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Impact of Digital Finance Technologies on Agricbusiness Development in Nigeria

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Abstract

This study investigates the impact of digital finance technologies on agribusiness in Nigeria between 2001 and 2019. The design adopted for this study was ex-post-facto, and elicited data used for analysis was from the Central Bank Statistical Bulletin. Following extensive empirical and theoretical reviews, a model was formulated. Credit to the Nigerian agric sector was used as a proxy for agribusiness (the dependent variable). In contrast, the various digital finance technology platforms such as point of sales payment system, mobile money payment system, and automated teller machine payment system are used as a proxy for digital finance technologies (independent variables). For data analysis, the Auto-Regressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) model was deployed while diagnostic tools such as the test of Normality, Serial correlation, Autocorrelation test, Ramsey reset test, and Heteroskedasticity test were applied. The tests confirmed the validity and reliability of the model employed. Inferential results suggested that both point-of-sales payment and mobile money payment systems had a positive impact on agribusinesses in Nigeria, while the automated teller machine payment system had a negative impact on agric businesses in Nigeria. The study recommended that financial inclusiveness in the rural and agricultural-dominated areas in Nigeria should be encouraged to sustain the positive impact digital finance technologies has on Nigerian agribusiness.

Key-words: Digital Finance, Agribusiness, Point of Sales, Automated Teller Machine, Mobile Money, Payment Systems and Credit to Agric Sector.

1. Introduction

1.1 Background to the Study

It is crucial for a country like Nigeria, which is almost totally dependent on oil and gas as its primary revenue source, to seek alternative revenue sources and diversify the economy from oil and

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gas dependence. Agriculture can be a veritable revenue source to Nigeria if an enabling business

environment, necessary support, grants, and other assistance are provided. A possible solution could

be the widespread utilization of digital financing technologies in facilitating agribusiness

development in Nigeria.

Digital financial services (DFS) provide an avenue to save, access credit facilities and other

financial services via several digital mediums such as mobile phones, computers, credit and debit

cards, and many others. Digital financial services (DFS) are thus instruments that can help resolve

issues in the Agribusiness value chain, especially in rural areas where banks and other financial

institutions lack. Digital financial services are delivered through electronic platforms, primarily

dependent on internet access, and can potentially eliminate banking hall visits. Utilizing these

services involves using computers, cards of different types, point-of-sale (POS) devices, automated

teller machines (ATMs), internet transfers, and linking individuals and businesses for transactions via

a digitalized channel that makes payments and receipts easier, quick, and accessible. Critical

operators in providing digitalized services include mobile network operators, banks/financial

institutions, regulators, agents, financial technology providers, chains of retailers, and clients. (Asian

Development Bank, 2016).

The reason for jettisoning these rural communities by financial intermediaries could be as a

result of the high cost of taking their services there given the high cost of facilities, human capital,

and other relevant infrastructure, coupled with low patronage and lack of incentives to provide

products capable of serving farmers and rural communities. Digital finance technologies thus provide

an avenue where financial services are accessed without necessarily visiting a bank physically. With

the increased use of digital finance technologies, farmers can access several banking services in

proximity. Using digital financial services would translate to higher sales for farmers and may, in the

long run, enhance productivity and a boost to agribusiness development.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Digital finance is critical to the digitalization of the financial system here in Nigeria, with a

significant number of advantages ranging from financial inclusion and amenity in carrying out

financial transactions to the security of these transactions in a digital rostrum that would cap off

economic development of the economy.

One significant problem plaguing agric-related businesses is insufficient funding and lack of

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financial and credit facilities, especially in the more rural areas where agriculture is carried out in

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commercial quantity. With the evolution of technology in the financial system, transactions related to

banking activities such as payments, withdrawals, funding, loans, and advances have metamorphosed

into a digital platform. It is challenging for rural-based farmers to access these services because of the

lack of financial inclusiveness in rural areas. Banks and financial services providers dwell mainly in

the urban areas and transact there. Very few of these agents venture into the rural areas to carry out

their financial services. This is the challenge faced by agribusiness owners in the rural part of Nigeria.

