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## Illusions to Poverty Reduction in Nigeria

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### **Abstract:**

*Poverty is a phenomenon that has attracted a lot of attention and discourse globally; thus, leading mainly to changes overtime in its conceptualization, criteria for measurement and determining the threshold respectively. These also account largely for the existence of wide range of reduction measures both in the past and in recent times employed by countries and international donor agencies like the World Bank, International Monetary Fund, Department for International Development, African Development Bank, United Nations Agencies, etc respectively to reduce the scourge. However, instead of stemming the tide, ironically, poverty rate is on the increase, especially in developing countries irrespective of array of policies and programmes believed to have been designed for its reduction. The paper is a critique of poverty reduction strategies vis-à-vis incidence in Nigeria. Data for the study were gathered through secondary means and analysis done via critical descriptive method anchored on the elite theory as framework of analysis. While it acceded that reduction policies and programmes might have recorded some degree of successes; however, the study argued strongly that the high incidence of poverty in the country in spite of the number of policies and programmes formulated, implemented and amount of fund expended respectively portray that they are illusions. Thus, concluded that an appropriate understanding of the meaning and import of poverty reduction is necessary to guide practical and urgent measures that are sincere and genuine, piloted by honest political leadership with strong will to address the challenge decisively; otherwise efforts at reducing poverty in the country will continue to be a mirage.*

**Keywords:** Poverty, poverty reduction, poverty incidence, poverty reduction programmes

### **1. Introduction**

Nigeria is a country that is enormously endowed with human, agricultural, petroleum, gas, and large untapped solid mineral resources. But rather than record remarkable progress in national socio-economic development, she retrogressed to become one of the poorest countries at the threshold of twenty-first century whereas she was among the richest in the early-1970s. This is further compounded by the fact that the country earned over US\$300 billion from one resource – petroleum – during the last three decades of the twentieth century; that has earned her the image of a paradox. According to the World Bank Report cited in Obadan (2002:1) the description of Nigeria as a paradox has continued to be confirmed by events and official statistics in the country. The paradox is that the poverty level in Nigeria contradicts the country's immense wealth. Thus, Otu, Eja, Joy and Emeka (2011:175) rightly observed that in spite of a robust endowment in natural and human resources, the level of poverty of her people stands in contrast to the country's enormous wealth. To that effect, Nigeria has a quarter of Africa's extreme poor, 10% of the world's children out of school, 10% of child and maternal deaths, and 25% of global malarial cases. The country has the most poor men and women after India and China (Draft Terms of Reference for Design Consultancy for the Department for International Development, 2012; Department for International Development, 2011a:1; 2011b:2). According to the National Bureau of Statistics 112.519 million Nigerians of the country's estimated population of 163 million live in relative poverty (Aremu, 2012:1).

The assessment of poverty in Nigeria gave rise to various studies and surveys conducted by the government in isolation and in partnership with international donor agencies respectively. It was observed that the first National Consumer Survey (NCS) was undertaken in 1974. This was followed by annual surveys from 1980 to 1985. A five-yearly National Consumer Survey was programmed with effect from 1985 which led to the implementation of 1992 and 1996 rounds. The analysis led to the publication of the report on poverty trend on Nigeria titled "Poverty Profile for Nigeria 1980-1996" that spanned over a period of sixteen years. The report was formally launched in April 1999. The Harmonized Nigeria Living Standard Survey (HNLSS) 2009/2010 was an enlarged scope of previous National Consumer Surveys and also a follow-up of Nigeria Living Standard Survey (NLSS) 2003/2004. Two statistical reports (Nigeria Living Standard Survey Report 2010 and the Poverty Profile of Nigeria 1980 – 2010) have been produced.

The World Bank and the Department for International Development (DFID) provided funding for the conduct of this survey. The Federal Government of Nigeria represented by the National Bureau of Statistics implemented the survey by providing professional leadership. The current Harmonized Nigeria Standard Survey (HNLSS) 2009/2010 was a follow-up to Nigeria Living Standard Survey 2004 and provides an update on the poverty situation in Nigeria. It will serve as a good comparison with the Nigeria Living Standard Survey 2003/04 (National Bureau of Statistics, 2012:5-6; Kale, 2012:2).

