social Science,** 4(9), 2020, 561-567.

Ayedun, C. A., Durodola, D. O., Oloyede, S. A. & Oni, A. S. *The Value Added Tax (VAT) Administration in Nigeria and the Practice of Estate Surveying and Valuation.***Covenant Journal of Business and Social Sciences**, 9(1), 2018, 45-54.

Ayeni, O. A. & Omodero, C. O. *Tax Revenue and Nigeria Economic in Nigeria*. **Cogent Business & Management**, 9(1), 2022.

Ayeni, O. D. & Afolabi,J. O. *Tax Revenue, Infrastructural Development and Economic Growth in Nigeria.* **International Journal of Management and Social Science Research Review**, 7(7), 2020, 1-12.

Aza, S., Daniel, K. E. & Innocent, A. S. *Effect of Petroleum Profit Tax on Capital Expenditure in Nigeria*. **Bingham International Journal of Accounting and Finance**, 2(2), 2021, 13-27.

Bala, M. M. *An Evaluation of Value Added Tax in Nigeria, Prospects and Challenges*. **African Scholar Journal of Mgt. Science and Entrepreneurship**, 19(7), 2020, 111-120.

Behera, D. K. & Dash, U. *Impact of GDP and Tax Revenue on Health Care Financing: An Empirical Investigation from Indian States*. **Theoretical and Applied Economics,** 24, (2) 2017, 249-266.

Bonga, W. G. & Sithole, R. *Problematic Infrastructure Factors affecting Development in the 21st Century for Zimbabwe.***World Journal of Economics and Finance,** 6(1), 2020, 40-49

Cateia, J. V., Savard, L. & de Freitas, C. A. *Economic Impacts of Infrastructure Investment with different Funding Mechanisms: Evidence from Guinea-Bissau.* **Cogent Economics & Finance**, 2022, 1-16.

Chiamogu, A. N. & Nzewi, U. C. *Value Added Tax and Nigerian Economy: An Empirical Analysis.* **International Journal of Advanced Academic Research, Social and Management Sciences**, 6(4), 2020, 53-78.

Christian, C. *Revenue Generation as a Tool for Infrastructural Development in Nigeria*. **Journal of Accounting and Financial Management**, 5(2), 2019, 59-72.

Chukwunwike, O. D., Ofoegbu, G. N., Amara, F. M. & Okafor,R. G. *Government Accountability and Tax Revenue: Evidence from Nigeria.* **African Journal of Business and Economic Research**, 16(4), 2021, 159-179.

Clemens, J. & Veuger, S. *Implications of the COVID-19 Pandemic for State Government Tax Revenues*. **National Tax Journal**, 73(3), 2020, 619-644.

Cornelius, U. B. *Economic Meltdown and the Nigerian Oil-Dependent Economy*. **Studies in Politics and Society**, 2010.

Cung, N. H. & Son,T. T. *Determinants of Corporate Income Tax Revenue in Vietnam.***Advances in Management & Applied Economics**, 10(1), 2020, 89-103.

Dahal, A. K. *Tax-to-GDP Ratio and the Relation of Tax Revenue with GDP: Nepalese Perspective.***Researcher,A Research Journal of Culture and Society**, 4(1), 2020, 80-96.

Dang, D. Y. & Dashe, A. D. *Empirical Analysis of the Contribution of States' IGR to Economic Growth of Nigeria: A Panel Study*. **Tax Academy Research Journal**, 1(1), 2017, 61-76.

Daniel-Adebayo, O., Akintoye, I. R., Adegbie, F. F. & Ajayi-Owoeye, A. O. *Tax Revenue and Infrastructure Expectation Gap in Selected Sub-Saharan African Countries.* **International Journal of Accounting Research**, 7(1), 2022, 75-86.

Dubrovina, N., Dubrovina, V., Shelest, O. & Tulai, O. *Impact of Taxes on the Export-Import Tendencies in the Countries of the EU in Unstable Present-Day.* **Journal of European Economy**, 20(4), 2021, 701-716.

Edewusi, D. G. & Ajayi, I. E. *The Nexus between Tax Revenue and Economic Growth in Nigeria*. **International Journal of Applied Economics, Finance and Accounting**, 4(2), 2019, 45-55.

Edgar, L. *Building a Bridge between WASH in HCFs and the Right to Water through the Lens of Maternal and Child Health.* **EMORY International Law Review Recent Developments**,2022, 34-59.

Edori, D. S. *Tax Revenue and Nigeria's Economic Growth*. **Journal of Accounting and Financial Management,** 8(4), 2022, 173-186.

Edori, D. S., Des-Wosu, C. & Ukehinakachi, C. *The Influence of Tax Revenue on Economic Development in Nigeria*. **European Journal of Accounting, Finance and Investment,** 8(10), 2022, 1-12.

Effiong, S. A. & Attah, S. E. *Impact of Income Tax Rates on Tax Revenue in Nigeria*. **International Journal of Economic Development, Research and Investment**, 3(3), 2016, 1-11.

Effiong, S. A. & Nwanagu,P. O. *E-Commerce Transactions and Tax Revenue: A Commensal-Symbiotic Evaluation*. **Test Engineering and Management**, 83, 2020, 26853-26873.

Efuntade, A. O. *Value Added Tax and its Effect on Revenue Generation in Nigeria*. **KIU Interdisciplinary Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences**, 1(2), 2020, 353-369.

Efuntade, A. O., Efuntade, O. O., &Akinola, A. O. *Tax Revenue and Its Effect on Government Expenditure in Nigeria*. **International Journal of Business &Management**, 8(9), 2020, 279-283.

Egbuhuzor, C. A. & Tomquin, A. L. *Effect of Indirect Taxes on Economic Growth in Nigeria*. **Journal of Accounting and Financial Management,** 7(1), 2021.

Ejemai, M. O. & Akintoye, I. R. & Adegbie, F. F. *Companies Income, Customs and Excise Duty Tax Gap and Infrastructural Development in Nigeria*. **International Journal of Development Research**, 10, 2020.

Eneje, B. C. *Appraisal of Company Income Tax and Value Added Tax on Growth of Nigeria Economy: Imperetive for Reform*. **FUNAI Journal of Accounting Business and Finance**, 2018, 187-198.

Epaphra, M. & Massawe, J. *Corruption, Governance and Tax Revenues in Africa*. **Business and Economic Horizons**, 13(4), 2017, 439-467.

Ewa, U., Adesola, W. & Essien, E. *Impact of Tax Revenue on Economic Development in Nigeria.***International Business Research,** 13(6), 2020.

Eze, E. & Onyedikachi, O. J. *Tax Revenue and Economic Growth in Nigeria*. **Accounting and Taxation Review**, 4(4), 2020, 44-53.

Fineboy, I. J., Nwankwo, K. O. & Akujor, J. C. *Comparative Effect of Tax Revenue on Economic Growth of Selected African Countries.* **The International Journal of Business Management and Technology**, 6(4), 2022, 123-140.

Gaspareniene, L., Kliestik, T., Sivickiene, R., Remeikiene, R. & Endrijaitis, M. *Impact of Foreign Direct Investment on Tax Revenue: The Case of the European Union*. **Journal of Competitiveness**, 14(1), 2022, 43-60.

Hammayo, A., Shittu, I., Abdullahi,A. A. *Impact of State Government Revenues on Infrastructural Development in Bauchi State Nigeria.***International Journal of Accounting and Taxation,** 8(1), 2020, 34-43.

Harelimana, J. B. *Effect of Value Added Tax Reforms on Revenue Performance in Rwanda Revenue Authority*. **Open Access Journal of Biomedical Science & Research**, 1(3), 2020.

Harelimana, J. B. T*he Role of Taxation on Resilient Economy and Development of Rwanda*. **Journal of Finance Marketing**, 2(1), 2018, 28-39.

Hassan, M. S., Mahmood, H., Tahir, M. N., Alkhateeb, T. T. & Wajid,A. *Governance: A Source to Increase Tax Revenue in Pakistan.* **Complexity**, 2021, 1-11.

Hellerstein, C. O. *Challenges of e-commerce in Nigeria: The Panacea for Legal Framework*. **Global Journal of Politics and Law Research**, 2(4), 1997, 1-5.

Ideh, A. O. *Tax Revenue and Economic Development of the Nigerian Economy*. **Nigerian Journal of Management Sciences,** 7(1), 2019, 223-231.

Idialu, R. A. *Righteousness as a Precursor to National Greatness in Proverbs 14: 34 and its Relevance for Nigerian Socio-Economic Development*. **Asia-Africa Journal of Mission and Ministry**, 23, 2021, 98-119.

Ihenyen, C. J. & Mieseigha, E. G. *Taxation as an Instrument of Economic Growth: The Nigerian Perspective*. **Information and Knowledge Management**, 4(12), 2014, 49-53.

Inimino, E. E., Otubu, O. P. & Akpan, J. E. *Petroleum Profit Tax and Economic Growth in Nigeria.***Asian Journal of Sustainable Business Research**, 1(2), 2020, 121-130.

Ironkwe, U. I. & Ndah, E. N. *Impact of Internally Generated Revenue on performance of Local Government in Rivers State, Nigeria*. **International Journal of Business and Law Research**, 4(4), 2016, 42-58.

Johnson, P. N. & Omodero, C. O. *Governance Quality and Tax Revenue Mobilization in Nigeria.* **Journal of Legal Studies***,* 28(42), 2021, 1-41.

Joseph, F. I. & Omodero, C. O. *The Nexus between Government Revenue and Economic Growth in Nigeria.***Economics and Business**, 34(1), 2020, 35-45.

Kaka, E. J. *Literature Review of Taxation and Debt Servicing in Nigeria*. **International Journal of Auditing and Accounting Studies**, 2(2), 2020, 213-231.

Kalu, C. U., Onuigbo, F. N., Imoagwu, C. P. & Njemanzeet, C. *Infrastructure in the Context of Economic Growth and Development in Nigeria: Implications for the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).* **Journal of International Economic Relations and Development Economics**, 1(1), 2021, 59-73.

Kareem, R. O., Arije, R. A. & Avovome, Y. H. *Value Added Tax and Economic Growth in Nigeria (1994-2017)*. **Izvestiya, Journal of Varna University of Economics**, 64(2), 2020, 137-152.

Kooshkebaghi, M., Emamgholipour, S. & Dargahi,H. *Explaining Specific Taxes Management and Use in the Health Sector: A Qualitative Study.* **BMC Health Services Research,** 22, 2022, 1-17.

Lateef, O. M., Lasisi, I. O., Adegboye, D., Ajepe, A. & Isife, B. N. *Tax Revenue Collections and Health Care Infrastructural Development in Nigeria.* **Journal of Finance and Accounting**, 10(1), 2022, 19-24.