From the preceding, it is imperative to evaluate the impact that digital finance has on agribusinesses

in Nigeria owing to the challenges highlighted above and proffer remedies to these problems. Another

spectrum of the problem affiliated with digital finance is that digital financial services providers are

profit-seeking corporations that utilize digital finance platforms to boost their efficiency and increase

their avenue to achieving opportunities that are profitable for businesses that are associated with the

provision of digital finance services.

Furthermore, corporate providers deploy serious marketing strategies to entice customers that

are between high and middle-income categories to make use of new or already existing digital finance

facilities. Conscious effort is made with the high-end users. In contrast, a less aggressive marketing

approach is used to coax low-income and poor customers, mainly when such users are essentially

unable to pay associated fees. The deliberate lack of enthusiasm leads to lower financial involvement

in poor and low-income customers. This attitude is understandable as the benefits to digital finance

providers are slightly more with high-and-middle income cadre customers than with low-income

customers.

Also, digital finance provision can be prejudiced against lower-income groups as digital

finance providers, based on their internal risk analysis, may choose to discontinue providing high-end

digital financial to rural communities deemed high risk given the inadequacy of infrastructure

supports such services in the first place. The result is a reduction in the degree of financial inclusion.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

This research has the primary objective of investigating the impact of digital finance

technologies on agribusiness in Nigeria. The specific goals are:

1. To examine the impact of point-of-sale payment system (PPS) on credit to the agric sector

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in Nigeria.

2. To ascertain the impact of mobile money payment system (MPS) on credit to the agric

sector in Nigeria.

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3. To investigate the impact of automated teller machine payment system (APS) on credit to

the agric sector in Nigeria.

1.4 Research Hypotheses

1. H01: Point of Sales Payment System has no significant impact on credit to Nigeria's agric

sector.

2. H02: There is no significant impact of the Mobile Money Payment System on credit to

Nigeria's agric sector.

3. H03: Automated Teller Machine Payment System has no significant impact on credit to the

agric sector in Nigeria.

2. Review of Related Literature

2.1 Concepts of Digital Finance

According to Manyika, Lund, Singer, White & Berry 2016, the term digital finance may be

referred to as financial service(s) conveyed through the use of mediums such as personal computers,

mobile phones, the internet, or bank cards affiliated to a dependable digital payment system. Some

theorists define digital finance as "financial services carried out via the internet, mobile phones or

cards" Gomber, Koch & Siering (2017) proffer that digital finance covers many new businesses that

are finance related, software that are finance-related, products that are finance-related and several

avenues to which customers communicate and interact - enhanced by Financial Technology

(FinTech) companies and creative providers financial services. Essentially digital finance provides

the means through which individuals can secure overdrafts, make cash payments, revenue collection

via digital payments. As stated previously, digital finance almost always requires the use of the

internet, personal computer, or mobile phones.

2.1.1 Innovations in Digital Payments

There are four significant novelties in digital payments.

1. Wrappers are used to create a digital area to link up with traditional payment systems such

as bank accounts or credit cards. Nontraditional payment systems are then provided by agents such as

Google Wallet and Apple Pay players who serve as internet mediators.

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2. Mobile money systems are used to generate both inflows and outflows. A system provider's

books or smart cards can be credited and subsequently used to aid online payments or payments made

through mobile phones. A typical example is M-Pesa, run by Safaricom. Mobile systems not only

offer lower fees than traditional payment systems, but they are also easier to use and do not

necessarily require a bank account.

3. Credits and local digital currencies are conventional units of account designed to elevate

spending in a local economy or as a means of exchange. They are particularly useful in international

high-tech environments such as computer games as they make international transactions easier to

manage.

4. Digital currencies, not linked to any specific nation, are innovative and serve as both a

currency and a payment mechanism. Consequently, transactions get recorded in publicly visible

ledgers. Digital currencies, including Bitcoin, are classified as cryptocurrencies because the

cryptographic approach enables the validation of all transactions securely. (Bank of England 2018;

https://blockchain.info; company reports).

2.1.2 Benefits of Digital Finance

2.1.2.1 Digital Finance Promotes Financial Inclusion

More than 2 billion people across the world do not access financial services (Africa

Agriculture Status Report 2017). The high number of unbanked persons across developing nations is

estimated to be about 59% and 50% of men and women, respectively. It appears that not accessing

banking services has adverse effects on smaller businesses dependent on informal financial services

as the means through which public transfers or remuneration are received.