The findings of these studies and surveys implemented at the national level are being used on trend analysis and comparisons over time and form the bases for the analysis of poverty incidence. Thus, tracing the incidence of poverty in Nigeria, Obadan (2002:1-2) averred that official statistics shows that in 1980 the national (average) poverty incidence was 28.1 per (sic) of the population. He noted that the distribution of the incidence across the states of the federation shows a maximum of 49.5 percent recorded for Plateau (and Nassarawa which was excised from Plateau). This meant that every state had a poverty incidence below 50 percent. By 1985, the national (average) poverty incidence had risen to 46.3 percent, with the maximum of 68.9 percent recorded in Bauchi (and Gombe which was carved out of Bauchi). As at 1996, the national average stood at 65.6 percent with Sokoto, Kebbi and Zamfara (all old Sokoto State) recording the highest incidence of 83.6 percent; followed by Bauchi and Gombe with 83.5 percent. As at 2000, the incidence of poverty was believed to be 70 percent at the national level. Scholars citing available statistics from *Nigeria Poverty Profile 2010* a survey by the National Bureau of statistics indicate that inequality and poverty is deep and pervasive with an estimated 70 percent of the population living in poverty (Kalu and Nenbee 2013; Ogujiuba, 2014:201). Importantly, the increasing incidence of poverty, both within and among locations, was in spite of various resources and efforts exerted on poverty-related policies, programmes and schemes in the country.

The study is structured in a pattern that started with the introduction, followed by re-visiting the dynamics of conceptualizing poverty. Thereafter, it took a cursory glance at the indices for measuring poverty, reduction policies and programmes implemented vis-a-vis the incidence of poverty respectively. The fore-going formed the pedestal for a theoretical framework that amplified expositions for understanding illusions to poverty reduction in the country, before the study concluded.

### *1.1. Dynamics of Conceptualizing Poverty*

That poverty has not lend itself to a universally accepted definition have been collaborated by various scholars: Njoku (1997), Maxwell (1999), Abubakar (2002), Ajakaiye and Adeyeye (2002), etc; this is owing to the fact that the word poverty has suffered a lot of misrepresentation and misinterpretation because of difference in opinion and understanding of the concept. This is further compounded by the bewildering ambiguity with which the term poverty is used, and by the many different indicators proposed to monitor poverty. Conceptualization of poverty has undergone metamorphosis over the decades. Thoughts on appropriate conceptualization, measurement and accurate characterization of determinants of poverty have a long history. From analytical perspective, thinking about poverty can be traced back at least to the codification of poor laws in medieval England, through to the pioneering empirical studies, at the turn of the century, by Booth (1891) in London and by Rowntree (1901) in York. Rowntree's study, published in 1901, was the first to develop a poverty standard for individual families, based on estimates of nutritional and other requirements. Haralambos and Heald (1980), Blackwood and Lynch (1994), Njoku (1997), Abubakar (2002), Iheukwumere (2003), Okereke (2004) and Nweke (2008) shared similar view; their conception centered generally on poverty as a condition of lack of the necessary resources needed to provide or procure those things that make for good living like good food, good health, and good shelter. In the 1960s, the main focus of poverty debate was on the level of income, reflected in macro – economic indicators like Gross National Product per capita. This was associated with emphasis on growth, as exemplified in the work of the Pearson Commission, Partners in Development (1969). Therefore, the conceptualization of poverty shifted to level of income and gross domestic product; in that vein, Harrison (1987) and Abu (1999) therefore conceived poverty as a negative term denoting absence or lack of material wealth or a form of economic deprivation.

In the 1970s, poverty became prominent, notably as a result of Robert MacNamara's celebrated speech to the World Bank Board of Governors in Nairobi in 1973, and the subsequent publication of *Redistribution with Growth*. Debate on poverty conceptualization was further upgraded by two factors. First was emphasis on relative deprivation, inspired by work in the UK by Runciman (1966) and Townsend (1985). Townsend in particular, helped redefine poverty: not just as a failure to meet minimum nutrition or subsistence levels, but rather as a failure to keep up with the standards prevalent in a given society. The second shift was to broaden the concept of income – poverty, to a wider set of 'basic needs', including those provided socially. Thus, following International Labour Organization's pioneering work in the mid – 1970s, poverty came to be defined not just as lack of income, but also as lack of access to health, education and other services. Following these, conceptualization of poverty changed to accommodate the development: It is a plague often described as inability of people to satisfy their minimum basic needs of food, clothing and shelter. Olayemi (1997), World Bank cited in Egwuatu (2002) and Otu, Eja, Joy & Emeka, (2011: 185) agreed that it goes beyond the income view by encompassing absence of resources and opportunities that are basic to human survival.

