

2 **ESTIMATING NATURAL GAS**
3 **DEMANDELASTICITIES IN NIGERIA**

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8 **ABSTRACT**

9 *This study estimated natural gas demand elasticities in Nigeria. The objective of the study was to*
10 *examine the responsiveness of natural gas demand to changes in price of natural gas, income*
11 *and prices of other energy products. The study adopted the bound testing approach to*
12 *cointegration within the framework of autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) to estimate annual*
13 *time series data over a period of 33 years (1984 – 2016). It was discovered that elasticity of nat-*
14 *ural gas demand is relatively price inelastic in both short and long run; cross-price elasticity of*
15 *gas demand revealed that automotive gas oil (diesel) and liquefied petroleum gas (LPG) are*
16 *substitute energy products for natural gas in Nigeria; while the estimate of income elasticity of*
17 *demand is not statistically significant in the short and long run.*

18 **Keywords:** Natural gas demand, elasticity, power supply, gas price, ARDL, bound test, Nigeria

19 **Word Count:** 130
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1. INTRODUCTION

Natural gas is an important energy resource that is crucial to the growth and development of every economy. Due to its growing demand, the issue of natural gas demand elasticities has been in the front line in recent times. Numerous studies have been conducted by researchers on natural gas demand and several methodologies have been adopted to estimate natural gas demand elasticities in different countries of the world. For example, Khan and Ahmed [1] estimated natural gas demand in Pakistan and adopted the Johansen (1988) and Johansen and Juselius (1990) cointegration technique to estimate annual time series data spanning 1972-2007. The incomeelasticity of natural gas demand suggests that natural gas is a luxury good in Pakistan.

Erdogdu [2] examined natural gas demand in Turkey using the ARIMA model, Partial Adjustment model(PAM) and OLS estimation techniques. The study found that price elasticity of natural gas demand is perfectly inelastic, while, natural gas is a luxury good in the long run; and that there is no relationship between natural gas demand and price and income in the short run. Similarly, Göncüet *al.*[3] proposed a framework to forecast future daily residential and commercial natural gas consumption in Turkey. The study employed ordinary least square (OLS) technique to estimate the formulated demand model. The study concluded that natural gas prices in Turkey have little or no explanatory power on changes in natural gas demand because the price of gas is highly regulated.

Arora [4] estimated price elasticities of natural gas demand and supply in the United States for three different time periods comprising weekly, monthly and quarterly time series data from 1993 to 2013. The study adopted vector autoregression (VAR) model in estimating price elasticity of natural gas demand in the US. The result of the monthly and quarterly analysis shows that natural gas demand is price inelastic in both short and long run. However, when shale gas was added to the model, natural gas demand became less responsive to price in the short and long run.

Wadudet *al.*[5] conducted a study on modeling and forecasting natural gas demand in Bangladesh using the partial adjustment model (PAM) and OLS estimation techniques to estimate annual time series data spanning 1981 - 2008. The study revealed that natural gas in Bangladesh is a necessity good in the short run, while it is a luxury good in the long run. However, the result of price elasticity of natural gas demand is statistically insignificant in both the short and long run.

53 Burke and Yang [6] examined the elasticities of natural gas demand in 44 countries using three
54 estimators to estimate panel data, which are: between estimator, pooled OLS and fixed-effects
55 estimators. The result of the analysis shows that natural gas demand in the 44 countries is price
56 inelastic for pooled OLS and fixed-effect estimator, while price elasticity of demand is perfectly
57 inelastic in the between estimator in the long run. Further, between estimators and pooled OLS
58 revealed that natural gas is a luxury good in these countries, while the outcome of the fixed-effect
59 estimator suggests that natural gas is a necessity good.

60 Some studies have also been conducted on natural gas demand elasticities in Africa. For exam-
61 ple, the study conducted by Ackah[7] on the determinants of natural gas demand in Ghana, ex-
62 amined the effect of economic and non-economic factors affecting demand using the underlying
63 energy demand trend (UEDT) within the framework of structural time series model (STSM) to
64 estimate annual time series data spanning 1989 – 2009. The study discovered that residential gas
65 demand in Ghana is price inelastic in the short run, while it is perfectly inelastic in the long run.
66 Income elasticity of demand on the other hand, reveals that natural gas is a necessity good in the
67 short run, but a luxury good in the long run. In the same vein, Abdullahi [8] modeled petroleum
68 products [LPG and others] demand in Nigeria using the UEDT within the framework of STSM
69 and ARDL model. The outcome of the study revealed that LPG demand is price inelastic, while
70 the result of income elasticity of demand shows that natural gas is a necessity good in Nigeria in
71 the long run. However, the price of LPG and income do not have significant relationships with
72 LPG demand in Nigeria in the short run.

73 Despite adopting several methodologies for estimating natural gas demand elasticities, none of
74 the studies has adopted bound testing approach to cointegration within the framework of ARDL
75 in estimating natural gas demand elasticities in Nigeria. This study aims to fill this gap that exists
76 in literature. Thus, the objective of this study, is to estimate the short-run and long-run price, in-
77 come and cross price elasticities of natural gas demand in Nigeria. The outcome of this study will
78 serve as a framework for policy formulation for inducing investments in gas utilization projects.