With digital payment systems, barriers that hinder access to financial services are reduced or,

where possible, eradicated. When deployed appropriately, digital payment systems can permeate

most environments and saturate the population more rapidly.

The benefits of Digital payments include the efficient reduction of costs to recipients. In an

investigation (Africa Agriculture Status Report 2017). Digital payments speed up delivery, an

essential feature in emergencies such as natural disasters. Digital payments are also relatively more

secure than the physical movement of cash, a common feature in many developing countries. (World

Bank, Findex database).

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2.2 Theoretical Review

This study anchors on the financial innovations theory but still attempts to discuss a few

approaches relevant to digital finance technologies.

2.2.1 Theory of Financial Innovations

The theory of financial innovations, propounded by Silber (1983), focuses on the opinion that

money-related businesses' expansion benefits are the sole reason for financial innovations (Li and

Zeng, 2010). The theory articulates that inherent weaknesses of the money-related business sector and

aberrant data, high office expenses, and exchange costs are just some of the factors driving

innovations (Błach, 2011). Consequently, financial innovations may arise from new resolutions or

simply conventional means through which the latest developments are proposed. One positive is the

promotion of firms' liquidity (Ionescu, 2012).

According to the theory, the motivating force behind financial system innovation is that it

leads to better economic performance. Indeed, financial innovations inspire new production

techniques, creating better return rates, boosting the country's economy in general and technological

solutions. Thus, the theory suggests that innovativeness enhances a firm's competitive edge, given its

potential to increase investors' returns (Blach, 2011). Innovation is a tool used to manage, solve and

transfer the entire extra load. Financial entities' resulting growth follows improved allocation and

efficiency and eventually reduces financial and administrative costs over time (Sekhar, 2013).

Financial innovations also enable financial markets liquidity, thereby ensuring proper

distribution of resources to areas of lack and improving prospects' availability (Błach, 2011).

Ultimately, financial inclusion deepening is a direct effect of financial innovations. The theory of

financial innovations states that some barriers, including external handicaps, assist corporations in

looking for their objective, which gives rise to an increase in a firm's revenues (Li & Zeng, 2010).

Commercial banks thus come up with productive ways to encourage people to increase their profits

over time. The emerging innovative financial inclusion models, through which mobile and other

digital financial services are aiding the closing of gaps in the widespread use of financial instruments

in these countries (Omwansa & Waema, 2014).

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2.2.2 Technology Acceptance Model

This model, proposed by Davis (1986), focuses on the attitude needed to drive the zeal and

competence to use new technology (Monyoncho, 2015). Technology Acceptance Model (TAM)

therefore deals with discernment and not necessarily the extent of a system's actual usage. The model

thus proffers that either of two things - Perceived Ease of Use (PEOU) and Perceived Usefulness

(PU) occurs anytime a prospective customer views a new technological gadget (Lule, Omwansa &

Waema, 2012). PEOU refers to the level of difficulty in deploying a device or technique. If

prospective users perceive a high degree of difficulty, use would be understandably lower. Easier to

use systems are preferred and will encourage high utilization rates. A second factor – perceived

usefulness refers to the utility of a new system. It then follows that if an individual considers a system

is directly impacting either short or long-term performance, such a system is deemed useful

(Mojtahed, Nunes & Peng, 2011).

The TAM thus ascertained that a system's actual use is inspired by each user's behavioral

proclivities and is further inspired by how individuals view the plan. The theory proffers that the

adoption of new technology is related to its simplicity and effectiveness (Lim & Ting, 2012). TAM

notes that the consumer's intentions influence the willingness to accept new technology in the first

place (Mojtahed, Nunes & Peng, 2011). The theory agrees that advancements lead to improvements

of states of mind which in the long run will result in system usage conduct (Lim & Ting, 2012). TAM

goes further to probe individuals' attitudes towards a particular system (Lule, Omwansa & Waema,

2012). It clarifies why clients may consider or refuse to use what is deemed an improvement. TAM is

thus essential both as a proactive strategy used to evaluate the likelihood of accepting a specific

innovation by individuals and associations (Mojtahed, Nunes & Peng, 2011). TAM is often used to

understand how digital financial services explain consumer behavior variations, especially connected

digital financial services (Lim & Ting, 2012).