Conceptualization of poverty gathered fresh momentum in the 1980s. The principal innovations were five: First was the incorporation of non – monetary aspects, particularly as a result of Robert Chamber's work on powerlessness and isolation. This helped to inspire greater attention to participation. Second was a new interest in vulnerability and security, associated with better understanding of seasonality and of the impact of shocks. This pointed to the importance of assets as buffers, and also to social relations (the moral economy, social capital). It led to new work on coping strategies. Third was the broadening of the concept of poverty to a wider construct, livelihood. Fourth and perhaps more innovative was the theoretical work by Amartya Sen (1977), which introduced the notion of food entitlement, or access. He emphasized that income was only valuable in so far as it increased the 'capabilities' of

individuals and thereby permitted 'functioning's' in society. These innovations also influenced perceptions and conceptualization of poverty by Aduwak (2001), Rayner and Malone (2001) and Abubakar (2002).

The 1980s was characterized by a rapid increase in the study of gender. The debate moved from a focus on women alone women in development (WID), to wider gender relations (gender and development (GAD). Policies to empower women and redress gender poverty gap were then given enhanced attention. The 1990s saw further development of the poverty concept. The idea of well – being come to act as a metaphor for absence of poverty, with concomitant emphasis on how poor people themselves view their situation: "The voice of the poor" at the same time, inspired by Sen (1983). United Nations Development Programme (1990) developed the idea of human development: 'the denial of opportunities and choice..... to lead a long, healthy, creative life and to enjoy a decent standard of living, freedom, dignity, self – esteem and the respect of others.....'

Taking cognizance of the fact that a concise and universally accepted definition of poverty is elusive largely because it affects many aspects of the human conditions, including physical, moral and psychological; thus, conception of poverty has been affected by time and space accommodating the changes in trends and dynamics. However, contemporary approach focuses on three broad areas: education, health and standard of living as depicted in the Multidimensional Poverty Index below.

### *1.2. Criteria for Measurement and Determining the Threshold of Poverty*

Corollary to the dynamics of conceptualizing poverty is its measurement and determination of threshold and incidence. Measurement of poverty is complex and varied. Over time, different methods were identified and used in the measurement of poverty. Discourse on poverty measures have, therefore, commenced with the simple living standard measure, poverty line determination and thereafter, array of measures involved in absolute and relative poverty measures were introduced. In recent times, measure of poverty that enables scholars show its decomposability by population, captures issue of social capital and how the poor themselves measure poverty have assumed the centre stage.

Ajakaiye and Adeyeye (2002:9-20) in an in-depth analysis of the various poverty measurement indexes identified the following: Living standards, Poverty lines in theory (Objective poverty lines: Two methods of measuring objective poverty line are food energy intake and cost of basic needs. There are food and non-food components of cost-of-basic-needs with different computation), Subjective poverty lines. Other parameters are the headcount ratios/incidence of poverty, the poverty gap/income shortfall, composite poverty measures, the Physical Quality of Life Index (PQLI), the Augmented Physical Quality of Life Index (APQLI), the Human Development Index (HDI) and Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI).

Ijaiya, Bello, Arosanyin, Oyeyemi, Raheem and Yakubu (2011) in similar vein observed that key among the parameters for measuring poverty is the use of a poverty line that separates the —poor from the —non-poor. According to them, there are two types of poverty lines which are generally used: first, is that which represents the value of a selection of goods or services that are identified as necessary, and second, is that which relates to the distribution of income/expenditure within a society. Poverty line which represents the value of a selection of goods or services that are identified as needs is generally calculated by giving a monetary value to a basket of goods or services that are identified according to the standard of living or well-being that policy makers decide should reflect a state of impoverishment. This type of poverty line can be used to depict what is known as a —head-count of the total number of people living in poverty. Second is the poverty line that relates to the distribution of income/expenditure within a society which is often relative and set at the level that includes people living below a particular threshold/benchmark.

In addition to the above measure of poverty includes the following: (i) the head count poverty index given by the percentage of the population that live in the household with a consumption per capita less than the poverty line; (ii) poverty gap index which reflects the depth of poverty by taking into account, how far the average poor persons income is from the poverty line; and (iii) the distributional sensitive measure of squared poverty gap defined as the means of the squared proportionate poverty gap which reflects the severity of poverty. Put together, they are referred to as P-alpha Class measure of poverty (Ijaiya et al, 2011). Furthermore, they rightly observed that recently too, the use of income and consumption-expenditure as basis for determining the poverty line are beginning to lose much of their relevance since the method of calculation was not adapted to the new economic trends resulting from high rate of inflation and the prevailing high increase in interest rate and exchange rate devaluation. Thus the Minimum Wage and Minimum Pension, Food Insecurity Measures of Poverty (FIMP), Human Development Index (HDI) and Capability Poverty Measure (CPM) and Indices of Multiple Deprivation (IMP) are now advocated.

