Journal of Policy Options · RESDO

The Impact of Demographic Factors on Expectations of Oil Revenue in Ghana

Vasco Samuel[a]

Abstract

The paper aims to empirically assess the various expectations held by individuals within the economy regarding oil revenue, with the goal of contributing to the broader body of knowledge surrounding expectation formation. The study employs a descriptive quantitative survey methodology, focusing on students in their first and third years in the Marketing Department of Sunyani Polytechnic who are pursuing a Higher National Diploma program. A total of 70 respondents were selected through a non-probability convenience sampling method to participate in the study. To gather data, questionnaires were developed using a Likert scale and distributed to the students. The collected data were then analyzed using SPSS, and the findings were presented in tabular form. The results of the analysis revealed that respondents hold mixed expectations regarding the implications of oil revenue. Notably, the study found variations in expectations based on factors such as gender, age, religion, and employment status. The mixed expectations observed among respondents suggest that perceptions of oil revenue and its potential impact are not uniform across different demographic groups. These differences may reflect varying levels of access to information, personal experiences, or differing priorities and concerns related to economic outcomes. The study concludes by recommending areas for future research. Specifically, it suggests that further investigation should explore the underlying reasons for the observed differences in opinions among respondents. Additionally, future studies should examine the influence of macroeconomic variables, such as inflation and GDP, on public confidence and the management of expectations related to oil revenue. Understanding these factors could provide valuable insights into how economic expectations are formed and how they can be effectively managed to foster public confidence and stability in the face of significant economic developments, such as the influx of oil revenue.

Keywords: Oil Revenue, Economic Expectations, Demographic Factors, Expectation Formation

JEL Codes: Q32, D84, E66

1. INTRODUCTION

The discovery of oil in an economy often triggers a wave of excitement and speculation, leading to what Shaxson (2007) describes as a "mirage" in people's minds. This phenomenon occurs as individuals start to envision a transformed future, filled with economic prosperity and new opportunities. However, these expectations, which are essentially beliefs about what the future holds, are inherently based on uncertainty. Economic decision-making relies heavily on these expectations, as the actions of economic agents are guided by their perceptions of what the future will bring. In the context of an emerging oil economy, such as Ghana's, the expectations and uncertainties surrounding oil discovery pose significant challenges for policymakers. The anticipation of oil revenues creates a complex environment where expectations need to be carefully managed to ensure the smooth functioning of the economy. The potential of oil extraction in Ghana has become increasingly tangible, sparking hopes of establishing a thriving oil economy. However, like many other oil-rich countries, Ghana faces the task of navigating the myriad expectations, apprehensions, and potential disappointments that accompany such a discovery. This scenario underscores the need for research to explore and understand the full spectrum of expectations that are likely to emerge in response to the oil boom.

In Ghana, a wide range of stakeholders, including politicians, have played a role in fueling these high expectations. The government, in particular, has been criticized for contributing to the heightened anticipation surrounding the oil discovery. However, the government is not alone in this; the media has also been a powerful force in shaping public expectations, often amplifying the potential benefits of oil revenues. Additionally, expert documents and reports have provided further information that stirs public expectations, creating a mix of optimism and caution among the population. The expectations surrounding oil discovery in Ghana manifest in two distinct forms: positive and negative. On the positive side, there is widespread hope that the newfound resource and the accompanying 'windfall' revenues will lead to substantial social, economic, and infrastructural improvements. Many believe that oil revenues will significantly boost the national budget, reduce Ghana's reliance on foreign aid, and facilitate large-scale investments in critical developmental infrastructure, such as roads, power plants, education, and healthcare facilities. At the local level, oil is expected to enhance financial resources and empower local governments to play a more significant role in economic development through the decentralization process. Policy makers and community leaders have expressed optimism that oil revenues will translate into tangible benefits for citizens, including a better road network, improved education and healthcare systems, and increased employment opportunities. However, alongside these positive expectations, there are also negative ones. Skepticism persists among some segments of the population, who caution against overreliance on oil revenues and warn that the anticipated benefits may not materialize as expected. This group advises citizens to continue

---

[a] Department of Marketing, Sunyani Polytechnic, Ghana

pursuing other avenues for economic improvement rather than waiting passively for the oil windfall.