2.3 Empirical Review

Ugwuanyi, Efanga, and Anene (2020) probed digital finance's influence on the supply of

money in Nigeria between the years 2008 and 2019. The study employed Auto-Regressive

Distributed Lag (ARDL) Model to analyse data for the purpose of drawing inference. The unit root

test was the diagnostic tool applied, and the results revealed that the variables were a combination

(IO) and (I1). As such, the reason for employing the estimation technique mentioned above The

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ARDL Model result disclosed that deficit finance had a positive influence on the money supply in

Nigeria.

3. Research Design

The ex-post facto research design was adopted. Secondary data were readily available for

collection. Data is annualized time-series and is preferred because the study period covers 19 years.

An effort was made to ensure the data set was not impaired by unit root. For this reason, we tested for

stationarity of the series by employing the Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF).

3.1 Source of Data Collection

Data for this study are elicited from the Central Bank of Nigeria Statistical Bulletin of 2019

underpayment systems. The study period covers 2001 through 2019.

3.2 Method of Data Analysis

This study used descriptive statistics, correlation analysis, and Auto-Regressive Distributed

Lag (ARDL) Model in testing the hypothesis of the study. For analysis, we used the E-view 9.0

econometric statistical software package.

3.3 Model Specification

This research adopted the economic model used by Ugwuanyi et al. (2020) that empirically

investigated the impact of digital finance on Nigeria's money supply from 2009 to 2018. The

econometric model of this study, reviewed in the preceding section, is specified below:

 Δ MSPt = β 0+ β 1 Δ MSPt-1+ β 2 Δ APS t-1+ β 3 Δ PPS t-1+ β 4 Δ WPS t-1+y +ECMt-1 (1)

Where:

MSP= Money Supply

APS = Automated Teller Machine Payment System

PPS = Point of Sales Payment System

WPS = Web Payment System

εt = Stochastic Error Term;

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 β 0= Intercept for Estimation.

 $\beta 1 - \beta 3 =$ Coefficient of Independent Variables

 Δ = change

 \sum = summation

P = Optimal lag

However, this study adapted the earlier model by replacing Money Supply (MSP) with Credit to Agric Sector (CAS) in Nigeria as the regress and. Additionally, the Web Payment System (WPS) was replaced with Mobile Money Payment System (MPS). Also, this study adopted a double log model. These were done to give this model variation from its adapted model and make this study more original.

The econometric model for this study is specified as:

LOGCAS=
$$\beta 0+\beta 1$$
LOGPPS+ $\beta 2$ LOGMPS+ $\beta 3$ LOGAPS+ ϵi (2)

Where; CAS = Credit to Agric Sector

MPS = Mobile Money Payment System

LOG = Logarithm

Other acronyms in the model remain as explained above.

3.4 A Priori Expectation

All the independent variables are expected to have a positive relationship with the independent variables in the model.

4. Data Analysis and Interpretation of Results

4.1 Pre-estimation test result (Unit Root Test)

Table 4.1 - Unit Root Test

Variables	Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic	Probability Value	ADF Critical at 5%	Inference
CAS	-4.912724	-3.052169	0.0013	I(1)
PPS	-3.246407	0.0337	-3.040391	I(0)
MPS	-3.911175	0.0090	-3.040391	I(0)
APS	-5.107795	0.0009	-3.052169	I(1)

Source: Authors' analysis using e-view 9 output with data in Appendix

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The unit root test from table 4.1 above shows that the stationarity of the variables was a combination of I(1) and I(0). The appropriate estimation technique to employ for inference is the Auto Regressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) Model.