While Food Insecurity Measures of Poverty (FIMP) sought to cost a nutritionally balanced minima list diet for a household; the Human Development Index (HDI) combines three components: longevity (life expectancy at birth) educational attainment and standard of living; Capability Poverty Measure (CPM) focuses on human capabilities just as the Human Development Index does. Instead of examining the average state of people's capabilities it reflects the percentage of people who lack basic or minimally essential (UNDP, 2009); Indices of Multiple Deprivation (IMP) index is made up of the following: Health deprivation, Employment deprivation, Income and material deprivation, Education deprivation and Living environment deprivation. However, what could be regards as the contemporary approach to the measure of poverty is the Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) introduced by Alkire, Roche, Santos and Seth (2011). The Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI for short) is an international measure of acute poverty that complements income-based poverty measures by reflecting the multiple deprivations that people face at the same time. It uses ten (10) indicators: Years of Schooling, School Attendance, Nutrition, Child Mortality, Cooking Fuel, Sanitation, Water, Electricity, Floor and Assets to measure three critical dimensions of poverty at the individual and household levels: Education (Years of Schooling, School Attendance), Health (Nutrition, Child Mortality,) and Living Standard (Cooking Fuel, Sanitation, Water, Electricity, Floor, Assets).

Given all these, the appropriate question to ask is whether there is a right answer to the concept of poverty. The answer is certainly 'no', but current thinking does allow some simplification. First, poverty needs to be understood first and foremost as a problem at the individual rather than the household level. Second is the use of income or food measure of poverty. Third, is the settled consensus that people move in and out poverty, and that seasonal, cyclical or stochastic shocks are important in poverty conceptualization and measurement. Beyond these areas of agreement, there are different views on whether assets, including social claims, should be counted in a poverty matrix, on the importance of vulnerability, and on the relative prioritization of monetary and non-monetary variables. What is becoming clear in contemporary literature on poverty is that the most radical proponents of a participatory approach would deny the validity of standardized, so-called objective measures of poverty, whether based on income or wealth.

From the fore-going, poverty has been conceived variously, it buttressed wide range of poverty measurement indicators beyond the economic or material based indexes; thus, Maxwell (1999:2) rightly noted that, the complexity of measurement mirrors the complexity of definition, and the complexity increases where participatory methods are used and people define their own indicators of poverty. He aptly concluded that the proliferation of concepts and indicators would matter less if the same individuals were being identified by all measures.

### *1.3. Overview of Poverty Reduction Policies and Programmes*

Since independence, successive governments in Nigeria have initiated measures aimed at rural and urban poverty reduction. Thus, in the light of the government's concern for poverty reduction, Obadan (2002:6) observed that numerous policies and programmes have been designed at one time or another, if not to meet the special needs of the poor, at least to reach them. He explained that until the inauguration of a Poverty Alleviation Programme Development Committee (PAPDC) by the Nigerian government in 1994, all previous efforts at poverty alleviation were essentially ad-hoc. It was generally the case that poverty alleviation programmes and strategies were not crystallized and consolidated within the nation's overall development objectives. This view is borne out of a perusal of the various National Development Plans over 1962-85 period, and National Rolling Plans from 1990; poverty alleviation objectives were tangential and not explicit objectives of all the plans (Obadan, 2002:6). This is collaborated by Ajakaiye (2002:14) who affirmed that although, previous governments' efforts aimed at alleviating poverty in the country did not come under the "poverty reduction" nomenclature or slogan; several institutions have emerged, which together with the line ministries, have been concerned with poverty reduction in various ways.