Lozano-Rojas, F. & Carlin, P. *The Effect of Soda Taxes beyond Beverages in Philadelphia.* **Health Economics,** 31, 2022, 2381–2410.

MacCarthy, J., Muda, P. & Sunu, P. *Tax Revenue and Economic Growth Nexus in Ghana: Co-integration and Granger Causality Test.***Bulletin of Applied Economics**, 9(2), 2022, 15-35

Maimako, L. N., Kwatmen, M. N. & Gwaison, P. D. *Effect of Tax Administration on Tax Revenue in Plateau State Nigeria.* **Dutse Journal of Economics and Development Studies**, 8, 2019, 75-82.

Makinde, O. A., Sule, A., Ayankogbe, O. & Boone, D. *Distribution of Health Facilities in Nigeria: Implications and Options for Universal Health Coverage*. **The International Journal of Health Planning and Management**, 33(4), 2018, 1179-1192.

Manan, A., Nawaz, Z., Ahmed, W. & Talib,M. N. *Assessing the Determinants of Tax Revenue: Empirical Evidence from Pakistan.* **Pacific Business Review**, 4(11), 2022, 69-84.

Mannan, A., Aziz, B. & Nawaz, Z. *Impact of Economic and Financial Factors on Tax Revenue: Evidence from South Asia.* **Asian Finance Research Journal**, 3(2), 2022, 1-18.

Mbah, A. N. & Onuora, J. K. J. *Effect of Internally Generated Revenue on Infrastructural Development of South East States of Nigeria*. **IIARD International Journal of Economics and Business Management**, 4(7), 2018.

Miceikienė, A., Walczak, D. & Misevičiūtė, I. *The Impact of Environmental Taxes on Mitigation of Pollution in Agriculture: The Theoretical Approach.* **Management Theory and Studies for Rural Business and Infrastructure Development,** 44(3), 2022, 263-273.

Mishra, A. K. & P. K. Mohanty, *Urban Infrastructure Financing in India: Applying the benefit and Earmarking Principles of Taxation*. **Journal of Social and Economic Development,** 2018.

Modero, C. O., Ekwe, M. C. & Ihendinihu, J. U. *The Impact of Internally Generated Revenue on Economic Development in Nigeria.* **Accounting and Finance Research**, 7(2), 2018, 103-114.

Mohamud, A. A. & Isak, N. N. *Reforming the Tax System of the Federal Government of Somalia.***Journal of Tax Administration**, 5(2), 2019, 125-137.

Mueni, M. R., Wawire, W. H. & Onono, P. A. *Effects of Political Risk Factors on Tax Revenue in Kenya.* **European Journal of Economic and Research,** 5(1), 2021, 48-64.

Muhammad, U. & Bakwai, B. *Enhancing Funding in Universities in Nigeria.* **Studies in Educational Planning and Administration**, 5(1), 2015, 184-198.

Muojekwu, H. O. & Udeh,F. N. *Effect of Tax Revenue On Infrastructural Development In Nigeria*. **Journal of Global Accounting**, 9(1), 2023, 161-189.

Mustapha, L. O., Olalekan, L. I., Damilola, A., Ayobami, A. & Ngozi, I. B. *Tax Revenue Collections and Health Care Infrastructural Development in Nigeria.* **Journal of Finance and Accounting**, 10(1), 2022, 19-24.

Ngu, S. K. *Petroleum Profit Tax and Performance of Listed Oil and Gas Firms in Nigeria.* **African Journal of Business and Economic Development**, 1(4), 2021, 1-13.

Nguyen, H. T. & Darsono,S. N. *The Impacts of Tax Revenue and Investment on the Economic Growth in Southeast Asian Countries.* **Journal of Accounting and Investment,** 23(1), 2022, 129-146.

Nkechi, M. A. & Onuora, J. K. *Effect of Internally Generated Revenue on Infrastructural Development of South East States of Nigeria*. **IIARD International Journal of Economics and Business Management**,4(7), 2018.

Nmesirionye, J. A., Jones, E. &Onuche, E. V. S. *Impact of Indirect Taxes on Economic Performance of Nigeria (1994-2017*). **European Journal of accounting, Finance and Investment,** 5(4), 2019.

Nnubia, I. C., Okafor, G. O., Chukwunwike, O. D., Asogwa, O. S. & Ogan, R. J. *Effect of e-Taxation on Revenue Generation in Nigeria a Pre-Post Analysis.***Academy of Entrepreneurship Journal**, 26(3), 2020, 1-9.

Nurudeen, A., Mohd, Z. A., David, J., Sakanko, A. M., Onyewuchi, A. B. & Awadh, A. G. *The Behaviour of Tax Revenue amid Corruption in Nigeria: Evidence from the Non-Linear ARDL Approach.* **Economic Studies**, 31(4), 2022, 55-76.

Nwande, M. C. & Olorunfemi, G. C. *The Operation and Maintenance of Rural Infrastructure for Development in Nigeria- The Policy Options*. **International Journal of Innovative Development and Policy Studies**, 9(4), 2021, 90-101.

Nwaobia, A. N., Ogundipe, S. A. & Adejumo,R. I. *Effect of Tax Revenue on Foreign Debt in Nigeria.* **International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications,** 11(10), 2021, 260-268.

Obaretin, O. & Monye-Emina, H. E. *Petroleum Profit Tax and Economic Growth in Nigeria*. **Amity Journal of Economics**, 4(2), 2019, 72-82.

Obembe, T. A., Adenipekun, A. B., Morakinyo, O. M. & Odebunmi, K. O. *Implications of National Tax Policy on Local Pharmaceutical Production in a Southwestern State Nigeria: Qualitative Research for the Intersection of National Pharmaceutical Policy on Health Systems Development.* **BMC Health Services Research**, 22(264), 2022, 1-10.

Oben, V. O. & Sunday, A. E. *Administrative Tolerance and Tax Revenue: A Synergistic Desparity.* **Journal of Contemporary Issues in Business and Government,** 27(4), 2021, 123-130.

Obidimma, E. & Nwuzor, D. *An Appraisal of the Problems of Tax Evasion and Avoidance in Nigeria*. **International Review of Law and Jurisprudence,** 4(1), 2022.

Odoemene, R. C. *Internally Generated Revenue (IGR) and Infrastructural Development Of Local Government Areas In Nigeria*. **African Journal of Social and Behavioural Sciences,** 10(2), 2020 301-317.

Ofori, I. K., Ofori, P. E. & Asongu, S. *Towards Efforts to Enhance Tax Revenue Mobilisation in Africa: Exploring Synergies between Industrialisation and ICTs*. **European Xtramile Centre of African Studies Working Paper**, WP/21/058, 2021, 1-30.

Ofurum, C. N., Amaefule, L. I., Okonya, B. E. & Amaefule, H. C. *Impact of e-taxation on Nigeria's Revenue and Economic Growth: A Pre-Post Analysis.***International Journal of Finance and Accounting**, 7(2), 2018, 19-26.

Ogbonna, G. N. & Appah, E. *Effect of Tax Administration and Revenue on Economic Growth in Nigeria.***Research Journal of Finance and Accounting,** 7(13), 2016, 49-58.

Ogunmakin, A. A., Adebayo, I. A. & Ojo, D. O. *Value Added Tax (Vat) and Minimum Wage in Nigeria: Implications on Government Revenue and the Living Standard of the Populace*. **Journal of Commerce & Accounting Research**,10(1), 2021.

Oisasoje, O. M. & Ojeifo, S. A. *The Role of Public Infrastructure in Poverty Reduction in the Rural Areas of Edo state, Nigeria.***Research on Humanity and Social Sciences**, 2(7), 2012.

Okeke, M. N., Mbonu, C. M., & Amahalu, N. N. *Effect of Tax Revenue on Economic Development in Nigeria*. **International Journal of Research in Business, Economics and Management**, 2(4), 2018, 25-61.

Okeke, M. N., Mbonu, C. M., & Amahalu, N. N. *Tax Revenue and Economic Development in Nigeria: A Disaggregated Analysis*. **International Journal of Academic Research in Accounting, Finance and Management Sciences**, 8(2), 2018, 178- 199.

Okoh, U., Jehu, P. & Abubakar,A. *Explicit Knowledge and Tax Revenue Performance: The Role of Externalization Process.* **Review of Socio-Economic Perspectives**, 7(3), 2022, 43-54.

Okolo, C. V., Edeme, R. K. & Emmanuel, C. *Economic Analysis of Capital Expenditure and Infrastructural Development*. **Journal of Infrastructural Development**, 10(1), 2018, 52-62.

Okonkwo, I. V. & Chukwu, K. O. *Government Tax Revenue and Economic Development in Nigeria: 1996- 2017*. **International Journal of Research in Business, Economics and Management**, 3(3), 2019, 91-105.

Okonkwo, O. O., Amahalu, N. N. & Obi, J. C. *Tax Revenue and Productivity of Nigeria.***African Journal of Business and Economic Development**, 2(1), 2022, 26-40.

Okoror, J. A., Mainomah, M. A. & Uwaleke, U. J. *Companies Income Tax and Infrastructural Development in Nigeria*. **Accounting and Taxation Review**, 3(3), 2019, 24-43.

Okoror, J. A., Uwaleke, U., Mainoma, M. A. & Oyedokun,G. E. *Value Added Tax and Infrastructural Development in Nigeria*. **Journal of Taxation and Economic Development**, 18(2), 2019, 158-181.

Okoye, P. V., Amahalu, N. N., Obi, J. C., & Iliemna, R. O. *Effects of Tax Leakages on Economic Development of Nigeria*. **Journal of Global Accounting**, 6(1), 2019, 104- 128.

Oladele, A. O., Ndalu, T. C. & Akani, F. N. *The Impact of Tax Audit Practices on Revenue Generation in Nigeria.* **International Journal of Innovative finance and Economic Research,** 9(4), 2021, 42-50.

Olalekan, O. & Irewole, P. *Internally Generated Revenue and Infrastructural Development: Of What Relevance to Lagos*. **IOSR Journal of Economics and Finance**, 10(4), 2019, 58-74.

Olaoye, C. O. & Ekundayo, A. T. *Effects of Tax Audit on Tax Compliance and Remittance of Tax Revenue in Ekiti State.* **Open Journal of Accounting**, 8(1), 2019, 1-7.

Olaoye, C. O., Ogundipe, A. A., & Oluwadare, O. E. *Tax Revenue and Economic Development in Nigeria*. **Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal**, 6(9), (2019), 2019, 312-321.

Olorunsuwa, E. O., Ajayi, A. D., Bot, M. D. & Baamshal, I. H. *Medical Negligence and Challenges of Healthcare Delivery in Nigeria: A Review of Some Selected Cases.* **Global Journal of Health Related Researches**, 4(1), 2022, 148-162.