While the discovery of oil in Ghana has generated a wave of high expectations, it has also introduced significant challenges for policymakers. Balancing these expectations, both positive and negative, is crucial to managing the potential impact of oil revenues on the economy and ensuring that the benefits are realized in a sustainable and equitable manner. As Ghana embarks on this new chapter, it will be essential to address the uncertainties and manage the public's expectations carefully to avoid the pitfalls that have plagued other oil-rich nations. Weszkalnys (2008) discusses the concept of the "resource curse" and the related phenomenon known as "Dutch disease," both of which are frequently cited in academic literature to describe the negative effects that can accompany the discovery and exploitation of natural resources such as oil. The "resource curse" has become a widely recognized framework since the late 1980s, particularly in the fields of resource economics and among global financial agencies. The term was coined to explain a paradoxical situation: countries that are rich in natural resources, such as oil or diamonds, are not necessarily prosperous, as one might expect. Instead, these nations often experience a range of negative outcomes.

Today, the "resource curse" is understood to encompass a variety of detrimental effects, including poor economic performance, violent conflict, corruption, and the entrenchment of authoritarian political regimes. The "Dutch disease," considered a variant or early warning of the resource curse, describes the economic impact of a sudden influx of resource revenues. This phenomenon can lead to the appreciation of the local currency, making other sectors of the economy—particularly agriculture—less competitive and ultimately contributing to their decline. Darkwah (2010) stresses the importance of Ghana learning from both the successes and failures of other resource-rich countries. Norway, Canada, and Botswana are often cited as examples of nations that have managed their natural resources well, avoiding many of the pitfalls associated with the resource curse. Conversely, countries like Angola, Nigeria, and Equatorial Guinea have struggled with the negative consequences of resource wealth, as highlighted by Auty (1993) in his resource curse thesis. Auty and Mikesell (1998) further illustrate this by showing that ore-exporting resource-rich economies tend to record lower average GDP growth rates compared to smaller, resource-poor countries. Collier and Hoeffler (2000) argue that the challenges posed by natural resources extend beyond economic issues, often leading to civil conflict within states.

The discovery of oil in a commercialized form has been associated with various social problems, as documented by researchers such as Darkwah (2010), Collier (2007), and Boonstra et al. (2008). These social issues include, but are not limited to, internal and external conflicts, kidnappings, violence, deaths, the spread of HIV, sexual assaults, sexual harassment, physical abuse, environmental degradation, governmental instability, prostitution, and both unemployment and underemployment. The findings related to these social problems are well-documented in the literature, with contributions from researchers like Darkwah (2010), Boonstra et al. (2008), Wakabi (2008), Collier (2007), Patey (2007), and Rodriguez (2007). These studies underscore the complex and often devastating consequences that can accompany the exploitation of natural resources, particularly in countries that are not adequately prepared to manage the associated economic, social, and political challenges. The lessons from these experiences suggest that resource-rich countries, such as Ghana, must approach the management of their natural wealth with caution, drawing on both positive and negative examples from other nations to avoid falling victim to the resource curse. By doing so, they can hope to leverage their natural resources for sustainable development rather than allowing them to become a source of instability and decline. According to the literature (Darkwah, 2010; Bloomfield, 2008; Patey, 2007; Rodriguez, 2007; Wakabi, 2008; Yav, 2007), numerous countries have encountered significant social problems associated with the exploration and exploitation of oil and other minerals. These issues have been particularly pronounced in regions such as Angola, Cambodia, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Darfur in Sudan, the Middle East, the Niger Delta in Nigeria, Uganda, Cameroon, Colombia, Sierra Leone, South Kivu, and Equatorial Guinea. The adverse social impacts observed in these regions include increased levels of violence, conflict, and instability. The literature highlights that resource-rich areas often become hotspots for civil unrest, driven by competition over valuable resources. In the Niger Delta, for example, oil exploration has led to widespread environmental degradation, which, in turn, has fueled discontent and conflict among local communities. Similarly, in countries like Angola and Equatorial Guinea, the influx of oil revenues has been linked to corruption, the entrenchment of authoritarian regimes, and significant inequalities, where the wealth generated from natural resources fails to benefit the broader population. These cases illustrate the complex and often detrimental effects that resource exploitation can have on social stability and development. The experiences of these countries serve as a cautionary tale for other nations embarking on the path of natural resource extraction. They underscore the importance of implementing robust governance structures, equitable distribution of resource revenues, and policies aimed at mitigating the negative social impacts of resource exploitation. By learning from the challenges faced by these regions, other resource-rich countries can better navigate the potential pitfalls of resource wealth and strive for sustainable and inclusive development. The exploration and extraction of oil in countries like Nigeria have been linked to a range of serious health implications. Communities living near oil production sites often experience a higher incidence of respiratory diseases, skin rashes, coughing up blood, tumors, gastrointestinal issues, cancer, malnourishment, HIV/AIDS, spontaneous abortions, as well as other ailments such as throat pain, headaches, red eyes, ear pain, diarrhea, and gastritis (Bloomfield, 2008; Bisina, 2004; US Non-Governmental Report, 1999; Hurtig and Sebastián, 2005). These health issues are exacerbated by environmental pollution, a common consequence of oil economies, which further contributes to the deterioration of public health in affected areas (Hurtig and Sebastián, 2002; Watts, 2001; Sebastián et al., 2001; UNCTAD, 2007; US Non-Governmental Delegation to the Niger Delta, 1999; Turner and Brownhill, 2005; Dadiowei, 2003; Ikelegbe, 2005). Despite the documented negative effects of oil economies in many resource-rich countries, there is a palpable sense of optimism in Ghana following the discovery of large oil reserves. This optimism, however, has been met with caution by some experts. For example, Aning, a Security Expert, expressed concerns about the unrealistic expectations being