The various policies and programmes directed at reducing poverty have been articulated and chronicled by scholars, according to Anyanwu (2012) these include: the Green Revolution (1980); programs to alleviate the pains of Structural Adjustment Program (SAP) through the Directorate of Food, Road and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI) and the National Directorate of Employment (NDE) (1986); the People's Bank of Nigeria (1990); Community Banks; the Better Life Program (BLP); Family Support Program (FSP) and Family Economic Advancement Program (FEAP); establishment of National Agricultural Land Development Authority (NALDA) (1993) as well as the Agricultural Development Programs (ADP) and the Strategic Gains Reserves Programs (SGRP). Another key measure was the establishment of the Poverty Alleviation Program (PAP) (2000) which later metamorphosed into the Poverty Eradication Program (PEP) and culminated in the National Poverty Eradication Program (NAPEP) (2001). There were periodic reviews of salaries/wages and tax rates and allowances as well as pensions for increase in the purchasing power of civil and public servants. In addition, there was the Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (IPRSP) with the aim of building on the gains of PAP and PEP. One of the recent measures that attracted a lot of attention was the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS), which was built on the interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper. This medium term strategy (2003-2007) derived from the long-term goals of poverty reduction, wealth creation, employment generation and value re-orientation, being a national coordinated framework of action in close collaboration with the state and local governments and other stakeholders. The main strategies were anchored on: empowering people (Social Charter or Human Development Agenda); promoting private enterprise, and changing the way the government does its work (Reform Government and Institutions). The equivalent of NEEDS at State and Local Government levels were the State Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (SEEDS) and Local Government Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (LEEDS).

In addition to the above, Abubakar (2002) also pointed out that the Government of Nigeria has waged the war on unemployment and poverty through a number of ways, first, through the activities of its ministries/agencies; second, by collaborating with international agencies; third and more importantly, through the establishment of agencies equipped solely to fight rising unemployment and poverty in Nigeria which include:

- i. The National Directorate of Employment (NDE)
- ii. Peoples Bank of Nigeria (PBN)
- iii. Nigerian Agricultural and Co-operative Bank (NACB)
- iv. Nigerian Agricultural and Insurance Corporation (NAIC)
- v. National Commission for Nomadic Education (NCNE)
- vi. National Primary Health Care Development Agency (NPHCDA)
- vii. National Agricultural Land Development Authority (NALDA)
- viii. National Commission for Mass Literacy, Adult and Non-Formal Education (NCMLANE)
- ix. Federal Agricultural Coordinating Unit (FACU)
- x. Agricultural Projects Monitoring and Evaluation Unit (APMEU)
- xi. Family Economic Advancement Programme (FEAP)

- xii. Industrial Development Centre (IDC)
- xiii. Federal Department of Rural Development (FDRD)
- xiv. Federal Ministries of Agriculture, Water Resources and Power and Steel
- xv. River Basin Development Authorities (RBDAs)
- xvi. Family Support Trust Fund (FSTF)
- xvii. National Centre for Women Development (NCWD)
- xviii. Nigerian Bank for Commerce and Industry (NBCI)
- xix. Nigerian Industrial Development Bank (NIDB)
- xx. Nigerian Export-Import Bank (NEXIMB)
- xxi. National Economic Reconstruction Fund (NERFUND)

Other poverty reduction policies and programmes not captured above are: The Nigerian Vision 20: 2020, Transformation Agenda, Subsidy Reinvestment and Empowerment Programme (SURE-P) (Ogujiuba, 2014); Oseni, Ogunlade, Oyetunji, and Sanni (2012) identified a special poverty alleviating program known as YouWin which is targeted at youths between the ages of 18 and 35 and who already own businesses or have strong business plans had been put into place. The YouWin 2013, according to President Jonathan is targeting only women entrepreneurs (Jonathan, 2012).

#### 1.4. Incidence of Poverty

In spite of the numerous of policies and programmes identified above, evidences show that poverty is on the increase in the country. African Economic Outlook (2012) reported that Nigeria's economic growth has averaged about 7.4% annually over the past decade and remained robust in 2011 at 6.9%, driven by the non-oil sector, particularly telecommunications, construction, wholesale and retail trade, hotel and restaurant services, manufacturing and agriculture. Growth is projected at 6.9% and 6.6% in 2012 and 2013, respectively. However, the economic growth has not cut poverty nor created necessary jobs. Social indicators on health and education remain weak. It explained that the 2011 United Nations Human Development Report ranked Nigeria 156th out of 187 countries. In 2010, Nigeria was 142nd out of 169 countries. In that light, World Bank (2011) presented the following data on Nigeria for 2011 as follows: Population (millions) 162.3, Total fertility rate 5.7, Infant deaths per 1,000 live births 89, Maternal deaths 100,000 live births 840, Girls aged 20-24 married by age 18 (%) 39, HIV/AIDS prevalence (%) 3.6, Living below US \$2 per day (%) 84.