4.2 Descriptive Statistics

Table 4.2 - Descriptive statistics

	CAS	APS	PPS	MPS
Mean	261.7234	2757.099	756.2593	802.8119
Median	149.5789	1699.160	633.8100	442.3538
Maximum	680.0330	6512.600	3204.760	4371.550
Minimum	48.56150	399.7100	399.7100	1.270000
Std. Dev.	211.3001	1994.063	818.4310	1039.474
Skewness	0.531950	0.938234	1.806391	2.266733
Kurtosis	1.819165	2.494852	5.810395	8.349600
Jarque-Bera	1.999954	2.989575	16.58583	38.92667
Probability	0.367888	0.224296	0.000250	0.000000
Sum	4972.745	52384.88	14368.93	15253.43
Sum Sq. Dev.	803658.9	71573205	12056926	19449103
Observations	19	19	19	19

Source: Authors' analysis using e-view 9 output with data in Appendix

Table 4.2 describes the variables employed for this study. The descriptive statistics results show that the mean of Credit to Agric Sector, Automated Teller Machine Payment System, Point of Sales Payment System and Mobile Money Payment System was N261.7234 billion, N2757.099 billion, N756.2593billion, and N802.8119billion respectively. The minimum of the Credit to Agric Sector variables, Automated Teller Machine Payment System, Point of Sales Payment System, and Mobile Money Payment System were N48.5615billion, N399.7100billion, N399.7100billion, and N1.270000, respectively. In contrast, their maximum was N680.0330billion, N6512.600billion, N3204.760billion, and N4371.550 for Credit to Agric Sector, Automated Teller Machine Payment System, Point of Sales Payment System and Mobile Money Payment System respectively. The standard deviation of N211.3001, N1994.063, N818.4310, and N1039.474 for Credit to Agric Sector, Automated Teller Machine Payment System, Point of Sales Payment System and Mobile Money Payment System respectively shows that deviations from the averages of these variables were not static but tended to vary from time to time. The table further reveals that all the variables skewed a little to the right.

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Kurtosis measures the peakedness or flatness of the distribution of a series, with the kurtosis of a normal distribution being 3. A value greater than three suggests that the distribution is peaked or leptokurtic relative to the normal. Conversely, if less than three shows that the distribution is flat or platykurtic relative to the normal. Table 4.2 further reveals that CAS and APS with Kurtosis values of 1.819165 and 2.494852 are fat or platykurtic. While PPS and MPS with Kurtosis values of 5.810395 and 8.349600 respectively are peak or leptokurtic.

Jarque-Bera (JB) tests whether the series is normally distributed or not. The test statistic measures the skewness and kurtosis of the series with those from a normal distribution. In JB statistic, the null hypothesis states that the distribution is normal and rejected at a 5% level of significance. The analysis results presented in Table 4.2 above, CAS and APS with Jarque-Bera statistic of 1.999954 and 2.989575respectively with Probabilities of 0.367888 and 0.224296 are accepted as being a normal distribution since their p-values are greater than 5% level of significance. In comparison, the other variables are not generally distributed since their p-values are less than a 5% level of significance. The years under consideration was 19, hence the number of observation being 19.

4.3 Correlation Analysis

Table 4.3 - Correlation Matrix

	CAS	PPS	APS	MPS
CAS	1.000000			
PPS	0.339318	1.000000		
APS	-0.182170	0.756022	1.000000	
MPS	0.449407	0.927601	0.613394	1.000000

Source: Authors' analysis using e-view 9 output with data in Appendix

From the result of correlation analysis in table 4.3 above, all the variables were positively correlated amongst themselves except CAS, which negatively correlated with APS.

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4.4 Inferential Result

Table 4.4 - Results of ARDL Model

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.*
LOG(CAS(-1))	0.419651	0.204459	2.052491	0.0647
LOG(PPS(-1))	0.646562	0.254569	2.539832	0.0275
LOG(MPS)	0.093630	0.174069	0.537889	0.6014
LOG(APS(-1))	-0.622924	0.294090	-2.118143	0.0578
С	5.189335	2.294719	2.261425	0.0450
R-squared	0.948864	Mean dependent var		5.244844
Adjusted R-squared	0.920972	S.D. dependent var		0.940754
S.E. of regression	0.264464	Akaike info criterion 0.4		0.463074
Sum squared resid	0.769350	Schwarz criterion		0.809330
Log likelihood	2.832331	Hannan-Quinn criter.		0.510818
F-statistic	34.01909	Durbin-Wa	atson stat	2.980441
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000002			

Source: Authors' analysis using e-view 9 output with data in Appendix

The result in table 4.4 above revealed that the R-squared was approximately 95%, which means that the independent variables appropriately accounted for about 95% variations in the dependent variable. In comparison, the remaining 5% may be attributed to variables not included in the model. Put differently, digital finance indicators accounted for about 95% changes in credit to the agric sector in Nigeria, while the remaining 5% could be attributed to stochastic variables.