promoted by certain politicians regarding the potential revenue from the oil and gas industry. He described this as an unfortunate development that began during the 2008 election campaign. Aning advocates for the implementation of a comprehensive national strategy that is both integrated and responsive, addressing community concerns and ethnic tensions that have already arisen or may arise due to the discovery of oil and gas in commercial quantities. He emphasizes the importance of engaging with the youth and residents of the Western Region of Ghana to ensure their concerns are addressed proactively.

Individual characteristics, such as age, gender, and socioeconomic status, significantly influence people's expectations about the future of the economy. Psychological studies have shown that younger people, those with higher levels of education, and males tend to have more confidence in the future, which often translates into more positive expectations about economic prospects (Myers, 1993). Conversely, the unemployed are more likely to have negative expectations about the future of the economy, possibly due to the inadequacy of unemployment benefits, which often do not keep pace with changes in living costs. Public sector employees, while generally holding positive expectations about the future, do so in a way that is not statistically significant, likely due to the relative stability of their employment, which shields them from economic fluctuations. In contrast, those employed in the private sector tend to have more positive and statistically significant expectations about the future, reflecting the sector's dynamism, with increasing employment opportunities and rising wages.

For self-employed individuals, the optimism about the economic future is even greater and statistically significant at a higher level, indicating a strong belief in the economy's potential growth and their ability to capitalize on it. On the other hand, individuals living in urban areas tend to have more negative and statistically significant expectations about the future, which might be due to the fact that urban residents are more directly impacted by economic restructuring and downturns associated with transitions to different economic systems, such as capitalism. In contrast, rural areas, which are less connected to industrial activities, tend to be less affected by such economic shifts, contributing to a more stable and less pessimistic outlook among rural residents (Imam, 2007). This analysis underscores the complexity of managing expectations in the wake of oil discovery, highlighting the need for careful policy planning and community engagement to avoid the pitfalls observed in other oil-rich nations. It also points to the diverse factors that shape economic expectations, which policymakers must consider to effectively address the varied needs and concerns of different demographic groups within the country.