Olufemi, A. T., Jayeola, O. L., Oladele, A. S. &Naimot, A. O. *Tax Revenue and Economic Growth in Nigeria*. **Scholedge International Journal of Management & Development,** 5(7), 2018, 72-85.

Olushlola, O. K., Oliver, B. O., Okon, M. E. & Osang, O. D. *Tax Revenue and Economic Growth in Nigeria: An Econometric Approach*. **IIARD International Journal of Economic and Business Management**, 6(2), 2020, 52-60.

Oluyombo, O. O. & Olayinka, O. M. Tax Compliance and Government Revenue Growth in Nigeria. **Lapai International Journal of Administration,** 1(2), 2018, 245-253.

Onisanwa, D. *The Impact of Health on Economic Growth in Nigeria*. **Journal of Economics and Sustainable Development,** 5(19), 2014, 159-166.

Onoja, E. E. & Ibrahim, A. S. *Tax Revenue and Nigeria Economic Growth.***European Journal of Social Sciences,** 3(1), 2020, 30-44.

Orbunde, B. B., Aromona, J. O. & Jacob, A. *Impact of Petroleum Profit Tax (PPT) on the Growth of the Agricultural Sector of Nigerian Economy.* **Bingham University Journal of Accounting and Business**, 5(1), 2020.

Oseni, A. *The Effects of Value Added Tax on Government's Revenue Generation Profile in Nigeria: A Conceptual Approach*. **International Journal of Economics and Financial Management,** 2(4), 2017, 2545-5966.

Osho A. E., Omotayo A. D. & Ayorinde, F. M. *Impact of Company Income Tax on Gross Domestic Products in Nigeria*. **Research Journal of Finance and Accounting**, 9(24), 2018, 106-115.

Osho, A. E., Olemija, T. L. & Falade, A. B. *The Influence of Tax Revenue on Capital Expenditure and Economic Growth*. **European Journal of Business and Management**, 11(2), 2019, 39-49.

Owino, O. B. *An Empirical Analysis of Value Added Tax on Economic Growth: Evidence from Kenya Data Set*. **Journal of Economics, Management and Trade**, 22(3), 2019, 1-14.

Oyebanji, J. O., Adeigbe, F. F., Akintoye, I. R. & Ogundajo, G. O. *Effect of Real Sector Output on Tax Revenue in Nigeria*. **Fountain University Osogbo Journal of Management**, 4(2), 2019, 112-125.

Oyeleke, O. J., Raheem, J. A. & Falade, O. E. *Government Capital Expenditure and Economic Growth in Nigeria: Any Lesson from Disaggregated Functional Analysis*. **European Journal of Business and Management**, 8(31), 2016, 76-84.

Oyetakin, A. I. & Yahya, L. O. *Analysis of Internally Generated Revenue and Infrastructural Development of Public Universities in Ondo state, Nigeria*. **Global Journal of Commerce and Management Perspective**, 6(1), 2017, 24-33.

Oyewumi, O. R., Otusanya, O. J. & Adeyeye, G. B. *Infrastructural Development and Tax Compliance of Small and Medium Enterprises Owners in Lagos State, Nigeria.* **Global Journal ofAccounting**, 6(1), 2020, 12-23.

Oz-Yalaman,G. *Financial Inclusion and Tax Revenue.* **Central Bank Review,** 19, 2019, 107-113.

Palley, T. I. *Capital Accumulation is not Enough: Developing the Domestic Market*. **Challenge**, 2006, 20-34.

Pibowei, W. E. *The Impact of Gas Exploration Taxes on Economic Growth in Nigeria (1981-2020).* **SSRN Comparative Political Economy Fiscal eJournal**, 9(40), 2021, 1-20.

Samira, M.S. & Toufik,H. *The Role of Financial Development in the Collection of Tax Revenue.* **Journal of Finance, Investment and Sustainable Development,** 6(2), 2021, 514-528.

Shi, Y., Guo, S. & Sun, P. *The Role of Infrastructure in China's Regional Economic Growth*. **Journal of Asian Economics**, 1(49), 2017, 26-41.

Steenkamp, L. A. *A Classification Framework for Carbon Tax Revenue Use.* **Climate Policy**, 2221(7), 2021, 897-911.

Tanko, U. M. & Shishi, S. S. *Revenue Generation and Infrastructural Development in Taraba State*. **International Journal of Business and Technopreneurship**, 10(3), 2020, 379-392.

Thom, M. *Lights, Camera, but No Action? Tax and Economic Development Lessons from State Motion Picture Incentive Programs*. **American Review of Public Administration**, 48(1), 2018, 33–51.

Udeorah, S. A., Obayori, J. B. & Onuchuku, O. *Health Care Expenditure and Economic Growth in Nigeria.***International Journal of Research and Innovation in Social Science,** 2, 2018.

Udezo, N. O. & Onuora, J. K. *Effect of Tax Reforms on Revenue Performance in Nigeria*. **Journal of Innovative Finance and Economics Research**, 9(1), 2021, 118-130.

Ukpong, D. E., Nseabasi, A. S. & Uneh, C. A. *Financing Education in Nigeria for National Development*. **Journal of Poverty, Investment and Development,** 51, 2019, 58-65.

Uwaifo, F. N. & Obaretin, O. *Tax Revenue and Economic Development in Nigeria*. **Nigerian Journal of Accounting and Finance**, 14(2), 2022.

Waziri, S., Ali, G. B. & Nura, M. *Sustainable Infrastructure Development in Nigeria: Challenges of the Construction Sector*. **International Journal of Development and Sustainability**, 3(7), 2014, 1488-1495.

Yahaya, K. A. & Bakare, T. O. *Effect of Petroleum Profit Tax and Companies Income Tax on Economic Growth in Nigeria.* **Journal of Public Administration, Finance and Law,** 13(1), 2018, 100-121.

Yahaya, K. A. & Yusuf, K. *Impact of Non-Oil Tax Revenue on Economic Growth in Nigeria*.**International Journal of Accounting and Management,** 9(2), 2019, 56-69.

Yoshida, D. *Effect of Earnings Management, Leverage and Independent Commissioner on Tax Avoidance.***EPRA International Journal of Multidisciplinary Research,** 8(7), 2022, 380-387.

Textbook

Taddesse, S. *Taxation for Sustained Prosperity: Collaborative Tax Policy Setting & Administration*. Bublish, Inc., 2022.

Thesis/Dissertation

Amos, A. O. & Uniamikogbo, E. *Effect of Tax Revenue on Economic Development of Nigeria.* Unpublished Thesis in the Department of Accounting, Ambrose Alli University, Ekpoma, Edo State, Nigeria. 2018.

Muryshkina, A. I. & Gilenko, E. V. *Modern Approaches to Social Effects Identification for Transport Infrastructure Projects*. Master's Thesis, St. Petersburg University Graduate School of Management, 2018.

Oguntoye, M. A. *An Appraisal of the Impact of the Oil Sector on the Nigerian Economy*. Thesis for Masters of Law, 2019.

Website

Asen, E. *Corporate Tax Rates around the World, 2020*. Tax Foundation, 2020. https://taxfoundation.org/corporate-tax-rates-around-the-world-2020/

CBN, Annual Statistical Bulletin. 2022. https://www.cbn.gov.ng/documents/statbulletin.asp.

FIRS, Tax Statistics Report. 2021 Statistics. https://www.firs.gov.ng/tax-statistics-report/

Mondaq, *OverviewofCompany Income Tax*. 2020. https://www.mondaq.com/nigeria/tax-authorities/976992/brief-overview-of-company-income-tax-in-nigeria.

Nairametrics, *Billion Company Income Tax*. 2022. https://nairametrics.com/2022/05/26/nigeria-generates-n532-5-billion-company-income-tax-in-q1-

Nigerian Finder, *Education Tax in Nigeria: Overview and Details*. n,dhttps://nigerianfinder.com/education-tax-in-nigeria/

PWC, *Tax Summaries.*2023. https://taxsummaries.pwc.com/nigeria/corporate/other-taxes#:~:text=Value%2Dadded%20tax%20(VAT),in%20humanitarian%20donor%2Dfunded%20projects.

Unigwe, S. C. *Impact of Fiscal Policy on Economic Growth in Nigeria*. 2021. https://www.studocu.com

Appendices

	Observasion	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
HCD's	9	250.062	547.00	353.5	.07444
CIT	9	933.54	1,747.99	1280.32	.07827
PPT	9	1,157.81	2,666.37	1,910.6	.15222
EDT	9	130.12	279.36	203.73	.11019
VAT	9	767.33	1,531.17	1119.5	.10941
INF	9	8.05	16.95	12.382	3.463

Correlations							
		HCD	CIT	INF	VAT	PPT	EDT
HCD	Pearson Correlation	1					
	Sig. (2-tailed)						
	N	9					
CIT	Pearson Correlation	.702*	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.035					
	N	9	9				
INF	Pearson Correlation	-.577	.288	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.104	.452				
	N	9	9	9			
VAT	Pearson Correlation	.638*	.773*	.570	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	.014	.109			
	N	9	9	9	9		
PPT	Pearson Correlation	.873*	.121	-.489	.012	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.046	.757	.181	.976		
	N	9	9	9	9	9	

EDT	Pearson Correlation	.166	.050	-.558	.117	.493	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.669	.899	.118	.764	.177	
	N	9	9	9	9	9	9
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).							

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.823[a]	.677	.140	96.77828	.677	1.260	5	3	.452	2.151

a. Predictors: (Constant), PPT, VAT, EDT, CIT, INF

b. Dependent Variable: HCD_Dependent

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1024.005	547.771		1.869	.158		
	CIT	.327	.241	.347	1.356	.026	.286	3.501
	PPT	.227	.077	.051	.124	.041	.632	1.582
	EDT	.602	1.307	.269	.460	.410	.316	3.163
	VAT	.206	.217	.443	.490	.033	.131	7.610
	INF	.011	0.03	.264	.918	.426	.178	5.630
a. Dependent Variable: HCD_Dependent								

ANOVA[a]

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.