Furthermore, the National Bureau of Statistics (2012:4) agrees that some inequality indicators have also worsened. The widely-used Gini coefficient for measuring inequality increased from 0.43 in 2004 to 0.45 in 2010 as the country's population has been on the increase from 15.9 million people in 1911 to 163 million people in 2010 as shown in table 1; the country's population in poverty has been on the increase from 17.1 million in 1980 to 112.47 million in 2010 as shown in table 2 respectively:

Year	1911	1921	1931	1941	1952	1962	1963	1973	1991	2006	2010
POP	15.9	18.7	20.0	-	30.3	45.2	55.7	79.8	88.9	140.0	163

Table 1: Population of Nigeria 1911 – 2010 (Millions)

Source: Adapted from National Bureau of Statistics (2012). *Nigeria Poverty Profile 2010*. Retrieved July 29<sup>th</sup>, 2012 from <http://www.tucriviers.org/tucpublications/Nigeria%20Poverty%20Profile%202010.pdf>

Year	Poverty Incidence (%)	Estimated Population (Millions)	Population in Poverty (Millions)
1980	27.2	65	17.1
1985	46.3	75	34.7
1992	42.7	91.5	39.2
1996	65.6	102.3	67.1
2004	54.4	126.3	68.7
2010	69	163	112.47

Table 2: Trends in poverty levels, 1980 - 2010

Source: Adapted from Anyanwu, J. C. (2012). *Accounting for Poverty in Africa: Illustrations with Survey Data from Nigeria*, Working Paper Series No 149. Tunis: African Development Bank.

The population of Nigeria in poverty from 1980 to 2010 is captured graphically in figure 1 below:

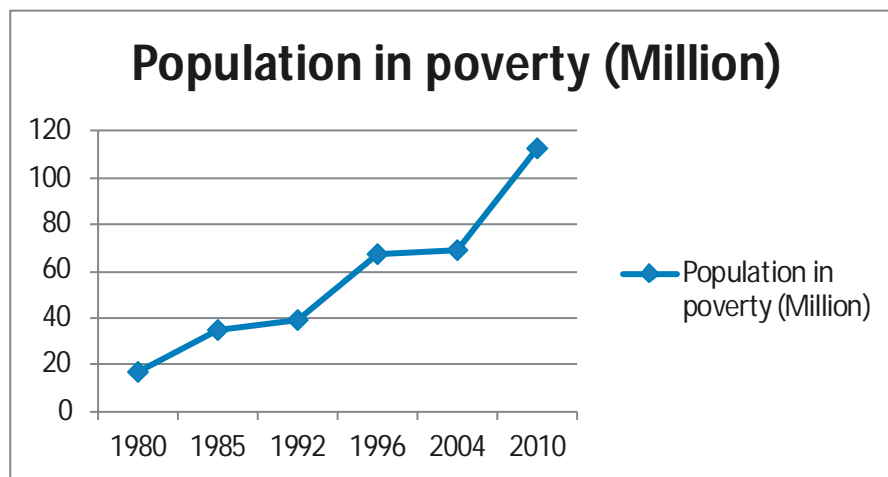


Figure 1: Population in Poverty (Million)

Source: Adapted from National Bureau of Statistics (2012). *Nigeria Poverty Profile 2010*. Retrieved July 29<sup>th</sup>, 2012 from [http://www.tucrivers.org/tucpublications/Nigeria%20Poverty %20Profile%202010.pdf](http://www.tucrivers.org/tucpublications/Nigeria%20Poverty%20Profile%202010.pdf)

The surveys of the National Bureau of Statistics which part of its functions is to produce statistics for evidence-based policy-making and as the authoritative source and custodian of all official statistics, presented its major findings on poverty incidence according to Kale (2012:4-5) are as follows:

- i. In 2004, Nigeria's relative poverty measurement stood at 54.4%, but increased to 69% (or 112,518,507 Nigerians) in 2010. The North-West and North-East geo-political zones recorded the highest poverty rates in the country with 77.7% and 76.3% respectively in 2010, while the South-West geo-political zone recorded the lowest at 59.1%. Among States, Sokoto had the highest poverty rate at 86.4% while Niger had the lowest at 43.6% in the year under review.
- ii. Absolute Poverty: Using this measure, 54.7% of Nigerians were living in poverty in 2004 but this increased to 60.9% (or 99,284,512 Nigerians) in 2010. Among the geo-political zones, the North-West and North-East recorded the highest rates at 70% and 69% respectively, while the South-West had the least at 49.8%. At the State level, Sokoto had the highest at 81.2% while Niger had the least at 33.8% during the review period.
- iii. The-Dollar-per-day measure: Applying this approach, 51.6% of Nigerians were living below US\$1 per day in 2004, but this increased to 61.2% in 2010. Although the World Bank standard is now US\$1.25, the old reference of US\$1 was the standard used in Nigeria at the time that the survey was conducted. The North-West geo-political zone recorded the highest percentage at 70.4%, while the South-West geo-political zone had the least at 50.1%. Sokoto had the highest rate among States at 81.9%, while Niger had the least at 33.9%.