79 The remaining part of this study is divided into four sections. Section 2 examines natural gas uti-
80 lization and the Nigerian economy, while section 3 contains the theoretical framework and meth-

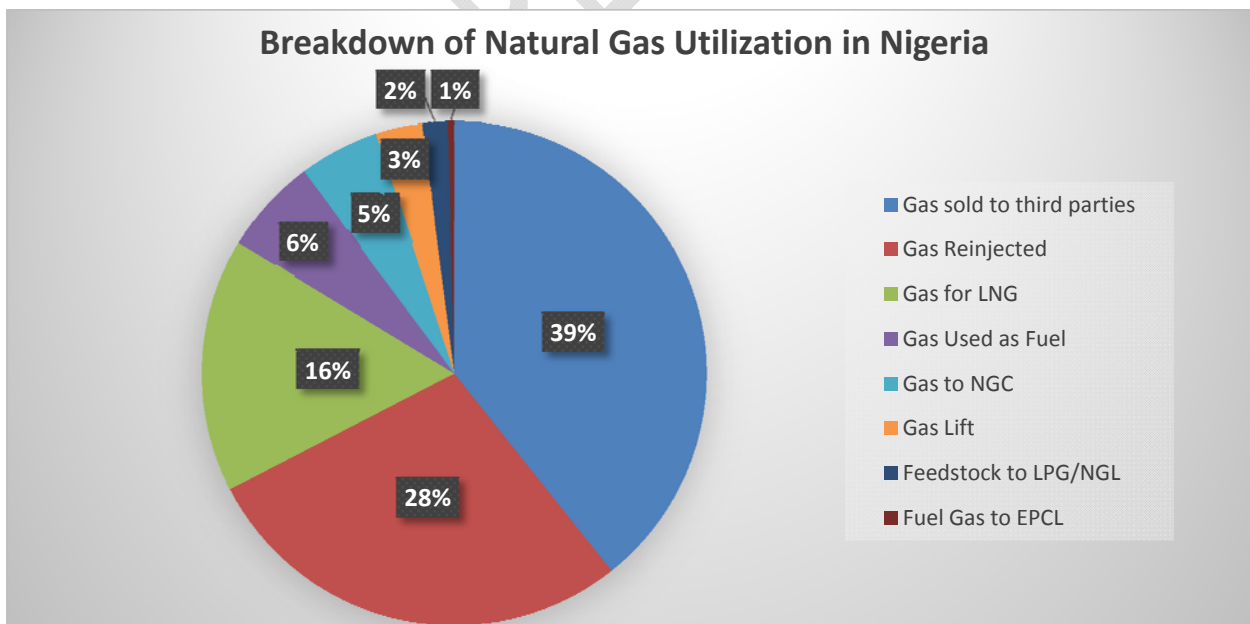
81 odology adopted in this study. Presentation and discussion of results are carried out in section 4,
82 while the conclusion and recommendations are expressed in section 5.

83 2. NATURAL GAS UTILIZATION AND THE NIGERIAN ECONOMY

84 2.1 Natural Gas Utilization in Nigeria

85 Nigeria is estimated to have the largest proven natural gas reserves in Africa and the 9th largest in
86 the world, having an estimated proven gas reserve of 5,627bcm, which is 37% of the total gas
87 reserves in Africa [9]. There are several gas utilization projects in the Nigerian economy. These
88 projects utilize natural gas for power generation, process operations, as feedstock and for export
89 purposes.

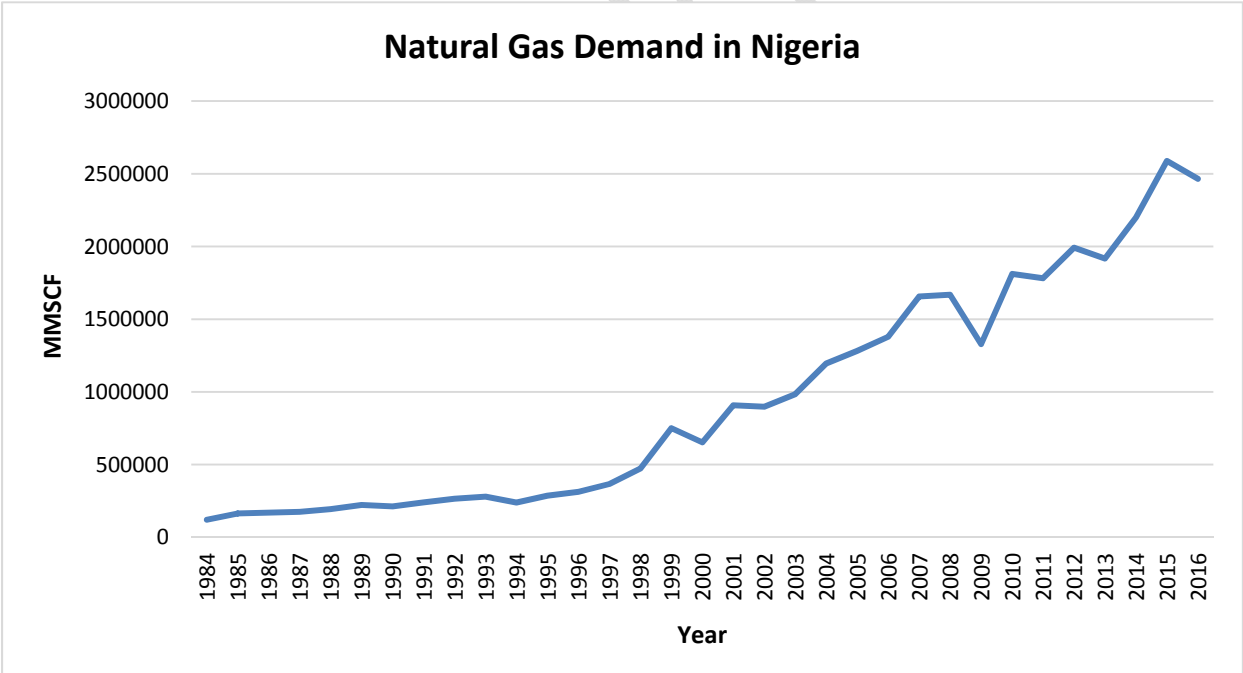
90 The country exports pipeline gas to some West African countries (Benin Republic, Togo and
91 Ghana) through the West Africa Gas Pipeline (WAGP) and also exports LNG to Asia Pacific,
92 North America (Mexico), South and Central America, Europe and the Middle East [10]. The to-
93 tal export of LNG from Nigeria in 2015 was 25.3bcm, which represents 7.59 percent of the total
94 LNG traded globally; however, it increased to 27.76bcm in 2017[10]. This rank the country as
95 the 4th largest exporter of LNG in the world. The breakdown of natural gas demand by each of
96 the gas utilization projects are shown in figure 1.