1	Regression	59025.997	5	11805.199	1.260	.0452[b]
	Residual	28098.105	3	9366.035		
	Total	87124.102	8			
a. Dependent Variable: HCD_Dependent						
b. Predictors: (Constant), PPT, VAT, EDT, CIT, INF						

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions					
				(Constant)	EDT	CIT	INF	VAT	PPT
1	1	5.752	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
	2	.145	6.297	.00	.02	.00	.02	.02	.10
	3	.055	10.222	.01	.00	.00	.06	.13	.01
	4	.030	13.961	.00	.24	.00	.01	.00	.67
	5	.017	18.650	.01	.04	.43	.08	.06	.16
	6	.002	54.080	.98	.70	.56	.83	.78	.06

a. Dependent Variable: HCD_Dependent

Inflation Rates

Year	Month	All Items (Year on Change)	All Items (12 Months Avg. Change)	Food (Year on Change)/1	Food (12 Months Avg. Change)/1	All Items Less Farm Produce (Year on Change)/2	All Items Less Farm Produce (12 Months Avg. Change)/2	All Items Less Farm Produce and Energy (Year on Change)/3	All Items Less Farm Produce and Energy (12 Months Avg. Change)/3
2003	1	10.6	12.3	7.5	11.6	16.1	13.4	13.6	8.6
2003	2	7.3	11.4	3.5	9.7	14.2	14.3	12.1	8.9
2003	3	5.9	10.5	0.1	7.9	15.4	15	13.9	9.4
2003	4	8.3	10.1	3.3	6.9	16.9	15.6	17.6	10.4
2003	5	8.7	10	3.3	6.3	17.6	16.3	15.5	11.3
2003	6	14	10.1	6.2	6	22.2	16.6	17.7	12.3
2003	7	12.9	10	0.1	4.7	41.2	19	22	13.8

2003	8	12.4	10	0.9	3.9	30.9	20.5	19.9	14.9
2003	9	18.4	10.7	6.2	4	36.3	22.2	22.5	15.8
2003	10	23.6	12.3	13.2	5	40.7	24.6	27.8	17.4
2003	11	21.3	13	12.4	5.4	35.7	26	27.8	18.9
2003	12	23.8	14	15.4	6	34.8	27.2	25	19.8
2004	1	22.4	15	11.9	6.3	38	29	26.3	20.9
2004	2	24.8	16.5	14.5	7.2	41.1	31.2	26.4	22
2004	3	22.5	17.8	15.6	8.5	32.6	32.6	27.4	23.2
2004	4	17.5	18.5	14.4	9.4	22.5	32.9	15.4	22.9
20	5	19.8	19.4	18.1	10.6	23.4	33.2	17.5	23

2004	6	14.1	19.4	14.5	11.3	14.7	32.3	14.5	22.6
2004	7	10.7	19.1	12.2	12.4	5.8	29	10.8	21.6
2004	8	13	19.1	16.3	13.7	9.1	26.9	11.4	20.8
2004	9	9.1	18.2	14.6	14.4	3.6	23.9	6.6	19.3
2004	10	10.7	17.1	15.4	14.6	3.4	20.7	6.4	17.5
2004	11	10	16.1	15.1	14.8	3.2	17.9	4.6	15.5
2004	12	10	15	12.1	14.5	5.9	15.5	-1.8	13.1
2005	1	9.8	14	15.1	14.8	2	12.6	1.2	11
2005	2	10.9	12.9	18.7	15.2	-0.4	9.4	3.2	9.2

2005	3	16.3	12.5	25	16	3.6	7.3	0.7	7.1
2005	4	17.9	12.6	20.3	16.5	13.8	6.8	14.2	7
2005	5	16.8	12.5	15.7	16.3	16.6	6.5	15.2	7
2005	6	18.6	12.9	18	16.6	16.2	6.7	17.8	7.3
2005	7	26.1	14.2	35.7	18.6	10.7	7.1	16.9	7.9
2005	8	28.2	15.5	38.5	20.5	12.1	7.4	13.1	8.1
2005	9	24.3	16.8	29.5	21.8	14.6	8.3	14.7	8.7
2005	10	18.6	17.4	24.6	22.5	9.4	8.8	13.3	9.3
2005	11	15.1	17.8	19.7	22.9	6.8	9.1	7.7	9.6
20	12	11.6	17.9	15.5	23.1	2.4	8.8	9.1	10.5

2005									
2006	1	10.7	17.9	14.7	22.9	4.3	9	11.7	11.4
2006	2	10.8	17.8	10.5	22.1	11.1	10	11.9	12.1
2006	3	12	17.4	9.3	20.7	16.3	11.1	11.8	13.1
2006	4	12.6	16.9	9.6	19.8	16.6	11.3	11.5	12.8
2006	5	10.5	16.4	8.6	19.1	14.5	11.2	13.5	12.7
2006	6	8.5	15.5	6.2	18	13.6	11	14	12.4
2006	7	3	13.5	-3.7	14.5	13.6	11.3	15.2	12.3
2006	8	3.7	11.4	-2.3	11	14.5	11.5	11.9	12.2
2006	9	6.3	10	4.3	9	10.6	11.2	11	11.9

2006	10	6.1	9	4.7	7.5	9	11.1	13.1	11.9
2006	11	7.8	8.5	5.4	6.4	12.1	11.6	18.3	12.8
2006	12	8.5	8.2	3.9	5.6	17.3	12.8	22.6	13.9
2007	1	8	8	-0.1	4.4	19.3	14	13.2	14
2007	2	7.1	7.7	3.3	3.9	11	14	9	13.7
2007	3	5.2	7.2	1.7	3.3	8.9	13.4	10.2	13.6
2007	4	4.2	6.5	2.1	2.7	5.4	12.4	6.5	13.1
2007	5	4.6	6	2.4	2.2	4.6	11.5	2.7	12.1
2007	6	6.4	5.9	3.2	2	9.6	11.1	-0.3	10.8
20	7	4.8	6	1.1	2.4	9.9	10.8	-0.4	9.4

07								
2007	8	4.2	6.1	-1.2	2.5	11.2	10.6	5.6	8.9
2007	9	4.1	5.9	-0.8	2.1	10.5	10.6	3.7	8.3
2007	10	4.6	5.7	-0.1	1.7	10.7	10.7	-0.9	7.1
2007	11	5.2	5.5	3.2	1.5	7.4	10.3	-4.3	5.2
2007	12	6.6	5.4	8.2	1.9	3.6	9.2	-6.5	2.9
2008	1	8.6	5.5	12.6	2.9	2.5	7.9	1.4	2
2008	2	8	5.5	8.7	3.3	6.4	7.5	6.4	1.9
2008	3	7.8	5.8	12.4	4.2	0.5	6.8	-1.3	1
2008	4	8.2	6.1	13.1	5.1	1.2	6.4	1.5	0.6

2008	5	9.7	6.5	14.7	6.1	3.3	6.3	3.71	0.6
2008	6	12	7	18.11	7.41	3.61	5.8	7.96	1.34
2008	7	14	7.8	20.9	9	4.8	5.4	6.61	1.93
2008	8	12.4	8.5	18.8	10.7	3.9	4.8	6.6	2.03
2008	9	13	9.2	17.1	12.3	6.9	4.5	8.33	2.43
2008	10	14.7	10.1	19.2	14	7.9	4.3	11.4	3.44
2008	11	14.8	10.9	18.1	15.3	9.3	4.5	13.05	4.88
2008	12	15.1	11.6	18	16.1	10.4	5.1	15.29	6.72
2009	1	14	12	18.4	16.5	8	5.5	12.59	7.65
20	2	14.6	12.6	20	17.5	7.2	5.6	9.08	7.87

2009	3	14.4	13.1	16.2	17.7	11.8	6.5	15.31	9.25
2009	4	13.3	13.5	15.3	17.9	10.9	7.3	13.28	10.24
2009	5	13.2	13.8	15.7	17.9	9.9	7.8	12.58	10.98
2009	6	11.2	13.7	13.1	17.5	8.5	8.3	9.31	11.08
2009	7	11.1	13.4	12.9	16.8	8.3	8.6	12.34	11.55
2009	8	11	13.3	12.7	16.3	8	8.9	9.26	11.76
2009	9	10.4	13.1	12.5	15.9	7.4	8.9	9.3	11.8
2009	10	11.6	12.8	13.5	15.4	8.9	9	9.4	11.7
2009	11	12.4	12.6	13.5	15	10.7	9.1	11	11.5

2009	12	13.9	12.5	15.5	14.8	11.2	9.2	11.12	11.15
2010	1	14.4	12.6	15.9	14.7	12.1	9.6	10.8	11.01
2010	2	15.6	12.7	16.2	14.4	14	10.1	13.39	11.37
2010	3	14.8	12.8	15.8	14.4	13.2	10.3	12.35	11.16
2010	4	15	12.9	16.3	14.5	12.8	10.4	11.69	11.04
2010	5	12.9	12.9	13	14.3	11.7	10.6	11.64	10.98
2010	6	14.1	13.1	15.1	14.4	12.7	10.9	12.42	11.24
2010	7	13	13.3	14	14.5	11.3	11.2	10.6	11.1
2010	8	13.7	13.5	15.1	14.7	12.4	11.5	13	11.4
20	9	13.6	13.8	14.6	14.9	12.8	12	13.4	11.8

10									
2010	10	13.4	13.9	14.1	14.9	13.2	12.3	13	12
2010	11	12.8	13.9	14.4	15	11.7	12.4	11.3	12.1
2010	12	11.8	13.7	12.7	14.7	10.9	12.4	10.4	12
2011	1	12.1	13.5	10.3	14.2	12.1	12.4	10.1	11.9
2011	2	11.1	13.2	12.2	13.9	10.6	12.1	10	11.6
2011	3	12.8	13	12.2	13.6	12.8	12.1	12.3	11.6
2011	4	11.3	12.7	11.6	13.2	12.9	12.1	12.2	11.7
2011	5	12.4	12.6	12.2	13.2	13	12.2	11.7	11.7
2011	6	10.2	12.3	9.2	12.7	11.5	12.1	10.3	11.5

2011	7	9.4	12	7.9	12.1	11.5	12.1	10.2	11.5
2011	8	9.3	11.6	8.7	11.6	10.9	12	9.7	11.2
2011	9	10.3	11.4	9.5	11.2	11.6	11.9	9.9	10.9
2011	10	10.5	11.1	9.7	10.8	11.5	11.7	11.7	11.7
2011	11	10.5	11	9.6	10.4	11.5	11.7	11	10.7
2011	12	10.3	10.8	11	10.3	10.8	11.7	9.9	10.7
2012	1	12.6	10.9	13.1	10.5	12.7	11.8	14.3	11.01
2012	2	11.9	11	9.7	10.3	11.9	11.9	12.03	11.18
2012	3	12.1	10.9	11.8	10.3	15	12.1	14.47	11.38
20	4	12.9	11.1	11.2	10.3	14.7	12.2	14.3	11.6