The result revealed that all the independent variables had positive except APS, which negatively impacted CAS. A percentage increase in PPS would bring about a 64 percent increase in CAS. In comparison, a percentage increase in MPS would bring about a 9 percent increase in CAS. Conversely, a percentage increase in APS would bring about a 62 percent decrease in CAS.

The result further revealed that the overall model was a good fit as the f-statistic value of 34.01909 and its corresponding p-value of 0.000 confirms that the model is significant at a 5% level of significance. Durbin Watson Statistic of 2.9 showed that auto-correlation was minimized since its value of 2.9 is close to the region of 2.

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4.5 Diagnostic Tests

4.5.1: Test for Auto Correlation

Table 4.5.1 - Correlogram Q-statistic

Q-statistic probabilities adjusted for 1 dynamic regressor						
Autocorrelation	Partial Correlation		AC	PAC	Q-Stat	Prob*
**** .	**** .	1	-0.496	-0.496	5.2090	0.022
. * .	.* .	2	0.106	-0.185	5.4626	0.065
. * .	. * .	3	0.120	0.124	5.8090	0.121
.** .	.* .	4	-0.266	-0.174	7.6326	0.106
. * .	.* .	5	0.105	-0.163	7.9369	0.160
.* .	.** .	6	-0.170	-0.291	8.8007	0.185
. * .	.* .	7	0.093	-0.101	9.0853	0.247
. .		8	0.028	0.001	9.1134	0.333
. .		9	-0.013	0.025	9.1197	0.426
. .	.* .	10	-0.037	-0.201	9.1822	0.515
. .	.* .	11	0.033	-0.164	9.2396	0.600
. .		12	0.055	0.031	9.4239	0.666
*Probabilities ma	ay not be valid for thi	s equ	ation spe	ecification	n.	

Source: Authors' analysis using e-view 9 output with data in Appendix

The result of Correlogram Q-Statistic in table 4.5.1 above suggests that the variables are free from auto-correlation since the correlogram Q- Stat. table indicates that all p-values were >5%.

4.5.2: Test for Heteroskedasticity

Table 4.5.2 - Test for Heteroskedasticity

Heteroskedasticity Test: Breusch-Pagan-Godfrey					
F-statistic	1.279215	Prob. F(6,11) 0.3		0.3417	
Obs*R-squared	7.397756	Prob. Chi-	Square(6)	0.2856	
Scaled explained SS	5.393654	Prob. Chi-Square(6) 0.494		0.4944	

Source: Authors' analysis using e-view 9 output with data in Appendix

Table 4.5.2 above suggests that the variables are free from the Heteroskedasticity problem since F-stat's p-values and Obs*R-squared of 0.3417 and 0.2856 respectively are > 5% significance level.

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4.5.3: Test for Serial Correlation

Table 4.5.3 - Serial Correlation

Breusch-Godfrey Serial Correlation LM Test:					
F-statistic	4.064227	Prob. F(2,9)	Prob. F(2,9)		
Obs*R-squared	8.542054	Prob. Chi-S	Prob. Chi-Square(2)		

Source: Authors' analysis using e-view 9 output with data in Appendix

The Breusch-Godfrey Serial Correlation LM Test table above shows that the probability value of 0.0553 for the F-statistic is statistically insignificant at a 5% level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis that there is serial correlation in the model is rejected. Thus, the model is said to be free from serial correlation.

4.5.4: Stability Diagnostic Test

Table 4.5.4 - Ramsey RESET Test

Equation: UNT	TTLED				
Specification: I	LOG(CREDIT_TO_	AGRIC_SEC_) LOG(CREDIT_TO	_AGR	
ICSEC_(-1))	LOG(POS) LOG(P	POS(-1)) LOG(M	MOBIE_MONEY)		
LOG(ATM) LO	OG(ATM(-1)) C				
Omitted Variab	oles: Squares of fitte	d values			
	Value	df	Probability		
t-statistic	1.498214	10	0.1650		
F-statistic	2.244646	(1, 10)	0.1650		

Source: Authors' analysis using e-view 9 output with data in Appendix

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From the Ramsey reset test result in table 4.5.4 above, the t-statistic of 1.498214 and its corresponding p-value of 0.1650 suggest that the model is correctly specified, so the linear specification's null hypothesis is not rejected at 5% level of significance since the p-value is >5%.