97 Figure 1 Natural Gas Utilization in Nigeria in 2015, NNPC Annual Statistical Bulletin, 2016.
98

99 Figure 1 shows that 39 percent of total gas utilized in 2015 was allocated to third parties who uti-
 100 lize gas for industrial heating and as feedstock for producing fertilizers, petrochemicals, etc.,
 101 which makes it the largest consumer of natural gas in Nigeria, while natural gas reinjected had
 102 28 percent of total gas utilized, making it the second largest consumer. However, fuel gas to
 103 EPCL and feedstock to LPG/NGL had 1 percent and 2 percent of total gas utilized thereby mak-
 104 ing them the lowest consumers of Nigeria’s natural gas.

105 The trend of natural gas utilization from 1984 – 2016 is shown in figure 2. The total natural gas
 106 utilized in 1984 was 121.41bscf. Gas utilization experienced slow growth up until 1999 when it
 107 increased to 751Bcf largely as a result of the commencement of operations of Nigeria’s first
 108 LNG project – NLNG. Growth became much faster after this as the export project which became
 109 and remains the largest gas utilization centre in Nigeria added additional LNG trains. Gas de-
 110 mand was also boosted in the domestic market through the implementation of the Nigerian Gas
 111 Master Plan (NGMP) which increased demand from about 300MMcf/d to the current 1.2bcf/d.