A national breakdown for Relative, Absolute and Dollar Per Day and Food Poor is provided in appendix I.

- iv. Subjective Poverty: In this regard, 75.5% of Nigerians considered themselves to be poor in 2004, and in 2010 the number went up to 93.9%. FCT recorded the most number of people who considered themselves to be poor at 97.9%. Kaduna recorded the least number of people who considered themselves poor at 90.5%. The self assessment poverty breakdown is provided in appendix II.
- v. Income inequality: By this measure, income inequality rose from 0.429 in 2004 to 0.447 in 2010, indicating greater income inequality during the period. Appendix III shows income inequalities broken down by states.

In support of the Bureau's findings, available data from studies on the trend and dynamics of poverty affirmed increase in poverty incidence in the following spheres: spatial/sector –urban & rural areas; zonal level (North-Central, North-East, North West, South-East, South-South and South-West); state level and Federal Capital Territory (FCT) and different measures: Head Count; Food Poor, Absolute Poverty, Relative Poverty and Dollar Per Day; Non-Poor, Moderate Poor and Extreme Poor respectively. Therefore, Ogujiuba (2014) concluded that poverty is deep, pervasive and worsening with great regional, sectoral and gender disparities. In particular, poverty is becoming dynastic in the sense of the children of the poor having narrowing opportunities to escape poverty. For example, because of the increasing deterioration of the public education system, education is fast losing its potency as the social equalization ladder. Other social indicators in Nigeria such as inequality ranks as one of the worst in the world; unemployment is continuously rising and threatening the fabrics of social cohesion, absence of security and participatory democracy; and the imminent HIV/AIDS pandemic are all patiently waiting to explode and with potential dire consequences for productivity in the economy.

Interestingly, the above scenario of poverty incidence suffices in spite of the acclaimed contributions of international donor agencies towards poverty reduction in the country. Babatunde (2013) noted that the increasing and high level of poverty in developing countries (including Nigeria) has serious implications for the world economy. Hence, reducing poverty in developing countries has become the most persistent challenge facing the world today. Government, civil society, non-Governmental Organization (NGOs), and the international institution such as the World Bank are now in the forefront of the battle to reduce poverty in developing countries

including Nigeria. In other words, the centrality of poverty, its concomitant effects and dire need for reduction have attracted global concern and have caused all the 189 United Nations member states at the time (there are 193 currently) and at least 23 international organizations to recognize and accord the eradication of hunger and extreme poverty as the first priority (as shown below) amongst the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) which are eight international development goals with 21 targets that were established at the Millennium Summit of the United Nations in 2000, following the adoption of the United Nations Millennium Declaration signed in September 2000:

#### 1.5. Goal 1: Eradicate Extreme Poverty and Hunger

- Target 1A: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people living on less than \$1.25 a day
  - Poverty gap ratio [incidence x depth of poverty]
  - Share of poorest quintile in national consumption
- Target 1B: Achieve Decent Employment for Women, Men, and Young People
  - GDP Growth per Employed Person
  - Employment Rate
  - Proportion of employed population below \$1.25 per day (PPP values)
  - Proportion of family-based workers in employed population
- Target 1C: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger
  - Prevalence of underweight children under five years of age
  - Proportion of population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption Wikipedia Encyclopedia (n.d).

Hashim (2002:131-134) identified two broad categories of poverty reduction policy actors in Nigerian context, namely: Institutional Actors and Individual Actors. He explained that the former is the stronger and include state institutional actors, such as the federal government, the state government, and the local governments. Other institutional actors that operate in Nigeria, as in other countries, are donors, and civil society organizations; they have being very important and influential in terms of poverty reduction programmes. For instance, in Nigeria's case one will find that very close to the Federal Government initiatives has been the initiative of the World Bank. There are other donors that are multi-lateral donors like the World Bank; these include European Union, United Nations International Children Education Fund, and others member of the UN family, they are involved, in varying degrees, in poverty reduction projects. Then there are the bilateral donors or bilateral actors such as Department for International Development, United States Agency for International Development (USAID), which are the British and American (USA) agencies for international co-operation, respectively.