2. METHODOLOGY

The study employed a descriptive survey design to explore the expectations of students at Sunyani Polytechnic, focusing on various demographic and socio-economic factors. The target population consisted of students enrolled in the Higher National Diploma (HND) program in the Marketing Department at Sunyani Polytechnic, located in the Brong Ahafo region of Ghana. Data for the study were collected using a self-designed and self-administered questionnaire. To select participants, the researchers used non-probability sampling techniques, specifically convenience and purposive sampling methods. The primary data were gathered in 2010 from students in Sunyani, the regional capital, while secondary data were obtained from existing literature. The final sample comprised 70 respondents, including first-year and third-year students in the Marketing Department. The study's purpose was briefly explained to the participants, and their consent to partake in the research was obtained. A thorough literature review was conducted, drawing on both primary and secondary sources. This review covered the key concepts used in the study, providing a theoretical framework and background that informed the development of the questionnaire. The literature review also served as a foundation for the study's discussions, supporting the various viewpoints presented and lending credibility to the conclusions and recommendations. The study focused on "people's expectations" as the dependent variable, while the independent variables included age, gender, religion, marital status, employment status, educational level, and region. The questionnaire was structured into two main sections: Section A, which collected demographic information, and Section B, which assessed respondents' expectations using a five-point Likert scale. The questionnaire comprised a total of 15 items. The data collected were analyzed using descriptive statistics, including frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations. Additionally, one-way ANOVA was employed to examine the relationships between variables, with the analyses conducted using SPSS software. The subsequent sections of the paper present the study's results, discussions, and conclusions, providing insights into the expectations held by the students and how these are influenced by various demographic and socio-economic factors.

3. RESULTS

Table 1: Gender of respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	46	65.7
Female	18	25.7
Missing system	6	8.6
Total	70	100

The gender distribution among the respondents reveals some interesting dynamics in the study's sample. A substantial majority of the participants are male, which suggests that the findings of the study might be particularly reflective of male

perspectives or experiences. The presence of female respondents, though smaller in number, still provides valuable insights from a different gender perspective, allowing for some level of gender comparison or contrast within the study. However, it's important to note that there is a segment of the respondent pool for whom gender data is missing. This missing information could be due to a variety of reasons, such as respondents opting not to disclose their gender or possible gaps in data collection. While this missing data is relatively small, it's still significant enough to consider when interpreting the overall results. The presence of this missing data highlights the importance of ensuring thorough data collection methods in future research to capture a more complete demographic picture. The gender composition of sample is skewed towards male respondents, with a smaller yet meaningful representation of female respondents, alongside a small portion of missing gender data. This distribution is crucial in shaping the interpretations and conclusions of your study, especially if gender-related factors are of interest in research.

Table 2: Age of respondents

Age (Years)	Frequency	Percentage
19-24	56	80.0
25-29	11	15.7
30-35	1	1.4
36-40	1	1.4
Missing system	1	1.4
Total	70	100

The age distribution of the respondents is predominantly concentrated in the younger age group, with a significant majority falling within the 19-24 years age range. This indicates that the study's findings are likely to be heavily influenced by the perspectives and experiences of younger individuals. This could be particularly relevant if the research focuses on issues more pertinent to this age group, such as early career experiences, educational transitions, or youth-related topics. A smaller portion of respondents are aged between 25-29 years, representing a noteworthy segment of the sample. This group may offer insights from slightly older individuals, potentially reflecting different life stages or experiences compared to the younger majority. The older age brackets, including those aged 30-35 and 36-40, are minimally represented in the study, with each category comprising only a single respondent. This limited representation suggests that the findings may not fully capture the perspectives of individuals who are more advanced in their careers or life stages. There is also a small portion of missing data, where the age of one respondent was not recorded. While this is a minor gap in the data, it is still important to consider in the overall analysis to ensure a complete understanding of the sample demographics. Overall, the age distribution is heavily skewed towards younger individuals, particularly those in their early twenties, with much less representation from older age groups. This demographic profile is likely to influence the nature of the study's findings, particularly if age-related factors are a key focus of the research.