12									
2012	5	12.7	11.1	12.9	10.4	14.9	12.4	14.5	11.8
2012	6	12.9	11.3	12	10.6	15.2	12.7	13.7	12.1
2012	7	12.8	11.6	12.1	11	15	13	13.8	12.4
2012	8	11.7	11.8	9.9	11.1	14.7	13.3	13.2	12.7
2012	9	11.3	11.9	10.2	11.1	13.1	13.5	12.2	12.9
2012	10	11.7	11.9	11.1	11.2	12.4	13.5	11.4	12.9
2012	11	12.3	12.1	11.6	11.4	13.1	13.6	12.3	13
2012	12	12	12.2	10.2	11.3	13.7	13.9	12.9	13.3
2013	1	9	11.9	10.1	11.1	11.3	13.7	8.59	12.75

2013	2	9.5	11.7	11	11.2	11.2	13.7	8.58	12.44
2013	3	8.6	11.4	9.5	11	7.2	13	6.3	11.7
2013	4	9.1	11.1	10	10.8	6.9	12.3	5.6	11
2013	5	9	10.8	9.3	10.5	6.2	11.5	4.1	10.1
2013	6	8.4	10.4	9.6	10.4	5.5	10.7	4.4	9.3
2013	7	8.7	10	10	10.2	6.6	10	6.3	8.7
2013	8	8.2	9.8	9.7	10.2	7.2	9.4	6.7	8.2
2013	9	8	9.5	9.4	10.1	7.4	8.9	7.3	7.8
2013	10	7.8	9.2	9.2	10	7.6	8.6	7.6	7.5
20	11	7.9	8.8	9.3	9.8	7.8	8.1	7.8	7.1

13								
2013	12	8	8.5	9.3	9.7	7.9	7.7	8	6.8
2014	1	8	8.4	9.3	9.6	6.6	7.3	7.4	6.7
2014	2	7.7	8.3	9.2	9.5	7.2	7	8	6.6
2014	3	7.8	8.2	9.3	9.5	6.8	7	6.7	6.7
2014	4	7.9	8.1	9.4	9.4	7.5	7	7.6	6.9
2014	5	8	8	9.7	9.4	7.7	7.2	8.6	7.2
2014	6	8.2	8	9.8	9.5	8.1	7.4	9	7.6
2014	7	8.3	8	9.9	9.5	7.1	7.4	7.1	7.7
2014	8	8.5	8	10	9.5	6.3	7.3	6.6	7.7

2014	9	8.3	8	9.7	9.5	6.3	7.2	6.2	7.6
2014	10	8.1	8	9.3	9.5	6.3	7.1	6.3	7.4
2014	11	7.9	8	9.1	9.5	6.3	7	6.3	7.3
2014	12	8	8	9.2	9.5	6.2	6.9	6.3	7.2
2015	1	8.2	8.1	9.2	9.5	6.8	6.9	7.1	7.1
2015	2	8.4	8.1	9.4	9.5	7	6.9	7.1	7.1
2015	3	8.5	8.2	9.4	9.5	7.5	6.9	7.5	7.1
2015	4	8.7	8.2	9.5	9.5	7.7	6.9	7.7	7.1
2015	5	9	8.3	9.8	9.5	8.3	7	8.3	7.1
20	6	9.2	8.4	10	9.5	8.4	7	8.4	7.1

2015	7	9.2	8.5	10	9.6	8.8	7.2	8.7	7.2
2015	8	9.3	8.6	10.1	9.6	9	7.4	8.8	7.4
2015	9	9.4	8.7	10.2	9.6	8.9	7.6	8.7	7.6
2015	10	9.3	8.76	10.13	9.68	8.74	7.81	8.57	7.8
2015	11	9.37	8.88	10.32	9.78	8.73	8.02	8.49	7.98
2015	12	9.55	9.01	10.59	9.9	8.73	8.22	8.44	8.16
2016	1	9.62	9.13	10.64	10.02	8.84	8.39	8.53	8.28
2016	2	11.38	9.39	11.35	10.18	11.04	8.73	9.48	8.48
2016	3	12.77	9.75	12.74	10.47	12.17	9.13	10.31	8.72

2016	4	13.72	10.18	13.19	10.79	13.35	9.61	10.79	8.98
2016	5	15.58	10.75	14.86	11.22	15.05	10.2	12.3	9.32
2016	6	16.48	11.37	15.3	11.67	16.22	10.86	13.32	9.75
2016	7	17.13	12.04	15.8	12.16	16.93	11.55	13.63	10.17
2016	8	17.61	12.74	16.43	12.7	17.21	12.25	13.88	10.59
2016	9	17.85	13.45	16.62	13.24	17.67	12.98	14.12	11.04
2016	10	18.33	14.21	17.09	13.82	18.07	13.76	14.58	11.54
2016	11	18.48	14.96	17.19	14.39	18.24	14.54	14.87	12.07
2016	12	18.55	15.7	17.39	14.95	18.05	15.31	14.7	12.59
20	1	18.72	16.44	17.82	15.54	17.87	16.04	14.54	13.08

17									
2017	2	17.78	16.96	18.53	16.13	16.01	16.44	13.97	13.44
2017	3	17.26	17.32	18.44	16.6	15.4	16.68	13.58	13.71
2017	4	17.24	17.59	19.3	17.11	14.75	16.77	13.74	13.94
2017	5	16.25	17.63	19.27	17.48	13.02	16.57	12.2	13.91
2017	6	16.1	17.58	19.91	17.87	12.46	16.22	12.02	13.79
2017	7	16.05	17.47	20.28	18.25	12.21	15.8	12.35	13.68
2017	8	16.01	17.33	20.25	18.57	12.3	15.37	12.7	13.57
2017	9	15.98	17.17	20.32	18.88	12.12	14.9	12.72	13.45
2017	10	15.91	16.97	20.31	19.14	12.14	14.41	12.72	13.3

2017	11	15.9	16.76	20.31	19.39	12.21	13.93	12.75	13.13
2017	12	15.37	16.5	19.42	19.55	12.09	13.46	12.6	12.97
2018	1	15.13	16.22	18.92	19.62	12.09	13.01	12.68	12.82
2018	2	14.33	15.93	17.59	19.52	11.71	12.67	12.34	12.69
2018	3	13.34	15.6	16.08	19.29	11.18	12.33	11.85	12.55
2018	4	12.48	15.2	14.8	18.89	10.92	12.02	11.64	12.38
2018	5	11.61	14.79	13.45	18.36	10.71	11.83	11.6	12.32
2018	6	11.23	14.37	12.98	17.75	10.39	11.65	11.19	12.25
2018	7	11.14	13.95	12.85	17.1	10.18	11.48	10.81	12.11
20	8	11.23	13.55	13.16	16.5	10.02	11.28	10.62	11.93

2018	9	11.28	13.16	13.31	15.92	9.84	11.09	10.48	11.74
2018	10	11.26	12.78	13.28	15.36	9.88	10.9	10.49	11.56
2018	11	11.28	12.41	13.3	14.8	9.79	10.7	10.44	11.37
2018	12	11.44	12.1	13.56	14.35	9.8	10.51	10.43	11.19
2019	1	11.37	11.8	13.51	13.93	9.9	10.34	10.62	11.02
2019	2	11.31	11.56	13.47	13.62	9.8	10.19	10.53	10.88
2019	3	11.25	11.4	13.45	13.42	9.46	10.04	10.24	10.75
2019	4	11.37	11.31	13.7	13.34	9.28	9.91	9.94	10.61
2019	5	11.4	11.3	13.79	13.37	9.03	9.77	9.64	10.44

2019	6	11.22	11.3	13.56	13.42	8.84	9.64	9.35	10.29
2019	7	11.08	11.29	13.39	13.46	8.8	9.52	9.42	10.17
2019	8	11.02	11.27	13.17	13.46	8.68	9.41	9.22	10.05
2019	9	11.24	11.27	13.51	13.47	8.94	9.34	9.43	9.97
2019	10	11.61	11.3	14.09	13.54	8.88	9.25	9.45	9.88
2019	11	11.85	11.35	14.48	13.65	8.99	9.19	9.48	9.8
2019	12	11.98	11.4	14.67	13.74	9.33	9.15	9.95	9.76
2020	1	12.13	11.46	14.85	13.86	9.35	9.11	9.81	9.7
2020	2	12.2	11.54	14.9	13.98	9.43	9.09	9.95	9.66
20	3	12.26	11.62	14.98	14.11	9.73	9.11	10.22	9.66

2020									
2020	4	12.34	11.71	15.03	14.22	9.98	9.17	10.57	9.72
2020	5	12.4	11.79	15.04	14.33	10.12	9.27	10.7	9.81
2020	6	12.56	11.9	15.18	14.46	10.13	9.37	10.57	9.93
2020	7	12.82	12.05	15.48	14.63	10.1	9.48	10.64	10.03
2020	8	13.22	12.23	16	14.87	10.52	9.64	11.07	10.18
2020	9	13.71	12.44	16.66	15.13	10.58	9.77	11.16	10.33
2020	10	14.23	12.66	17.38	15.42	11.14	9.96	11.71	10.52
2020	11	14.89	12.92	18.3	15.75	11.05	10.14	11.6	10.69
2020	12	15.75	13.25	19.56	16.17	11.37	10.31	11.83	10.85

2021	1	16.47	13.62	20.57	16.66	11.85	10.52	12.5	11.08
2021	2	17.33	14.05	21.79	17.25	12.38	10.77	12.98	11.33
2021	3	18.17	14.55	22.95	17.93	12.67	11.01	13.22	11.58
2021	4	18.12	15.04	22.72	18.58	12.74	11.25	13.3	11.81
2021	5	17.93	15.5	22.28	19.18	13.15	11.5	13.76	12.07
2021	6	17.75	15.93	21.83	19.72	13.09	11.75	13.68	12.32
2021	7	17.38	16.3	21.03	20.16	13.72	12.05	14.45	12.64
2021	8	17.01	16.6	20.3	20.5	13.41	12.29	13.98	12.88
2021	9	16.63	16.83	19.57	20.71	13.74	12.55	14.36	13.14
20	10	15.99	16.96	18.34	20.75	13.24	12.73	13.78	13.31

2021									
2021	11	15.4	16.98	17.21	20.62	13.85	12.96	14.41	13.54
2021	12	15.63	16.95	17.37	20.4	13.87	13.16	14.35	13.75
2022	1	15.6	16.87	17.13	20.09	13.87	13.33	14.16	13.88
2022	2	15.7	16.73	17.11	19.69	14.01	13.46	14.28	13.99
2022	3	15.92	16.54	17.2	19.21	13.91	13.56	14.05	14.05
2022	4	16.82	16.45	18.37	18.88	14.18	13.68	14.14	14.12
2022	5	17.71	16.45	19.5	18.68	14.9	13.83	14.84	14.21
2022	6	18.6	16.54	20.6	18.62	15.75	14.06	15.7	14.39
2022	7	19.64	16.75	22.02	18.75	16.26	14.28	16.06	14.53