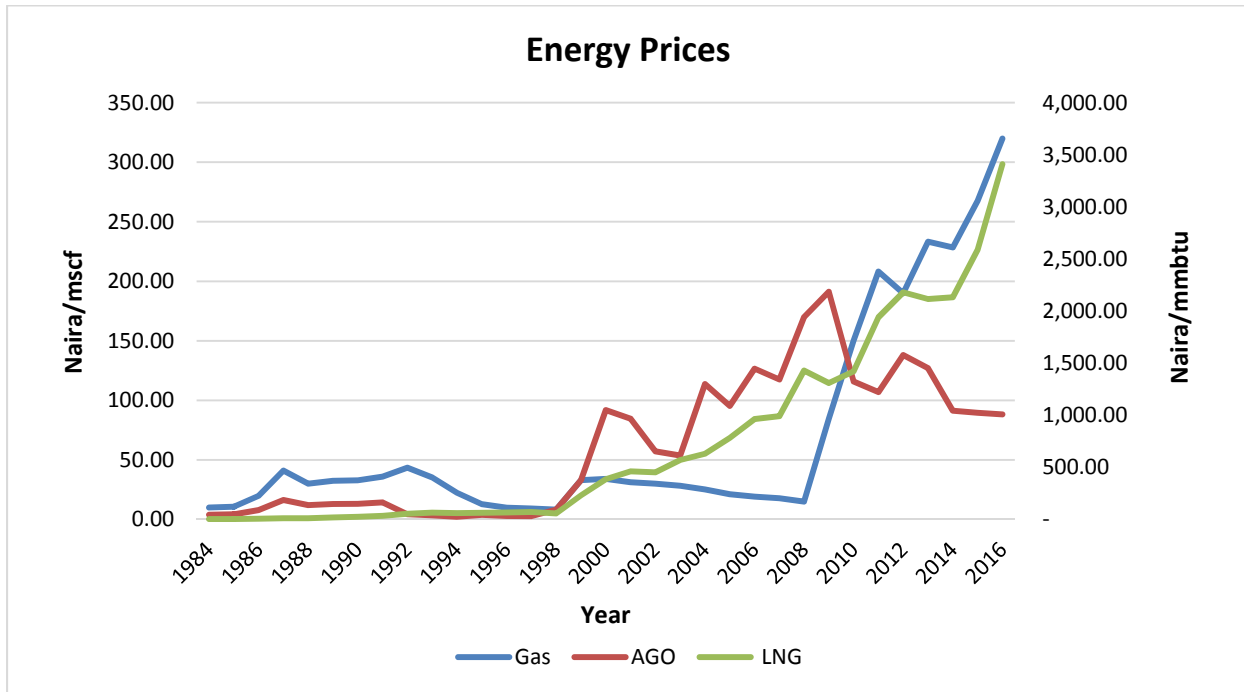


112 Figure 2 Natural Gas Demand in Nigeria 1984 – 2016, NNPC Annual Statistical Bulletin, 2016.
 113

114 **2.2 Energy Prices**

115 Gas utilization in Nigeria is in two folds: gas for domestic consumption – domestic market; and
 116 gas for export – international market. These two markets have different pricing framework which
 117 is based on different factors. The Nigerian government through the National Domestic Gas Sup-

118 ply and Pricing Policy (2008) has grouped the country’s gas demand sectors into three: the stra-
 119 tegic power sector, the strategic industrial sector and the commercial/wholesale sector. This
 120 study adopted the price of natural gas in the strategic power sector, which is regulated. The trend
 121 of natural gas price is presented in figure 3.



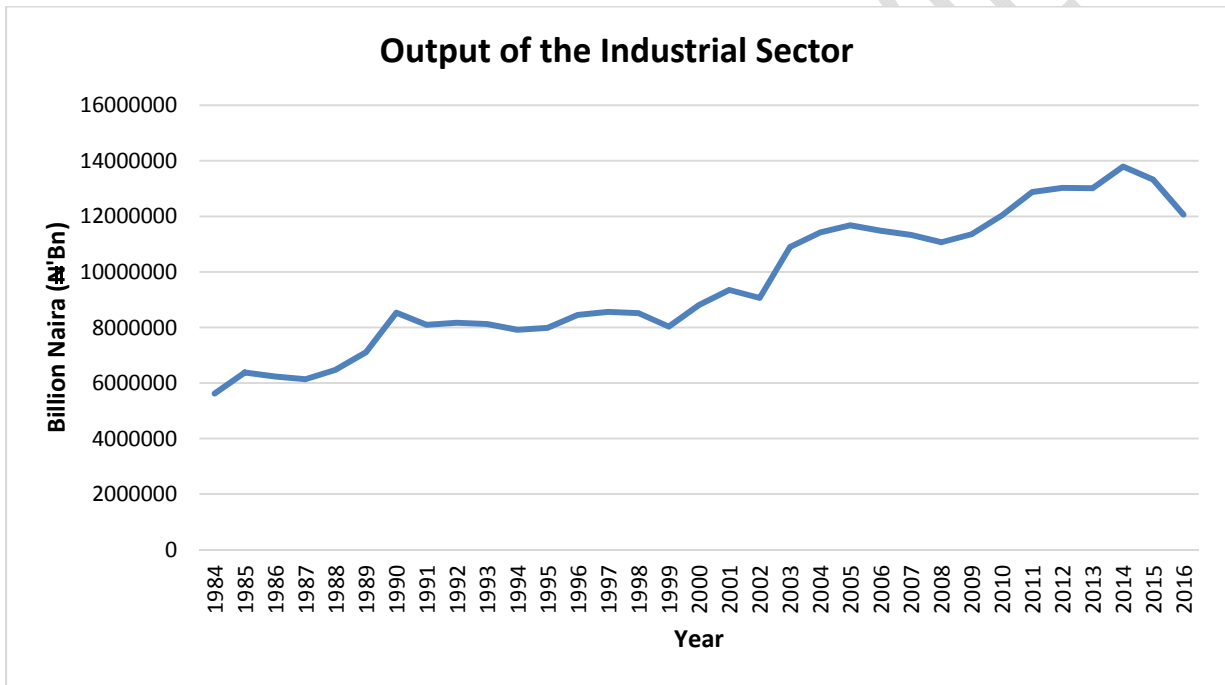
122 **Figure 3 Energy Prices 1984 – 2016, NNPC (2016); World Bank (2016); BP (2018)**

124 Domestic natural gas price maintained a fairly stable trend from 1984 to 2008. This is attributa-
 125 ble to the adoption a fixed price regime for natural gas. The national gas pricing policy of 2008,
 126 however, led to the rise in gas price in 2009 until it reached a high of ₦208.22/mscf in 2011, be-
 127 fore declining to ₦233.19/mscf in 2013 [11]. Gas prices increased in the following year and has
 128 since maintained an upward movement.

129 In order to estimate the cross elasticity of natural gas demand, this study adopted the price of au-
 130 tomated gas oil (AGO) and LNG prices. These are presented in figure 4. The price of AGO wit-
 131 nessed a steady trend from 1984 to 1998 before experiencing an increase in 1999.AGOprice
 132 however, experienced an undulating trend until itreached a peak in 2009 before declining[12].
 133 The international price of LNG maintained a steady pace from 1984 to 1999 before increasing in
 134 year 2000 [10]. It has since been experiencing an upward trend.