Table 3: Religion of respondents

Religion	Frequency	Percentage
No religion	6	8.6
Catholic	11	15.7
Anglican	2	2.9
"Presby"	8	11.4
Methodist	9	12.9
Pentecostal	17	24.3
Charismatic	4	5.7
Other Christians	3	4.3
Islam	5	7.1
Traditionalist	1	1.4
Adventist	3	4.3
Others	1	1.4
Total	70	100

The table presents a diverse religious composition among the respondents, reflecting a variety of beliefs and practices within the sample. The largest group identifies as Pentecostal, making up nearly a quarter of the respondents. This suggests that Pentecostalism has a significant presence and influence among the participants.
Following Pentecostal, the Catholic group is also notably represented, comprising a substantial portion of the respondents. This indicates that Catholicism is another major religious affiliation within the sample, likely contributing to a significant portion of the study's religious perspectives. Other religious affiliations, such as "Presby," Methodist, and those identifying with no religion, also have a meaningful presence, each representing a notable fraction of the respondents. These groups, along with smaller representations of Anglicans, Charismatics, and Adventists, add to the religious diversity of the sample. Islam, though representing a smaller segment, is also a part of the religious landscape, along with

respondents identifying as Traditionalist or belonging to other unspecified religions. This inclusion of various religious identities, even those with fewer adherents in the study, contributes to a broader understanding of the religious context among the respondents. Overall, the table highlights a rich tapestry of religious affiliations, with Pentecostal and Catholic being the most prominent, but with a variety of other beliefs also represented. This diversity suggests that the study encompasses a wide range of religious perspectives, which could be important depending on the focus of the research.

Table 4: Marital Status of respondents

Marital Status	Frequency	Percentage
Never married	54	77.1
Married	2	2.9
Divorced	1	1.4
Informal relation	8	11.4
Missing system	5	7.1
Total	70	100

The marital status distribution among the respondents indicates that a large majority are individuals who have never married, making up over three-quarters of the sample. This suggests that the perspectives gathered in the study may be heavily influenced by those who are single, which could be relevant depending on the study's focus, especially if it involves topics related to relationships, social dynamics, or life stage experiences. A smaller portion of the respondents are in informal relationships, representing a notable segment of the sample. This group's experiences may offer insights into less traditional or legally unrecognized relationship forms, adding another layer of complexity to the study's findings. Very few respondents are married or divorced, with each of these groups making up only a small percentage of the total. The limited representation of married and divorced individuals suggests that the study's findings may not fully capture the experiences or perspectives of those who have undergone these significant life events. There is also a portion of missing data regarding marital status, where a few respondents did not provide this information. While this is a relatively small segment, it is still important to consider as it might slightly affect the overall analysis. In summary, the table highlights that most respondents are unmarried, with a smaller but significant number in informal relationships, and very few married or divorced. This marital status distribution suggests that the study's findings will predominantly reflect the viewpoints of those who are single or in informal relationships.

Table 5: Employment Status of respondents

Employment status	Frequency	Percentage
Student and employee	3	4.3
Student and self-employed	2	2.9
Student and casual worker	2	2.9
Student	61	87.1
Missing system	2	2.9
Total	70	100

The employment status of the respondents reveals that the vast majority are students, making up a substantial portion of the sample. This overwhelming presence of students suggests that the study's findings will largely reflect the experiences, perspectives, and challenges faced by those who are primarily focused on their education. A small number of respondents are balancing their studies with employment, either as employees, self-employed individuals, or casual workers. Though these groups are small, they provide insights into the lives of students who are also engaged in work, which could highlight different pressures or opportunities compared to those who are solely students. There is also a minor portion of the data that is missing, where the employment status of a few respondents was not recorded. While this missing information is minimal, it should still be considered when interpreting the overall results. The table shows that the respondent group is predominantly made up of students, with only a small fraction juggling studies and work, and an even smaller amount of missing data. This distribution indicates that the study's outcomes are likely to be most relevant to understanding student life and the issues related to it.

The region of respondents in the study is primarily concentrated in a few key areas, with the Ashanti region representing the largest portion of the sample. This significant representation from Ashanti suggests that the findings of the study may be particularly reflective of the experiences and perspectives of individuals from this region. The Brong Ahafo (BA) region also contributes a substantial number of respondents, making up a notable segment of the sample. Together, respondents from Ashanti and BA regions form the majority, indicating that the study's results are likely to be most relevant to these areas. Other regions, such as the Eastern and Greater Accra regions, have a smaller but still meaningful presence in the study, each contributing to the diversity of regional perspectives. The Western, Volta, Northern, Central, Upper West, and Upper East regions are minimally represented, with each accounting for a small fraction of the

respondents. This limited representation from these regions suggests that their specific regional perspectives might not be as prominently featured in the study's overall findings. Overall, the table highlights that the study is heavily influenced by respondents from the Ashanti and BA regions, with a more modest contribution from other areas. This regional distribution suggests that the study's conclusions may be most applicable to those living in or connected to these particular regions.