2022	8	20.52	17.07	23.12	19.02	17.2	14.6	17.12	14.8
2022	9	20.77	17.43	23.34	19.36	17.6	14.93	17.49	15.07
2022	10	21.09	17.86	23.72	19.83	17.76	15.31	17.46	15.38
2022	11	21.47	18.37	24.13	20.41	18.24	15.69	17.99	15.69
2022	12	21.34	18.85	23.75	20.94	18.49	16.08	18.21	16.02
2023	1	21.82	19.36	24.32	21.53	19.16	16.52	18.88	16.41
2023	2	21.91	19.87	24.35	22.12	18.84	16.92	18.37	16.75
2023	3	22.04	20.37	24.45	22.72	19.86	17.41	19.63	17.22
2023	4	22.22	20.82	24.61	23.22	20.14	17.91	19.96	17.7

2021 Statistics

	Category	2021 Annual Target	2021 Quarterly Target	2021 Actual Collection				
				Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Total
		(N'b)	(N'b)	(N'b)	(N'b)	(N'b)	(N'b)	
	PPT	1,636.83	409.21	327.23	316.91	305.14	1,059.17	2,008.45
	Non-oil taxes	4,763.44	1,190.86	958.62	1,159.69	1,125.24	1,150.69	4,395.25
	Total	**6,400.27**	**1,600.07**	**1,285.87**	**1,476.6**	**1,430.38**	**2,209.86**	**6,402.71**

Source: Planning, Research and Statistics Department2

	Tax Types	2021 Annual Target	2021 Quaterly Target	2021 Actual Collection				
				Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Total
		(N'b)	(N'b)	(N'b)	(N'b)	(N'b)	(N'b)	
	Oil Tax							
	Petroleum Profits Tax	1,636.83	409.21	327.23	316.91	305.14	1,059.17	2008.45
A	**Sub-Total**	**1,637.83**	**409.21**	**327.23**	**316.91**	**305.14**	**1,059.17**	**2008.45**
	Non-Oil Tax							
	Company Income Tax	1,476.87	369.22	392.65	456.99	472.52	425.84	1,747.99
	Gas Income	511.69	127.92	26.47	70.92	7.9	34.77	140.10

	Capital Gains Tax	7.26	1.81	0.74	15.55	_____	1.2	17.50
	Stamp Duty	12.40	3.10	7.62	10.11	0.49	21.35	33.94
B	**Sub-total**	**2,008.22**	**502.05**	**427.48**	**553.57**	**480.91**	**483.16**	**1,939.53**
	Total Federation Account (A+B)	**3,646.05**	**911.26**	**754.71**	**873.48**	**786.05**	**1,542.33**	**3,947.98**
	Other non-oil Taxes							
	VAT POOL							
	NCS-Import VAT	1,378.76	114.90	99.88	117.13	123.76	126.9	467.68
	Non-Import VAT	459.59	344.69	431.16	395.12	376.73	436.82	1605.17
C	**Sub-total**	**1,838.35**	**459.59**	**531.04**	**512.25**	**500.49**	**563.72**	**2072.85**
D	**EDT**	**323.29**	**80.82**	**11.4**	**29.17**	**92.5**	**56.46**	**189.54**
E	**CONSOLIDATED ACCT.**	**74.75**	**18.69**	**22.68**	**15.69**	**8.42**	**14.42**	**61.20**
F	**NITDEF**	**18.84**	**4.71**	**0.67**	**3.98**	**11.09**	**3.59**	**19.31**
G	**EMTL**	**500.00**	**125.00**	_____	**50.66**	**31.82**	**29.36**	**111.84**
H	**Sub-total Non-Oil (B+C+D+E+F+G)**	**4,763.44**	**1,190.86**	**993.27**	**1,165.32**	**1,125.23**	**1,150.71**	**4,394.27**

I	**TOTAL (A+H)**	**6,400.27**	**1,600.07**	**1,320.50**	**1,482.23**	**1430.37**	**2,209.88**	**6,402.71**

Source: Planning, Research and Statistics Department.

2020 Statistics

	Category	**2020 Annual Target**	**2020 Quaterly Target**	**2020 Actual Collection**				
				Q1	**Q2**	**Q3**	**Q4**	**Total**
		(N'b)	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	
	PPT	284.0039	71.0010	522.3340	440.3014	353.1125	201.2455	1,516.9934
	Non-oil taxes	4,792.8479	1,198.2120	652.7431	848.0609	1,066.8371	867.5900	3,435.2311
	Total	**5,076.8518**	**1,269.2130**	**1,175.0771**	**1,288.3623**	**1,419.9496**	**1,068.8355**	**4,952.2245**

Source: Planning, Research and Statistics Department.

	Tax Types	**2020 Annual Target**	**2020 Quaterly Target**	**2020 Actual Collection**				
				Q1	**Q2**	**Q3**	**Q4**	**Total**
		(N'b)	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	
	Oil Tax							
	Petroleum Profits Tax	284.0039	71.0010	522.3340	440.3014	353.1125	201.2455	1,516.9934
A	**Sub-Total**	**284.0039**	**71.0010**	**522.3340**	**440.3014**	**353.1125**	**201.2455**	**1,516.9934**

	Non-Oil Tax							
	Company Income Tax	1,767.8865	441.9716	278.6499	324.3219	390.6746	281.7342	1,275.3806
	Gas Income	426.6143	106.6536	17.0288	77.7121	25.3343	13.9878	134.0630
	Capital Gains Tax	13.5387	3.3847	0.6433	0.6174	1.7837	0.4742	3.5186
	Stamp Duty	17.1925	4.2981	4.7508	62.5830	7.2573	45.5659	120.1570
B	**Sub-total**	**2,225.2320**	**556.3080**	**301.0728**	**465.2344**	**425.0499**	**341.7621**	**1,533.1192**
	Total Federation Account (A+B)	**2,509.2359**	**627.3090**	**823.4068**	**905.5358**	**778.1624**	**543.0076**	**3,050.1126**
	Other non-oil Taxes							
	VAT POOL							
	NCS-Import VAT	547.6539	136.9135	72.5904	81.6223	94.7012	98.8109	347.7248
	Non-Import VAT	1,642.9617	410.7404	251.9887	245.5731	330.0069	355.8774	1,183.4461
C	**Sub-total**	**2,190.6156**	**547.6539**	**324.5791**	**327.1954**	**424.7081**	**454.6883**	**1,531.1709**
D	**EDT**	**277.0248**	**69.2562**	**11.3395**	**32.4839**	**195.1006**	**20.6394**	**259.5634**
E	**CONSOLIDATED**	**83.8314**	**20.9579**	**15.0605**	**11.5970**	**16.4727**	**50.2333**	**93.3635**

	ACCT.							
F	**NITDEF**	**16.1441**	**4.0360**	**0.6912**	**11.5503**	**5.5058**	**0.2669**	**18.0142**
G	**Sub-total Non-Oil (B+C+D+E+F)**	**4,792.8479**	**1,198.2120**	**652.7431**	**848.0609**	**1,066.8371**	**867.59**	**3,435.2311**
H	**TOTAL (A+G)**	**5,076.8518**	**1,269.2130**	**1,175.0771**	**1,288.3623**	**1,419.9496**	**1,068.8355**	**4,952.2245**

Source: Planning, Research and Statistics Department.

2019 Statistics

	Category	**2019 Annual Target**	**2019 Quarterly Target**	**2019 Actual Collection**				
				Q1	**Q2**	**Q3**	**Q4**	**Total**
		(N'b)	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**
	PPT	4,301.1836	1,075.2959	493.2199	502.9935	592.5475	525.5075	2,114.2684
	Non-oil taxes	4,501.2024	1,125.3006	553.6699	897.6151	972.0212	724.3417	3,147.6479
	Total	**8,802.3860**	**2,200.5965**	**1,046.8898**	**1,400.6086**	**1,564.5687**	**1,249.8492**	**5,261.9163**

Source: Planning, Research and Statistics Department.

	Tax Types	**2019 Annual Target**	**2019 Quarterly Target**	**2019 Actual Collection**				
				Q1	**Q2**	**Q3**	**Q4**	**Total**

		(N'b)	(N'b)	(N'b)	(N'b)	(N'b)	(N'b)	(N'b)
	Oil Tax							
	Petroleum Profits Tax	4,301.1836	1,075.2959	493.2199	502.9935	592.5475	525.5075	2,114.2684
A	**Sub-Total**	**4,301.1836**	**1,075.2959**	**493.2199**	**502.9935**	**592.5475**	**525.5075**	**2,114.2684**
	Non-Oil Tax							
	Company Income Tax	1,708.5085	427.1271	229.8280	506.9517	513.3815	354.5373	1,604.6985
	Gas Income	685.6381	171.4095	2.9773	3.9796	7.5043	7.4690	21.9302
	Capital Gains Tax	6.2798	1.5700	0.0964	0.9752	1.2986	3.6068	5.9770
	Stamp Duty	17.6413	4.4103	3.3867	3.7187	3.6969	7.3897	18.1920
B	**Sub-total**	**2,418.0677**	**604.5169**	**236.2884**	**515.6252**	**525.8813**	**373.0028**	**1,650.7977**
	Total Federation Account (A+B)	**6,719.2513**	**1,679.8128**	**729.5083**	**1,018.6187**	**1,118.4288**	**898.5103**	**3,765.0661**
	Other non-oil Taxes							
	VAT POOL							
	NCS-Import	425.97	106.49	57.008	65.476	61.373	60.658	244.51

	VAT	33	33	9	4	3	6	72
	Non-Import VAT	1,277.9200	319.4800	236.0305	246.4666	213.7428	249.2240	945.4639
C	**Sub-total**	**1,703.8933**	**425.9733**	**293.0394**	**311.9430**	**275.1161**	**309.8826**	**1,189.9811**
D	**EDT**	**275.3982**	**68.8496**	**7.2296**	**38.4119**	**153.8488**	**21.5674**	**221.0577**
E	**CONSOLIDATED ACCT.**	**83.8314**	**20.9578**	**17.0014**	**18.4862**	**15.5139**	**19.6287**	**70.6302**
F	**NITDEF**	**20.0118**	**5.0030**	**0.1111**	**13.1488**	**1.6611**	**0.2602**	**15.1812**
G	**Sub-total Non-Oil (B+C+D+E+F)**	**4,501.2024**	**1,125.3006**	**553.6699**	**897.6151**	**972.0212**	**724.3417**	**3,147.6479**
H	**TOTAL (A+G)**	**8,802.3860**	**2,200.5965**	**1,046.8898**	**1,400.6086**	**1,564.5687**	**1,249.8492**	**5,261.9163**

Source: Planning, Research and Statistics Department.