4.5.5 Test of Normality

Figure 4.5.5 - Normality Chart 6 Series: Residuals Sample 2002 2019 5 Observations 18 Mean 4 Median Maximum 3 Minimum Std. Dev. Skewness 2 Kurtosis Jarque-Bera Probability

-0.4 -0.3 -0.2 -0.1 0.0 0.1 0.2 0.3 0.4 0.5 0.6 0.7

Source: Authors' analysis using e-view 9 output with data in Appendix

From the normality diagram in the figure above and the Jarque-Bera value of 6.25 and its corresponding p-value of 4.3%, which is <5% significant level, reveals that the data are not normally distributed.

4.6: Test of Hypotheses

4.6.1 Test of Hypothesis One

H01: Point of Sales Payment System has no significant impact on credit to Nigeria's agric sector.

Since the p-value of company income tax (PPS) of 0.0275 (2.75%) is <5% level of significance, the null hypothesis that Point of Sales Payment System has no significant impact on credit to the agric sector in Nigeria is rejected. (See table 4.4).

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-8.94e-17

-0.023035

0.608196

-0.316658

0.212734 1.085094

4.904565

6.252813

0.043875

4.6.2 Test of Hypothesis Two

H02: There is no significant impact of the Mobile Money Payment System on credit to Nigeria's agric sector.

Since the p-value for the Mobile Money Payment System (MPS) of 0.6014 (60%) is >5% significant level, the null hypothesis is not rejected. Therefore, the null hypothesis that there is no significant impact of the Mobile Money Payment System on credit to the agric sector in Nigeria is accepted. (See table 4.4).

4.6.3 Test of Hypothesis Three

H03: Automated Teller Machine Payment System has no significant impact on credit to Nigeria's agric sector.

Since the p-value for Automated Teller Machine Payment System (APS) of 0.0578 (5.8%) is >5% significant level, the null hypothesis is not rejected. Therefore, the null hypothesis that Automated Teller Machine Payment System has no significant impact on credit to the agric sector in Nigeria is accepted. (See table 4.4).

4.7 A priori Expectation Result

The result is evaluated based on economic theories and literature in line with what is applicable worldwide.

Table 4.7 - A priori Expectation

Variables	Expected Signs	Actual Signs	Remark
PPS	Positive (+)	Positive (+)	Conform
MPS	Positive (+)	Positive (+)	Conform
APS	Positive (+)	Negative (-)	Do not Conform

Source: Authors' Analysis

4.8 Discussion of Findings

This study set out to investigate the impact of digital finance technologies on agric business in Nigeria between 2001 and 2019. Data analysis suggests the following inferences: Point of Sales

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Payment System had a positive and significant impact on credit to the agric sector in Nigeria. Mobile

Money Payment System had a positive and insignificant impact on credit to the agric sector in

Nigeria. In contrast, Automated Teller Machine Payment System had a negative and negligible

impact on credit to the agric sector in Nigeria.

Point of Sales Payment System having a positive and significant impact on credit to agric

sector shows that point of sales payment channels contributed significantly to the growth of agric

business in Nigeria. However, Mobile Money Payment System also contributed substantially to the

enhancement of agric business in Nigeria; its impact was not significant. Like the central bank of

Nigeria, monetary authorities in Nigeria need to develop regulatory policies that would encourage

mobile money payment systems to transact as far as agric business is concerned.

Conversely, Automated Teller Machine Payment System had a negative and insignificant

impact on credit to Nigeria's agric sector. This may be attributed to a lack of usage or motivation

towards this payment channel when it comes to financial transactions in agric businesses in Nigeria.

It is important to note that the Automated Teller Machine Payment System's impact on agric business

in Nigeria conforms to the correlation analysis in table 4.3, which reported a negative impact of

Automated Teller Machine Payment System on credit the agric sector in Nigeria. Both the Mobile

Money Payment System and Point of Sales Payment System conformed to a priori expectations in

3.5. Still, the result of the Automated Teller Machine Payment System did not fit. This study's

findings agree with some past studies on this subject matter earlier reviewed, such as; Ugwuanyi et al.