Table 6: Region of respondents

Region	Frequency	Percentage
Western	3	4.3
Volta	2	2.9
Eastern	5	7.1
BA	20	28.6
Ashanti	27	38.6
Central	2	2.9
Greater Accra	4	5.7
Northern	3	4.3
Upper West	2	2.9
Upper East	2	2.9
Total	70	100

4. DISCUSSION

The study conducted a comprehensive analysis of respondents' perceptions of their financial situation and the broader economic environment, comparing the present to the period between 2001 and 2008. Respondents were asked to rank their current household financial situation relative to this earlier period, with findings indicating that 68.6 percent believed their financial situation had significantly improved ("got a lot better"), while 71.4 percent agreed that it had improved slightly ("got a little better"). Conversely, 62.9 percent disagreed that their financial situation had remained the same, and a significant majority disagreed that it had worsened, either slightly or significantly. These results suggest that most respondents felt their household finances had improved compared to the earlier period. When asked about the current economic situation in comparison to 2001-2008, a majority (77.1 percent) agreed that the economy had significantly improved, with 67.1 percent agreeing that it had improved slightly. In contrast, 54.3 percent disagreed that the economy had stayed the same, and 72.8 percent disagreed that it had deteriorated slightly, with 82.9 percent disagreeing that it had deteriorated significantly. These results indicate a general consensus among respondents that the economy had improved over the years.

Looking to the future, respondents were asked about their expectations for the economy in the coming years. A significant majority (75.7 percent) believed the economy would improve significantly, with 64.3 percent expecting a slight improvement. Additionally, 71.5 percent disagreed with the notion that the economy would worsen slightly, and 84.3 percent disagreed that it would worsen significantly. These findings suggest that most respondents held positive expectations for the Ghanaian economy moving forward. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) results revealed significant differences in expectations based on demographic factors such as age, gender, marital status, religion, region, and employment status. For example, age differences were observed in respondents' expectations regarding the financial situation of their households over the next two years and the broader economic outlook. Gender differences were also noted, particularly in the assessment of current household financial situations and future economic expectations. Similarly, employment status, marital status, religion, and region were found to influence respondents' expectations about their financial and economic future. These findings align with Imam's (2007) theory, which suggests that individual characteristics such as age, gender, and education level influence economic expectations. Young males, in particular, tend to have higher expectations for the future, while those with higher levels of education are more optimistic due to the greater opportunities available to them, regardless of economic conditions. Conversely, unemployed individuals are more likely to have negative expectations about the economic future, likely due to the inadequacy of unemployment benefits and the challenges associated with securing stable employment.

The policy implications of these findings are significant, particularly in the context of Ghana's recent discovery of oil in commercial quantities. The inflow of real money and the signaling effect of this discovery have had a strong impact on economic agents' expectations. For those with an optimistic outlook, the discovery has reinforced positive expectations, while those with a more pessimistic view remain cautious about the future. Policymakers must consider these varied expectations when crafting strategies to manage the economic and social impacts of the oil boom, ensuring that the benefits are broadly distributed and that the potential negative effects are mitigated. The study highlights the importance of understanding the factors that shape economic expectations, particularly in the context of significant economic events like the discovery of oil. By acknowledging and addressing the diverse expectations of different demographic groups, policymakers can better manage the transition to a resource-rich economy, ensuring that the benefits of economic growth are shared equitably across society.