135 **2.3 Overview of Nigeria’s Industrial Sector**

136 In spite of abundant natural gas resources, the output of the industrial sector of the Nigerian
 137 economy that utilizes Nigeria’s natural gas, has been low. This is shown in figure 4. The output
 138 has an undulating trend from 1984 to 2016. The output in 1984 was ₦5,621.18bn; it increased to
 139 ₦8,531.59bn in 1990, as a result of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) loan obtained by Ni-
 140 geria in 1985, before declining in 1991 [13]. The output trend was fairly stable from 1992 till
 141 2002 before rising to ₦11,674.74bn in 2005. Output experienced a slight decline in 2006 till 2008
 142 before experiencing an upward movement in 2009 till it reached an all-time peak at
 143 ₦13,791.24bn in 2014 due to the positive effect of the National gas pricing policy of 2008.
 144 However, output fell the following year and declined further in 2016.



145
 146 Figure 4 Output of the Industrial Sector of Nigeria 1984 – 2016, Ministry of Finance, 2016.

147 **3. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND MODEL SPECIFICATION**

148 **3.1 Theoretical Framework**

149 The theory adopted in this study is the theory of consumer choice (optimal choice of consumer).
 150 This theory states that consumer problem is a utility maximization problem and as such, the con-
 151 sumer puts together the theory of preferences and the budget set and also assumes differentiable
 152 preferences and convex budget set [14].

$$Max U = U(g) \text{ --- (1)}$$

153 Subject to $B = \{g \text{ in } G; \bar{p} \cdot g \leq \bar{Y}\}$ — — — — — (2)

154 In equations 1 and 2 above, g stands for natural gas, p represents price of natural gas and Y de-
155 notes real output of the manufacturing sector of the economy. It is worthy of note that p and Y
156 are fixed.

157 Solving the consumers' choice problem using calculus of optimization-method of Lagrange mul-
158 tipliers yields the individual demand functions which are also called Marshallian demand func-
159 tions. In the Marshallian demand function below, GD denotes natural gas demand, GP stands for
160 gas price, $PLNG$ stands for price of LNG, DP stands for diesel price, $ELECT$ stands for electricity
161 consumption per capita (which serves as a control variable), while Y is the same as explained
162 above.

163 $GD = g(GP, PLNG, Y, DP, ELECT)$ where $GD = (g_1, g_2, g_3, \dots, g_n)$ — — — — — (3)

164 In order to estimate the equation above, a mathematical form is needed, therefore this study
165 adopts log-linear demand equation as adopted by Erdogdu[2] and Medlock [15] in setting up the
166 econometric model. This equation, Medlock [15] posits, is often used in modeling energy [natu-
167 ral gas] demand in empirical studies. Equation 3 can then be written as:

$$\ln GD_t = \beta_1 + \beta_2 \ln GP_t + \beta_3 \ln PLNG_t + \beta_4 \ln Y_t + \beta_5 \ln DP_t + \beta_6 \ln ELECT_t + \varepsilon_t \text{ — — — — — (4)}$$

168 The log of natural gas demand is equal to the explanatory variables, also expressed in log. ε_t is the
169 error term, while β_i are the parameters to be estimated; these parameters represent elasticities.

170 According to a standard demand theory, there is a negative relationship between price and quan-
171 tity demanded of every product. This means that an increase in the price of natural gas will lead
172 to a fall in quantity demanded ($\beta_2 < 0$). Conversely, an increase in real output of the manufactur-
173 ing sector will lead to a rise in demand for natural gas. Therefore, there is a positive relationship
174 between real output and natural gas demand ($\beta_4 > 0$). LNG is one of the many gas utilization pro-
175 jects in Nigeria. By implication, its availability largely depends on the availability of natural gas.
176 It is expected that an increase in the international price of LNG will lead to an increase in Nige-
177 ria's natural gas demand ($\beta_3 > 0$). AGO is a substitute good for natural gas when an increase in its
178 price leads to an increase in the demand for natural gas ($\beta_5 > 0$). On the other hand, AGO is re-
179 garded as a complementary good to natural gas if an increase in its price leads to a decrease in

180 the demand for natural gas ($\beta_5 < 0$). Since natural gas is used in generating over 80 percent of Ni-
 181 geria's electricity, it is expected that an increase in electricity consumption per capita will lead to
 182 an increase in natural gas demand ($\beta_6 > 0$).

183 3.2 Model Specification

184 This study adopts the Auto-Regressive Distributed Lag (ARDL)¹ bound testing approach to
 185 cointegration developed by Pesaran *et al.* [16] and adopted by Shahbaz *et al.*
 186 [17], Marbuah [18], Belloumi [19] and Onolemhemhen *et al.* [20].

187 3.2.1 Formulation of the Estimated Model

188 The error correction model is specified as:

$$\Delta \ln GD_t = \beta_1 + \beta_2 \Delta \ln GP_t + \beta_3 \Delta \ln PLNG_t + \beta_4 \Delta \ln Y_t + \beta_5 \Delta \ln DP_t + \beta_6 \Delta \ln ELECT_t + EC_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \quad (5)$$

189 In this case, the parameters $\beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4, \beta_5$ and β_6 would be interpreted as short-run effects, while
 190 Δ represents the difference operator. The deviation from equilibrium in the previous period, that
 191 is, the error, is responsible for the change in natural gas consumption in the next period. This de-
 192 viation, as denoted by EC_{t-1} , is the error that is to be adjusted in the next period [21].