(2020) and Monyoncho (2015).

5. Summary of Findings

The findings elicited from this study are summarized thus:

1. Point of Sales Payment System had a positive and significant impact on credit to the agric

sector in Nigeria.

2. Mobile Money Payment System had a positive yet insignificant impact on credit to

Nigeria's agric sector.

3. Among the three independent variables, Automated Teller Machine Payment System

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recorded the only negative impact on credit to Nigeria's agric sector.

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6. Conclusion

This study was undertaken to analyze digital finance technologies' impact on agribusiness in

Nigeria between 2001 and 2019. This study employed credit to the agric sector as a proxy for

agribusiness in Nigeria, while the various digital finance technology payment systems in Nigeria such

as point of sales payment system, mobile money payment system, and automated teller machine

payment system were employed as independent variables. The ARDL model results revealed that the

point of sales payment system had a significant and positive impact on agribusiness in Nigeria.

Simultaneously, the mobile money payment system also positively impacted agribusiness in Nigeria,

and its impact was insignificant. However, automated teller machine payment systems had negative,

negligible implications for agribusiness in Nigeria. If the Nigerian government and monetary

authorities are serious about agribusiness development, further awareness and sensitization exercises

are needed. Incentivization should encourage more agribusinesses in Nigeria to use these payment

channels, especially in the rural areas where agriculture remains a significant source of sustenance.

7. Recommendations

1. From the ARDL model results, the sales payment system's point positively impacted

agribusiness in Nigeria. This is so that point of sales vendors is scattered all over the rural and urban

areas in Nigeria and aids in bringing bank services to the people, especially people in the rural areas

and agribusiness-dominated areas. Banks need to issue out more point of sales licenses to vendors

and encourage vendors in the rural areas since they bring banking close to their doorsteps and

enhance financial inclusiveness in such areas.

2. In the same vein, the Central Bank of Nigeria should create more awareness on mobile

money payment system use, if possible, issue out incentives for transactions through this platform.

This is evident in the positive yet insignificant impact that the mobile money payment system had on

agric business in Nigeria. If incentives are offered, and awareness is created, the mobile money

payment system would significantly impact agribusiness in the long run.

3. Automated teller machine payment system had a negative and insignificant impact on

agribusiness in Nigeria. As stated earlier, this could be due to the lack of usage of this payment

channel or the unavailability of this payment channel in rural areas where most farmers reside. This

study thus advocates for more financial inclusiveness in the rural and agricultural-dominated regions

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of Nigeria.

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8. Suggestion for Further Study

Given the current disposition to encourage agribusinesses in Nigeria, there is a need to research the impact of digital finance technologies utilizing different proxies for agribusiness in Nigeria. Proxies such as the level of engagement in agribusiness development in Nigeria, registration of agribusiness firms with corporate affairs commission, and proportion of agriculture gross domestic product (GDP) in total GDP may provide a deeper understanding of how digital finance technologies impact agribusinesses in Nigeria.

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APPENDIX Data Utilized for Inference

YEAR	ATM	POS	MOBIE MONEY	CREDIT TO AGRIC. SEC.
2001	548.60	11.03	1.27	55.85
2002	399.71	12.72	6.65	59.85
2003	1,561.74	31.02	18.98	62.10
2004	1,984.66	48.01	31.51	67.74
2005	2,828.94	161.02	142.80	48.56
2006	3,679.88	312.07	346.47	49.39
2007	3,970.25	448.51	442.35	149.58
2008	4,988.13	759.00	756.90	106.35
2009	6,437.59	1,409.81	1,102.00	135.70
2010	6,480.09	2,383.11	1,830.70	128.41
2011	1,568.95	474.73	329.12	255.21
2012	1,603.17	543.63	410.57	316.36
2013	1,591.01	650.41	498.08	343.70
2014	1,716.96	714.35	592.94	478.91
2015	6,512.60	3,204.76	4,371.55	449.31
2016	1,539.26	633.81	100.69	525.95
2017	1,699.16	749.82	1,155.64	503.08
2018	1,622.93	856.86	1,428.12	556.67
2019	1,651.25	964.27	1,687.10	680.03

Source: Central Bank of Nigeria statistical Bulletin of 2019

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