5. CONCLUSION

The discovery of oil in an economy has been subject to significant criticism, largely because some analysts argue that it fails to improve economic agents' expectations about future economic outcomes. This skepticism stems from the numerous negative effects that have been observed in various oil-rich economies, where the anticipated benefits of oil wealth often fail to materialize as expected. Critics point out that instead of leading to broad-based economic development, oil discoveries can exacerbate existing problems such as corruption, inequality, and environmental degradation. In many cases, the influx of oil revenues has led to mismanagement and inefficient allocation of resources, further entrenching poverty and social unrest. The phenomenon known as the "resource curse" is frequently cited in this context, where countries rich in natural resources, like oil, often experience slower economic growth and worse development outcomes compared to resource-poor countries. Moreover, the concentration of wealth and power in the hands of a few, often resulting from oil revenue, can fuel political instability and conflict, as seen in various parts of the world.

The volatility of oil prices and the dependency on a single resource can also lead to economic instability, making it difficult for economies to achieve sustainable growth. These negative effects contribute to a sense of uncertainty and pessimism among economic agents, undermining the potential positive impacts of oil discoveries on economic expectations. As a result, while oil discoveries are often initially greeted with optimism and high expectations, the actual outcomes in many cases have led to disappointment and disillusionment, reinforcing the criticism that such discoveries do not necessarily translate into improved economic prospects for the broader population. This underscores the importance of sound governance, transparent management of resources, and the diversification of the economy to ensure that the potential benefits of oil wealth are realized and shared equitably. This paper examines the stated expectations of individuals regarding the future of the economy, with a specific focus on how these expectations are influenced by the recent discovery of oil. The study's primary finding is that the oil discovery does indeed have a significant impact on economic expectations, but this impact varies depending on the broader economic context in which the discovery occurs. The analysis reveals that individual demographic variables such as age, gender, religion, region, marital status, and educational level play a crucial role in shaping people's expectations about the future of the economy. For instance, younger individuals, males, and those with higher levels of education tend to have more optimistic expectations about the economic outcomes of the oil discovery. In contrast, other demographic groups may hold more cautious or pessimistic views, reflecting concerns about potential negative effects, such as environmental degradation, economic inequality, or political instability.

The study highlights that while the discovery of oil can generate optimism about future economic growth and prosperity, these expectations are not uniform across the population. Instead, they are significantly influenced by personal characteristics and the specific economic and social conditions of the individuals surveyed. This nuanced understanding of how different groups perceive the potential benefits or risks associated with oil discovery is essential for policymakers. It suggests that tailored communication and policy strategies may be necessary to address the diverse expectations and concerns of the population, ensuring that the positive impacts of oil wealth are maximized and broadly shared. The results of the study indicate that economic agents hold both positive and negative expectations regarding the future economic outcomes following the discovery of oil. While some respondents are optimistic about the potential for economic growth and improved living standards, others express concerns about potential negative impacts such as inflation, inequality, and environmental degradation. Given these mixed expectations, future research should focus on assessing the influence of key macroeconomic variables, such as inflation and GDP, on public confidence in economic outcomes. Understanding how these variables shape public expectations is crucial for developing strategies to manage and align them with realistic economic projections. Additionally, future studies could explore effective methods for managing public expectations, particularly in resource-rich economies, to ensure that optimism is grounded in sustainable economic planning and that potential negative effects are mitigated. By investigating these factors, future research can provide valuable insights for policymakers on how to better communicate economic realities, manage public expectations, and design policies that maximize the benefits of resource discoveries while minimizing their risks.

REFERENCES

Akyeampong, E. (1997). Sexuality and prostitution among the Akans of the Gold Coast: 1650-1950. *Past and Present, 156*, 144-173.

Ampofo, A. A. (2006). Intimate bargains: Sex workers and free women negotiate their sexual space. In C. Oppong, M. Y. A. Oppong, & I. K. Odotei (Eds.), *Sex and gender in an era of AIDS: Ghana at the turn of the millennium* (pp. 139-168). Accra: Sub-Saharan Publishers.

Auty, R. M. (1993). *Sustaining development in mineral economies: The resource-curse thesis*. London: Routledge.

Auty, R. M., & Mikesell, R. F. (1998). *Sustainable development in mineral economies*. Oxford: Clarendon.

Baanante, C., Thomas, P. T., & Konadu, A. (1999). Labour contributions of women to crop production activities in three regions of West Africa: An analysis of farm survey data. *Research Review, 15*(1), 80-100.

Bertrand, M., & Sendhil, M. (2001). Do people mean what they say? Implications for subjective survey data. *American Economic Review, 91*, 67-72.