193 Model 6 is therefore specified as an ARDL model by "including lags of the dependent variable
 194 and of the potentially non-stationary explanatory variables on the right-hand side" [21]. Further-
 195 more, replace the error correction term, EC_{t-1} in equation (5) by its components from the long
 196 run relationship in equation (7) instead of adopting a two-step process to estimate the model.
 197 This is expressed as:

$$EC_{t-1} = \varepsilon_{t-1} = (\ln GD_{t-1} - \beta_1 - \beta_2 \ln GP_{t-1} - \beta_3 \ln PLNG_{t-1} - \beta_4 \ln Y_{t-1} - \beta_5 \ln DP_{t-1} - \beta_6 \ln ELECT_{t-1}) \quad (6)$$

198 And this yields the unrestricted error correction model (UECM) with the form:

¹The choice of this methodology is influenced by three factors: First, this approach has better small sample properties [21]. In other words, it is the best approach for analyzing model with a small sample size. Secondly, it can be used to analyze any model irrespective of the order of integration of the series of data [18]. In other words, no pre-testing is required as it can be applied to any series with either I(0) or I(1) qualities. Thirdly, the true or unbiased estimate of the long-run model is obtained by applying the ARDL technique. In this approach, dynamic models are estimated by adding the lag of the dependent variable as well as the lagged and contemporaneous values of the independent variables [18].

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta \ln GD_t = & \beta_1^* + \beta_{1A}^t + \sum_{i=1}^p \beta_{2i} \Delta \ln GP_{t-i} + \sum_{j=0}^q \beta_{3j} \Delta \ln PLNG_{t-j} + \sum_{k=0}^r \beta_{4k} \Delta \ln Y_{t-k} \\ & + \sum_{l=0}^s \beta_5 \Delta \ln DP_{t-l} + \sum_{m=0}^t \beta_6 \Delta \ln ELECT_{t-m} + \beta_7^* \ln GD_{t-1} + \beta_8^* \ln GP_{t-1} \\ & + \beta_9^* \ln PLNG_{t-1} + \beta_{10}^* \ln Y_{t-1} + \beta_{11}^* \ln DP_{t-1} + \beta_{12}^* \ln ELECT_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \dots (7) \end{aligned}$$

199 The UECM above is estimated as part of the ARDL framework in equation (4). $\beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4, \beta_5$ and β_6
200 are parameters representing the short-run effects while $\beta_7^*, \beta_8^*, \beta_9^*, \beta_{10}^*, \beta_{11}^*$, and β_{12}^* denote the
201 long-run elasticities.

202 3.2.2 Estimation Method for the Model

203 In equation 7 above, the variables GD, GP, PLNG, Y, DP and ELECT would each be subjected
204 to unit root test. This is to investigate if the order of integration of the series are integrated of or-
205 der 2, that is, if it has I(2) properties. Estimation of the model is done and the test of hypothesis
206 that $H_0: \beta_7^* = \beta_8^* = \beta_9^* = \beta_{10}^* = \beta_{11}^* = \beta_{12}^* = 0$ which is the null hypothesis, and/ or $H_1:$
207 $\beta_7^* \neq \beta_8^* \neq \beta_9^* \neq \beta_{10}^* \neq \beta_{11}^* \neq \beta_{12}^* \neq 0$ which is the alternative hypothesis is carried out using a
208 standard F-statistic, although this F-test has a non-standard distribution. The critical value that
209 enables a bounds test to be conducted is provided by Pesaran *et al.* [16].

210 The decision rule, therefore, is that if the calculated F falls below the lower bound at some sig-
211 nificance level, the null hypothesis is accepted and this means that there is no cointegration
212 among the variables. On the other hand, if the F statistic exceeds the upper critical bound at some
213 significance level, we reject the null hypothesis. This means that there is cointegration among the
214 variables. Lastly, if the F statistic falls between the upper and lower bounds, the result is incon-
215 clusive and the knowledge of the order of integration of the variables involved would be the
216 resolution of this uncertainty.

217 3.3 Description of Data

218 Empirical analysis is carried out on time series data covering the period 1984 – 2016 (33 years).
219 This period was adopted because of availability of data. Time series data on natural gas con-
220 sumption in Nigeria was sourced from [11]. It is measured in million standard cubic feet (mmscf).
221 The source of time series data on real output (Y) of the industrial sector is [13]. The data on real

222 output (Y) of the manufacturing sector was extracted from GDP at 2010 constant basic prices
 223 and is expressed in million Naira (₦' Million).

224 The time series data on gas price was obtained from [11]. It was specified in United States' dol-
 225 lars. However, for the purpose of this study, the price was converted to the Nigerian Naira (₦),
 226 and was further deflated by Nigeria's Consumer Price Index (CPI) (2010 = 100) in order to get
 227 the real price of gas. The same process was applied to price of diesel and the international price of
 228 LNG in order to obtain their real prices in Naira terms; though the time series data on LNG price
 229 was obtained by taking the average price of LNG in two markets (Japan and Germany) before its
 230 conversion to the Nigerian Naira. The time series data of price of diesel was sourced from [12],
 231 while the price of LNG was sourced from [10]. The price of AGO is measured in ₦/litre while the
 232 LNG price is measured in ₦/mmbtu. Electricity consumption per capita was obtained from [22]
 233 and is expressed in kWh.