2018 Statistics

	Category	**2018 Annual Target**	**2018 Quarterly Target**	**2018 Actual Collection**				
				Q1	**Q2**	**Q3**	**Q4**	**Total**
		(N'b)	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**
	PPT	2,666.01	666.504	644.775	523.852	626.383	672.569	2,467.58

		83	6	1	3	9	4	07
	Non-oil taxes	4,081.0161	1,020.2540	528.8388	810.3921	754.0335	760.0463	2,853.3107
	Total	**6,747.0344**	**1,686.7586**	**1,173.6139**	**1,334.2444**	**1,380.4174**	**1,432.6157**	**5,320.8914**

Source: Planning, Research and Statistics Department.

	Tax Types	**2018 Annual Target**	**2018 Quarterly Target**	**2018 Actual Collection**				
				Q1	**Q2**	**Q3**	**Q4**	**Total**
		(N'b)	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**
	Oil Tax							
	Petroleum Profits Tax	2,666.0183	666.5046	644.7751	523.8523	626.3839	672.5694	2,467.5807
A	**Sub-Total**	**2,666.0183**	**666.5046**	**644.7751**	**523.8523**	**626.3839**	**672.5694**	**2,467.5807**
	Non-Oil Tax							
	Company Income Tax	1,669.3235	417.3309	199.1143	421.8009	348.0970	371.3172	1,340.3294
	Gas Income	238.4606	59.6152	4.5728	49.7313	14.5693	7.1144	75.9878
	Capital Gains Tax	17.8690	4.4673	0.3142	6.1663	5.8435	0.2707	12.5947
	Stamp Duty	44.6126	11.1532	4.2580	2.5815	3.6305	5.3274	15.7974

B	**Sub-total**	**1,970.2657**	**492.5664**	**208.2593**	**480.2800**	**372.1403**	**384.0297**	**1,444.7093**
	Total Federation Account (A+B)	**4,636.2840**	**1,159.0710**	**853.0344**	**1,004.1323**	**998.5242**	**1,056.5991**	**3,912.2900**
	Other non-oil Taxes							
	VAT POOL							
	NCS-Import VAT	385.9987	96.4997	49.9978	56.3872	86.0409	56.5959	249.0218
	Non-Import VAT	1,157.9960	289.4990	219.7960	210.3445	187.4632	241.4146	859.0182
C	**Sub-total**	**1,543.9947**	**385.9987**	**269.7938**	**266.7317**	**273.5040**	**298.0105**	**1,108.0400**
D	**EDT**	**207.0721**	**51.7680**	**25.7974**	**29.6967**	**89.7968**	**57.9939**	**203.2847**
E	**CONSOLIDATED ACCT.**	**12.1475**	**3.0369**	**24.8254**	**24.5971**	**16.1535**	**19.8474**	**85.4235**
F	**NITDEF**	**42.5361**	**10.6340**	**0.1629**	**9.0866**	**2.4389**	**0.1649**	**11.8533**
G	**Tax Amnesty**	**305.0000**	**76.2500**					
H	**Sub-total Non-Oil (B+C+D+E+F+G)**	**4,081.0161**	**1,020.2540**	**528.8388**	**810.3921**	**754.0335**	**760.0463**	**2,853.3107**

I	**TOTAL (A+H)**	**6,747.0344**	**1,686.7586**	**1,173.6139**	**1,334.2444**	**1,380.4174**	**1,432.6157**	**5,320.8914**

Source: Planning, Research and Statistics Department.

2017 Statistics

	Category	**2017 Annual Target**	**2017 Quarterly Target**	**2017 Actual Collection**				
				Q1	**Q2**	**Q3**	**Q4**	**Total**
		(N'b)	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**
	PPT	910.3131	227.5783	338.2990	297.8715	390.7045	493.6067	1,520.4817
	Non-oil taxes	3,979.3571	994.8394	439.8945	706.3042	724.6242	636.6406	2,507.4635
	Total	**4,889.6702**	**1,222.4177**	**778.1935**	**1,004.1757**	**1,115.3287**	**1,130.2473**	**4,027.9452**

Source: Planning, Research and Statistics Department.

	Tax Types	**2017 Annual Target**	**2017 Quarterly Target**	**2017 Actual Collection**				
				Q1	**Q2**	**Q3**	**Q4**	**Total**
		(N'b)	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**
	Oil Tax							
	Petroleum Profits Tax	910.3131	227.5783	338.2990	297.8715	390.7045	493.6067	1,520.4817

A	**Sub-Total**	**910.3131**	**227.5783**	**338.2990**	**297.8715**	**390.7045**	**493.6067**	**1,520.4817**
	Non-Oil Tax							
	Company Income Tax	1,704.3371	426.0843	152.4191	364.2424	384.9345	313.4608	1,215.0568
	Gas Income	143.2659	35.8165	3.5394	31.2992	–	–	34.8386
	Capital Gains Tax	20.7456	5.1864	0.1106	0.8258	1.8449	0.3990	3.1803
	Stamp Duty	16.9650	4.2413	2.6333	1.8209	1.9999	2.4794	8.9335
B	**Sub-total**	**1,885.3136**	**471.3285**	**158.7024**	**398.1883**	**388.7793**	**316.3392**	**1,262.0092**
	Total Federation Account (a+b)	**2,795.6267**	**698.9068**	**497.0014**	**696.0598**	**779.4838**	**809.9459**	**2,782.4909**
	Other non-oil Taxes							
	VAT POOL							
	NCS-Import VAT	270.0000	67.5000	46.4087	48.6846	53.3325	53.5747	202.0005
	Non-Import VAT	1,530.0000	382.5000	174.9718	197.6187	197.2282	200.5292	770.3479
C	**Sub-total**	**1,800.0000**	**450.0000**	**221.3805**	**246.3033**	**250.5607**	**254.1039**	**972.3484**

D	**EDT**	**188.7235**	**47.1809**	**33.9303**	**24.9381**	**60.1005**	**35.9885**	**154.9574**
E	**CONSOLIDATED ACCT.**	**81.2000**	**20.3000**	**25.7021**	**28.5404**	**23.7338**	**30.0382**	**108.0145**
F	**NITDEF**	**24.1200**	**6.0300**	**0.1792**	**8.3341**	**1.4499**	**0.1708**	**10.1340**
G	**Sub-total Non-Oil (B+C+D+E+F)**	**3,979.3571**	**994.8394**	**439.8945**	**706.3042**	**724.6242**	**636.6406**	**2,507.4635**
H	**TOTAL (A+G)**	**4,889.6702**	**1,222.4177**	**778.1935**	**1,004.1757**	**1,115.3287**	**1,130.2473**	**4,027.9452**

Source: Planning, Research and Statistics Department.

2016 Statistics

	Category	**2016 Annual Target**	**2016 Quarterly Target**	**2016 Actual Collection**				
				Q1	**Q2**	**Q3**	**Q4**	**Total**
		(N'b)	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**
	PPT	484.7390	121.1848	176.7478	328.0916	323.5790	329.3897	1,157.8081
	Non-oil taxes	3,715.4412	928.8603	387.1219	666.8249	668.7079	426.9986	2,149.6533
	Total	**4,200.1802**	**1,050.0451**	**563.8697**	**994.9165**	**992.2869**	**756.3883**	**3,307.4614**

Source: Planning, Research and Statistics Department.

	Tax Types	2016 Annual Target	2016 Quarterly Target	2016 Actual Collection				
				Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Total
		(N'b)	(N'b)	(N'b)	(N'b)	(N'b)	(N'b)	(N'b)
	Oil Tax							
	Petroleum Profits Tax	484.7390	121.1848	176.7478	328.0916	323.5790	329.3897	1,157.8081
A	**Sub-Total**	**484.7390**	**121.1848**	**176.7478**	**328.0916**	**323.5790**	**329.3897**	**1,157.8081**
	Non-Oil Tax							
	Company Income Tax	1,791.4087	447.8522	166.0176	305.3955	297.3369	164.7873	933.5373
	Gas Income	117.8238	29.4560	0.8390	42.5888	42.4503	–	85.8781
	Capital Gains Tax	19.4697	4.8674	0.2280	72.5931	24.1888	2.3935	99.4034
	Stamp Duty	66.1380	16.5345	1.4166	1.2845	1.4045	1.7974	5.9030
B	**Sub-total**	**1,994.8402**	**498.7101**	**168.5012**	**421.8619**	**365.3805**	**168.9782**	**1,124.7218**
	Total Federation Account (a+b)	**2,479.5792**	**619.8948**	**345.2490**	**749.9535**	**688.9595**	**498.3679**	**2,282.5299**
	Other non-oil Taxes							

	VAT POOL							
	NCS-Import VAT	368.7580	92.1895	38.4379	35.5350	54.0143	49.8680	177.8552
	Non-Import VAT	1,106.2739	276.5685	160.2964	162.2415	153.1997	174.6063	650.3439
C	**Sub-total**	**1,475.0319**	**368.7580**	**198.7343**	**197.7765**	**207.2140**	**224.4743**	**828.1991**
D	**EDT**	**149.8191**	**37.4548**	**8.2420**	**26.5759**	**80.4647**	**14.8401**	**130.1227**
E	**CONSOLIDATED ACCT.**	**73.8200**	**18.4550**	**11.5153**	**14.6297**	**15.1312**	**18.5855**	**59.8617**
F	**NITDEF**	**21.9300**	**5.4825**	**0.1291**	**5.9809**	**0.5175**	**0.1205**	**6.7480**
G	**Sub-total Non-Oil (B+C+D+E+F)**	**3,715.4412**	**928.8603**	**387.1219**	**666.8249**	**668.7079**	**426.9986**	**2,149.6533**
H	**TOTAL (A+G)**	**4,200.1802**	**1,050.0451**	**563.8697**	**994.9165**	**992.2869**	**756.3883**	**3,307.4614**

Source: Planning, Research and Statistics Department.

2015 Statistics

	Category	**2015 Annual Target**	**2015 Quarterly Target**	**2015 Actual Collection**				
				Q1	**Q2**	**Q3**	**Q4**	**Total**
		(N'b)	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**

	PPT	1,484.8770	371.2193	391.0370	306.1417	325.8656	266.9164	1,289.9607
	Non-oil taxes	3,087.3320	771.8331	391.3310	881.9831	654.6173	523.8653	2,451.7967
	Total	**4,572.2090**	**1,143.0524**	**782.3680**	**1,188.1248**	**980.4829**	**790.7817**	**3,741.7574**

Source: Planning, Research and Statistics Department.