Bisina, J. (2004). Oil and corporate recklessness in Nigeria's Niger Delta region. *Pambazuka News, 167*.

Bloomfield, S. (2008). The Niger Delta: The curse of black gold. *The Independent*.

Boonstra, J., Burke, E., & Richard, Y. (2008). The politics of energy: Comparing Azerbaijan, Nigeria, and Saudi Arabia. *FRIDE Working Paper, 68*.

Collier, P. (2007). *The bottom billion: Why the poorest countries are failing and what can be done about it*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Collier, P., & Hoeffler, A. (2000). Greed and grievance in civil war. *Policy Research Working Paper 2355*. Washington, DC: World Bank.

Dadiowei, T. E. (2003). Niger Delta Fund Initiative - Women environmental impact assessment (EIA) and conflict issues in the Niger Delta: A case study of Gbaran oil field communities in Bayelsa State.

Darkwah, A. K. (2010). The impact of oil and gas discovery and exploration on communities with emphasis on women.

Hurtig, A., & Sebastián, M. S. (2002). Cancer: Geographical differences in cancer incidence in the Amazon basin of Ecuador in relation to residence near oil fields. *International Journal of Epidemiology, 31*, 1021-1027.

Hurtig, A., & Sebastián, M. S. (2005). Epidemiology vs. epidemiology: The case of oil exploitation in the Amazon basin of Ecuador. *International Journal of Epidemiology, 34*(5), 1170-1172.

Ikelegbe, A. (2005). Engendering civil society: Oil women groups and resource conflicts in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria. *Journal of Modern African Studies, 43*(2), 241-270.

Imam, P. (2007). Effect of IMF structural adjustment programs on expectations: The case of transition economies. *International Monetary Fund WP/07/261*, 1-32.

Myers, D. (1993). *The pursuit of happiness: Who is happy and why?* New York: Avon.

Patey, L. A. (2007). State rules: Oil companies and armed conflicts in Sudan. *Third World Quarterly, 18*, 1-19.

Rodriguez, C. (2007). Sexual violence in South Kivu, Congo. *Forced Migration Review, 27*, 45-46.

Ross, M. L. (2001). Does oil hinder democracy? *World Politics, 53*, 325-361.

Rosser, A. (2006). The political economy of the resource curse: A literature review. *Working Paper 268*, Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex.

Sebastián, S. M., Armstrong, B., Córdoba, J. A., & Stephens, C. (2001). Exposures and cancer incidence near oil fields in the Amazon basin of Ecuador. *Occupational Environmental and Medical Journal, 58*, 517-522.

Shaxson, N. (2007). *Poisoned wells: The dirty politics of African oil*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Turner, T. E., & Brownhill, S. L. (2005). The curse of nakedness: Nigerian women in the oil war. In L. Ricciutelli, A. Miles, & M. H. McFadden (Eds.), *Feminist politics, activism, and vision: Local and global challenges* (pp. 169-191). London: Zed Books.

UNCTAD (2007). Globalization for development: Opportunities and challenges. Report of the Secretary-General of UNCTAD to UNCTAD XII. Geneva and United Nations.

United States Non-Governmental Delegation Report (1999). Oil for nothing: Multinational corporations, environmental destruction, death, and impunity in the Niger Delta.

Wakabi, W. (2008). Sexual violence increasing in the Democratic Republic of Congo. *Lancet, 371*(9606), 15-16.

Watts, M. (2001). Petro-violence: Community extraction and political ecology of a mythic commodity. In N. L. Peluso & M. Watts (Eds.), *Violent environments*. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.

Weszkalnys, G. (2008). Hope & oil: Expectations in São Tomé e Príncipe. *Review of African Political Economy, 117*, 467-521.

White, L. (1990). *The comforts of home: Prostitution in colonial Nairobi*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Whitehead, A. (1999). "Lazy men": Time use and rural development in Zambia. *Gender and Development, 7*(3), 49-61.

World Bank. (2006). Experiences with oil funds: Institutional and financial aspects. Washington, DC: World Bank.

Yav, J. (2007). The curse of oil in the Great Lakes of Africa.