234 4. DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

235 4.1 Unit Root Test

236 Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF)² test was conducted to ascertain the order of integration of the
 237 time series data. It was discovered after the test that none of the variables was integrated of order
 238 2, and none of the variables adopted is stationary at level. In other words, all the variables have
 239 unit roots. However, all the variables became stationary at first (1st) difference. This is shown in
 240 table 1.

241 **Table 1 Unit Root Test**

Variable	Level	1 st Difference
GD	-2.193931	-7.725809***
GP	-1.404493	-4.460467***
PLNG	-2.734929	-4.265754**
Y	-2.564917	-5.230566***
DP	-2.166937	-3.983713**
ELECT	-2.412257	-6.463673***

242 Note: ***, denote rejection of the null hypothesis at 1%, 5% and 10% level of significance

243 **, denote acceptance of null hypothesis at 1% level of significance but rejection at 5% and 10% level

244 4.2 Results of Cointegration Test

245 Results of the bounds test are presented in table 2. The cointegration test was carried out on gas
 246 demand and all the independent variables. The F-statistic of the cointegration test was 4.45. This

²ADF test is used to carry out unit root test in order to ascertain the order of integration of a time series data

247 result is higher than the upper critical bounds at only 10 percent and 5 percent levels of signifi-
 248 cance, and this indicates that there is cointegration among the variables at both 10 percent and 5
 249 percent levels of significance; hence, there is a long run relationship between gas demand, gas
 250 price, price of LNG, real output of the industrial sector, price of AGO and electricity consump-
 251 tion per capita. However, the value of the bounds test falls in between the lower and upper
 252 bounds at 2.5 percent and 1 percent significance levels.

253 **Table 2 Bounds Test for Cointegration**

Variable	F-Statistics	Critical Bounds			
		5%		10%	
		I(0)	I(1)	I(0)	I(1)
$F_{gd}(gd gp, plng, y, dp, elect)$	4.45**	3.12	4.25	2.75	3.79

254 NOTE: ***, denote rejection of null hypothesis at 1%, 5% and 10% level of significance, while ** denote rejec-
 255 tion of hypothesis at 5% and 10% level of significance

256 **4.3 Estimated Short-Run and Long-Run Results**

257 The error correction term has the correct sign (negative) and is statistically significant as shown
 258 in table 3. The error correction term of -1.295843 is similar to the error correction term obtained
 259 by Narayan and Smyth [23]. Narayan and Smyth [23] posit that this value “implies that instead of
 260 monotonically converging to the equilibrium path directly, the error correction process fluctuates
 261 around the long-run value in a dampening manner.” The economy returns rapidly to equilibrium
 262 once the process is complete. Additionally, with an R^2 of 0.801913, the results show that 80 per-
 263 cent variation in natural gas demand in Nigeria is explained by the independent variables. The
 264 residuals of the short-run models were subjected to a diagnostic test and it shows that they are
 265 well behaved with respect to serial correlation, heteroskedasticity, normality as well as constant
 266 variances. Lastly, the parameters were subjected to stability tests using the cumulative sum of
 267 recursive residuals (CUSUM) and cumulative sum of squares of residuals (CUSUMQ) devel-
 268 oped by Brown *et al.* (1975). In the estimated models, CUSUM and CUSUMQ tests indicate that
 269 the parameter stability falls within the 5% critical bounds; hence, they are stable. This is shown in
 270 table 5.

271 The short run estimate is shown in table 3, while the long run estimate is presented in table 4.
 272 The estimate of the short run price elasticity of demand is -0.15 and is statistically significant.
 273 This means that, in the short run, natural gas demand in Nigeria is relatively price inelastic. In
 274 other words, a 1 percent increase in the price of gas will lead to 0.15 percent decrease in the

275 quantity demanded of natural gas and vice versa, *ceteris paribus*. In the long run, the estimate of
276 price elasticity of natural gas demand is -0.089 and is statistically significant. This means that
277 elasticity of natural gas demand in Nigeria in the long run is also relatively price inelastic just
278 like the short run; but as we approach the long run, price elasticity shrinks from 0.15 percent to
279 0.09 percent. Therefore, if there is a 1 percent increase in the price of natural gas in the long run,
280 the quantity demanded for gas would fall by 0.09 percent and vice versa, *ceteris paribus*. The
281 short run and long run estimates follow our a priori expectation.

282 The price elasticity of demand of the international price of LNG in the short run is 0.311573.
283 This estimate is positive and is statistically significant. The estimate indicates that a 1 percent
284 increase in the international price of LNG will lead to a 0.31 percent increase in Nigeria's natural
285 gas demand and vice versa, *ceteris paribus*. In the same vein, the long run estimate of the inter-
286 national price of LNG is 0.101994, which is positive and is statistically significant. The result
287 reveals that a 1 percent increase in the international price of LNG will lead to an increase of 0.10
288 percent in Nigeria's natural gas demand in the long run and vice versa, *ceteris paribus*. This re-
289 sult follows our a-priori expectation.