	Tax Types	**2015 Annual Target**	**2015 Quarterly Target**	**2015 Actual Collectio**	
				Q1	**Q2**
		(N'b)	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N**
	Oil Tax				
	Petroleum Profits Tax	1,484.8770	371.2193	391.0370	30
A	**Sub-Total**	**1,484.8770**	**371.2193**	**391.0370**	**30**
	Non-Oil Tax				
	Company Income Tax	1,404.3770	351.0942	164.2464	53
	Gas Income	95.9680	23.9920	5.9264	83
	Capital Gains Tax	10.5140	2.6285	0.2502	12
	Stamp Duty	8.7130	2.1783	1.9882	1.5
B	**Sub-total**	**1,519.5720**	**379.8930**	**172.4112**	**63**
	Total Federation Account (a+b)	**3,004.4490**	**751.1123**	**563.4482**	**94**

	Other non-oil Taxes				
	VAT POOL				
	NCS-Import VAT	320.9250	80.2313	44.5089	35
	Non-Import VAT	962.7750	240.6938	148.8804	16
C	**Sub-total**	**1,283.7000**	**320.9251**	**193.3893**	**19**
D	**EDT**	**206.0800**	**51.5200**	**7.1817**	**26**
E	**CONSOLIDATED ACCT.**	**67.9400**	**16.9850**	**18.1803**	**13**
F	**NITDEF**	**10.0400**	**2.5100**	**0.1685**	**9.3**
G	**Sub-total Non-Oil (B+C+D+E+F)**	**3,087.3320**	**771.8331**	**391.3310**	**88**
H	**TOTAL (A+G)**	**4,572.2090**	**1,143.0524**	**782.3680**	**1,1**

Source: Planning, Research and Statistics Department.

2014 Statistics

	Category	**2014 Annual Target**	**2014 Quarterly Target**	**2014 Actual Collection**				
				Q1	**Q2**	**Q3**	**Q4**	**Total**
		(N'b)	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**

	PPT	1,927.5390	481.8848	638.0883	639.2683	594.7995	581.7913	2,453.9474
	Non-oil taxes	2,158.5190	539.6298	418.2858	815.9021	604.4335	421.9916	2,260.6129
	Total	**4,086.0580**	**1,021.5146**	**1,056.3741**	**1,455.1704**	**1,199.2330**	**1,003.7829**	**4,714.5603**

Source: Planning, Research and Statistics Department.

	Tax Types	**2014 Annual Target**	**2014 Quarterly Target**	**2014 Actual Collection**				
				Q1	**Q2**	**Q3**	**Q4**	**Total**
		(N'b)	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**
	Oil Tax							
	Petroleum Profits Tax	1,927.5390	481.8848	638.0883	639.2683	594.7995	581.7913	2,453.9474
A	**Sub-Total**	**1,927.5390**	**481.8848**	**638.0883**	**639.2683**	**594.7995**	**581.7913**	**2,453.9474**
	Non-Oil Tax							
	Company Income Tax	967.5800	241.8950	174.1639	556.2703	266.2126	176.8439	1,173.4907
	Gas Income	96.3380	24.0845	2.4302	2.5117	11.4741	1.3338	17.7498
	Capital Gains Tax	10.2100	2.5525	0.7838	0.2904	1.5191	0.0565	2.6498
	Stamp Duty	8.4600	2.1150	2.8171	1.8685	2.3691	3.8889	10.943

								6
B	**Sub-total**	**1,082.5880**	**270.6470**	**180.1950**	**560.9409**	**281.5749**	**182.1231**	**1,204.8338**
	Total Federation Account (a+b)	**3,010.1270**	**752.5318**	**818.2833**	**1,200.2092**	**876.3744**	**763.9144**	**3,658.7812**
	Other non-oil Taxes							
	VAT POOL							
	NCS-Import VAT	211.3623	52.8406	41.2844	50.3622	48.7684	45.6645	186.0795
	Non-Import VAT	634.0868	158.5217	171.1010	146.8929	143.3141	155.5772	616.8852
C	**Sub-total**	**845.4490**	**211.3623**	**212.3854**	**197.2551**	**192.0825**	**201.2417**	**802.9647**
D	**EDT**	**162.0120**	**40.5030**	**12.6413**	**38.0626**	**115.1736**	**23.7362**	**189.6137**
E	**CONSOLIDATED ACCT.**	**59.0800**	**14.7700**	**12.9202**	**12.0342**	**13.6256**	**14.7125**	**53.2925**
F	**NITDEF**	**9.3900**	**2.3475**	**0.1439**	**7.6093**	**1.9769**	**0.1781**	**9.9082**
G	**Sub-total Non-Oil (B+C+D+E+F)**	**2,158.5190**	**539.6298**	**418.2858**	**815.9021**	**604.4335**	**421.9916**	**2,260.6129**
H	**TOTAL**	**4,086.0**	**1,021.5**	**1,056.3**	**1,455.1**	**1,199.2**	**1,003.7**	**4,714.5**

	(A+G)	**580**	**146**	**741**	**704**	**330**	**829**	**603**

Source: Planning, Research and Statistics Department.

2013 Statistics

	Category	**2013 Annual Target**	**2013 Quarterly Target**	**2013 Actual Collection**				
				Q1	**Q2**	**Q3**	**Q4**	**Total**
		(N'b)	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**
	PPT	2,280.1880	570.0470	800.6496	793.4257	520.4811	551.8105	2,666.3669
	Non-oil taxes	2,188.7990	547.1998	406.0818	643.0803	635.2472	454.8658	2,139.2751
	Total	**4,468.9870**	**1,117.2468**	**1,206.7314**	**1,436.5060**	**1,155.7283**	**1,006.6763**	**4,805.6420**

Source: Planning, Research and Statistics Department.

	Tax Types	**2013 Annual Target**	**2013 Quarterly Target**	**2013 Actual Collection**				
				Q1	**Q2**	**Q3**	**Q4**	**Total**
		(N'b)	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**	**(N'b)**
	Oil Tax							
	Petroleum Profits Tax	2,280.1880	570.0470	800.6496	793.4257	520.4811	551.8105	2,666.3669
A	**Sub-Total**	**2,280.1**	**570.04**	**800.64**	**793.42**	**520.48**	**551.81**	**2,666.3**

		880	**70**	**96**	**57**	**11**	**05**	**669**
	Non-Oil Tax							
	Company Income Tax	967.3170	241.8293	154.2939	400.6694	240.6726	167.8149	963.4508
	Gas Income	82.9650	20.7413	2.2914	2.1141	1.0804	2.2410	7.7269
	Capital Gains Tax	3.5320	0.8830	0.1667	16.7834	0.1395	2.5663	19.6559
	Stamp Duty	21.1900	5.2975	2.0812	1.8211	1.5453	2.1549	7.6025
B	**Sub-total**	**1,075.0040**	**268.7511**	**158.8332**	**421.3880**	**243.4378**	**174.7771**	**998.4361**
	Total Federation Account (a+b)	**3,355.1920**	**838.7981**	**959.4828**	**1,214.8137**	**763.9189**	**726.5876**	**3,664.8030**
	Other non-oil Taxes							
	VAT POOL							
	NCS-Import VAT	236.3193	59.0798	37.5582	40.0664	46.6230	48.7718	173.0194
	Non-Import VAT	708.9577	177.2394	154.6382	140.5480	160.4477	174.0302	629.6641
C	**Sub-total**	**945.2770**	**236.3192**	**192.1964**	**180.6144**	**207.0707**	**222.8020**	**802.6835**
D	**EDT**	**125.41**	**31.354**	**42.900**	**20.751**	**172.86**	**42.838**	**279.35**

		80	5	5	8	80	4	87
E	CONSOLIDATED ACCT.	33.0800	8.2700	11.9767	11.6959	11.1313	14.1360	48.9399
F	NITDEF	10.0200	2.5050	0.1750	8.6302	0.7394	0.3123	9.8569
G	Sub-total Non-Oil (B+C+D+E+F)	2,188.7990	547.1998	406.0818	643.0803	635.2472	454.8658	2,139.2751
H	TOTAL (A+G)	4,468.9870	1,117.2468	1,206.7314	1,436.5060	1,155.7283	1,006.6763	4,805.6420

Source: Planning, Research and Statistics Department.

Bio-data

A. Personal Data

Full Name:	Abayomi Oluwaseun ADELEYE
Address:	Block 111, 9b, Prince Court Estate, Kemta Housing Estate, Abeokuta, Ogun State
E-mail:	abayomi.adeleye15@gmail.com
Phone No:	+2348060656890, 09054548666
Date of Birth:	November 23rd, 1991
Place of Birth:	Egbado South, Ogun State
Nationality:	Nigeria
Next of Kin:	Adeleye Oluwatosin 27, Seriki Street, Sabo, Ilaro, Ogun State

B. Educational Background

Educational Institutions Attended with Dates and Qualifications

- MSc Accounting — Lead City University — (In view)
- B.Sc. Accounting — Escae University (Benin Republic) — 2019
- HND Accounting — Moshood Abiola Polytechnic, Abeokuta, Ogun State — 2013
- ND Accounting — Federal Polytechnic Ilaro, Ogun State — 2010
- SSCE — Emmanuel Commercial High School, Ilaro, Ogun State — 2006

C. Working Experience with Dates

- Fidelity Bank Plc, Abeokuta Branch (Relationship Manager) — 2022 till date
- Sterling Bank Plc, Oke Ado Branch (Retail Sales Officer) — 2019 - 2022
- WEMA Bank Plc, Panseke Branch, Abeokuta (Marketing Associate) — 2018 - 2019
- Fidelity Bank Plc, Abeokuta Branch (Sales Executive) — 2016 - 2018

D. Awards and Fellowships

- Most Productive Staff - Sterling Bank Plc. 2022

E. Membership of Academic and Professional Bodies

- Member, Chartered Institute of Human Resources Management (CIHRM)
- Member, Institute of Professional Managers and Administrators on Nigeria (IPMA)

F. Publications

- G. E. Oyedokun & A. O. Adeleye, *Impact of Tax Revenue on Infrastructural Development of Health Sector in Nigeria*. **International Journal of Economics, Commerce and Management**, (In view)

G. Major Conferences Attended with Dates

- Lead City University Faculty of Management and Social Sciences 2nd International Conference, 2023.

H. References

Mr. Folaranmi Jemerin
Regional Bank Head
Fidelity Bank Plc,
Southwest 1 Region.
08131519476

Mrs. Titilola Odede
Branch Leader
Fidelity Bank Plc,
Adeokuta Branch
08023195805

---------- ----------

Signature **Date**

The University Compliance Certification

This is to certify that this thesis was written by Abayomi Oluwaseun ADELEYE with the matriculation number LCU/PG/002127 in the Department of Management and Accounting, Faculty of Management and Social Sciences, Lead City University, Ibadan is in full compliance with the approved University format and style.

…… ……

Signature **Date**