290 The estimate of income elasticity of demand in the short-run and long-run are not statistically
291 significant.

292 The cross-price elasticity of demand of AGO in the short run is 0.101363. The elasticity obtained
293 is positive and is statistically significant. This means that, in the short run, AGO is a substitute
294 product for natural gas in Nigeria. Hence, a 1 percent increase in the price of AGO will lead to a
295 0.10 percent increase in demand for natural gas and vice versa, *ceteris paribus*. In the same vein,
296 the long run estimate of price of AGO is 0.097945. This means that AGO is a substitute energy
297 product for natural gas in Nigeria. Therefore, a 1 percent increase in the price of diesel will lead
298 to a 0.09 percent increase in natural gas demand in Nigeria and vice versa, *ceteris paribus*.

299 Lastly, the short run estimate of electricity consumption per capita is positive and is statistically
300 significant, while its long run estimate is not statistically significant. The short run estimate of
301 0.471537 indicates that natural gas demand increases by 0.47 percent when there is a 1 percent
302 increase in Nigeria's electricity consumption per capita and vice versa, *ceteris paribus*. This re-
303 sult follows our a-priori expectation.

304 **Table 3 Error Correction Representation for the Selected ARDL Model ARDL (1, 0, 1, 0, 0,**
 305 **2) Selected based on Schwarz Criterion (SIC) 1984 – 2016**

Explanatory Variables	Dependent Variable is GD
Δ GD (-1)	-0.496123*** (-2.261794)
Δ GP	-0.149683*** (-4.293318)
Δ PLNG	0.311573*** (5.562112)
Δ Y	0.126850 (0.614177)
Δ DP	0.101363*** (3.341430)
Δ ELECT	0.471537*** (3.900847)
Δ C	0.141812*** (8.706127)
Δ ECM(-1)	-1.295843*** (-8.900937)

306 NOTE: ***, denote the rejection of null hypothesis at 1%, 5% and 10% level of significance
 307 The figures in brackets represent t-statistic

308 **Table 4 Estimated Long-Run Coefficients Using the ARDL Approach ARDL (1, 0, 1, 0, 0,**
 309 **2) Selected based on Schwarz Criterion (SIC) 1984 – 2016**

Explanatory Variables	Dependent Variable is GD
Constant	10.932110*** (4.517216)
LGP	-0.089228*** (-5.344379)
LPLNG	0.101994*** (2.423419)
LY	0.043753 (0.266551)
LDP	0.097945*** (5.944668)
LELECT	-0.116009 (-1.209397)

310 NOTE: ***, denote the rejection of null hypothesis at 1%, 5% and 10% level of significance
 311 The figures in brackets represent t-statistic

312

313

314

315 **Table 5 Regression Statistics and Diagnostic Tests**

R – Square	0.801913
Adjusted R – Square	0.754373
F – Statistic	16.86790 (0.000000)
Durbin – Watson Statistic	2.034899
Serial Correlation	0.697320 (0.5081)
Normality	1.254495 (0.534060)
Heteroscedasticity	0.842740 (0.5491)
CUSUM	Stable
CUSUMQ	Stable

316 **5 CONCLUSION**

317 The results of the analysis conducted in this study suggest that domestic gas price, price of AGO,
318 international price of LNG and electricity consumption per capita are important determinants of
319 Nigeria’s natural gas demand. Furthermore, the international price of LNG has a positive rela-
320 tionship with Nigeria’s natural gas demand; hence, an increase in the international price of LNG
321 will lead to an increase in natural gas demand. Secondly, the result of the cross elasticity of de-
322 mand reveals that the demand for natural gas increases as a result of an increase in the price of
323 AGO. In other words, AGO is a substitute energy product for natural gas in the Nigerian econo-
324 my. Thirdly, an increase in Nigeria’s electricity consumption per capita leads to an increase in
325 natural gas demand in the short run. Lastly, the elasticity of natural gas demand in Nigeria is rel-
326 atively price inelastic. Thus, a fall in the price of natural gas will lead to an increase in the quanti-
327 ty demanded of natural gas by less than the percentage decrease in price. This study concludes
328 that natural gas price is a major determinant of the quantity demanded of natural gas in Nigeria.

329 This study therefore recommends that policy makers should adopt natural gas price as a tool for
330 increasing the quantity demanded of natural gas in Nigeria. Thus, there should be a downward
331 review of gas price in the national gas pricing framework. A downward review of gas price is im-
332 portant, because, a lower domestic gas price will lead to an increase in quantity of natural gas
333 demanded by power plants, commercial centres and industries. Cheap and affordable gas would
334 reduce the cost of electricity generation; production of glass, steel, paper, etc.; and, production of
335 fertilizer, petrochemical, etc.

336 However, gas producers have argued that the current gas price is low and uneconomic. In es-
337 sence, it is difficult to make a reasonable profit from harnessing associated gas and selling same

338 at the prevailing market price. This is attributable to high cost of harnessing and converting asso-
339 ciated gas into usable gas. This claim is consistent with the law of supply. Therefore, in order to
340 ascertain the equilibrium gas price, further studies should be conducted to estimate natural gas
341 supply elasticities in Nigeria.

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346 **COMPETING INTERESTS DISCLAIMER:**

347 **Authors have declared that no competing interests exist. The products used for this re-**
348 **search are commonly and predominantly use products in our area of research and coun-**
349 **try. There is absolutely no conflict of interest between the authors and producers of the**
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424 **APPENDIX**