The National Bureau of Statistics (2012:21) recognizes the role of the World Bank, the UK Department of International Development (DFID) other Development Partners in their efforts towards poverty reduction in the country. The British High Commission, Abuja (n.d) on its part explained that the Department for International Development, is part of the UK's Government that manages Britain's aid to poor countries and works to eliminate poverty. The Department for International Development therefore has a large programme in Nigeria, working to reduce poverty by promoting economic growth and more effective spending by the Government of Nigeria on poverty reduction. The High Commission asserted that Department for International Development is increasing its aid to Nigeria from £100 million in 2008/09 to £140 million in 2010/11; the extra funds are being used to expand support to health and education. The donors on their part have been generous in their contribution of development aid to Nigeria, increasing their volume and scope of activities in recent years (Ogujiuba, 2014). Department for International Development works within a joint Country Partnership Strategy for Nigeria (2010-2013) with the African Development Bank (AfDB), USAID and World Bank, but also co-ordinates with the European Union (EU) and United Nations (UN) agencies. It expanded its partnerships with UNICEF and NGOs on girls' education, water and nutrition. Important Nigerian partners include Federal institutions most concerned with co-ordinating development, namely the National Planning Commission (the driver of the Vision 20:2020 plan), the Ministry of Finance, and the Presidency's MDG Office. DFID also works with the Federal Ministries of Commerce, Power, Health, Education, Justice, and the Independent Election Commission (Department for International Development, 2012). House of Commons (2002) International Development – Sixth Report criticized Department for International Development's evaluation systems on the grounds that evaluations have little impact on reviews of spending and policy. Public Accounts Committee of the Department quoted in the Report asserted that: The Department are failing to make the most of their evaluation studies to influence the design of aid projects and programmes because at project level, the results have not become available in time and few have formal evaluations related to country programmes.

Under the Fundamental Objectives and Directive Principles of State Policy, the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (2004: 28) observed that the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria (1999) clearly stipulated that public policy must be directed to balance the objectives of efficiency, effectiveness, and equity in order to ensure a broad-based poverty reduction, growth and development strategy, the dividends of which will be distributed fairly among all classes. Therefore, eradicating poverty is regarded as the most important goal of human development. Indeed, it is now widely believed that at its core, development must be about improvement of human well-being, removal of hunger, disease and promotion of productive employment for all. Thus, Edoh 2003; Kankwanda 2002; Muhammed 2006 cited in Ogujiuba (2014) lend credence to the foregoing when they suggested that a nation's first goal must be to end poverty and satisfy the private needs for all its citizens in a way that will not jeopardize the opportunity for the future generations to attain the same objective. To what extent have these been achieved with the implementation of numerous endogenous and exogenous poverty reduction policies and programmes? What are the nexus among rising trend in governments and international donor agencies' expenditure in Nigeria and high poverty incidence and unemployment rate? Ogujiuba

(2014) further raised similar questions: What is the connection between poverty reduction methods and poverty reduction in Nigeria? Do they reinforce each other? And what are the critical links?

In view of the above, Abubakar (2002) observed that the war against problems associated with unemployment and poverty has been a common denominator of all government activities in recent history. He contended that the programmes have always been there, but the pertinent question to ask is: How effective and sustainable are the measures? While there is consensus amongst scholars Obadan (2002:7-8), Anyanwu (2012:6), Babatunde (2013) and Ogujiuba (2014) that some achievements have been recorded by the poverty reduction policies and programmes in the areas of food crop production, agricultural and industrial extension services, primary health care, education enrollment, mass transit programme and financial sector services through the People's Bank of Nigeria and Community Banks. What some scholars found difficult to comprehend is continuing and persistent increase of poverty incidence despite the different strategies suggested and put in place by various governments, non-governmental organizations, community-based organizations and individuals at reducing it (Ijaya, et al, 2011). The fact that the incidence of poverty remains very high, the existence of the various programmes notwithstanding, attests to the ineffectiveness of the policies and programmes showing that they are illusions. According to Ogujiuba (2014:201-202) right from 1960 when Nigeria gained independence, the goal focus of national economic programmes has been the reduction of poverty, bridging inequality gaps and the achievement of a sustained economic growth that should translate to economic development. Nonetheless, the Nigeria's growth indicators are yet to translate to horizontal and vertical development, it has not resulted in appreciable reduction in unemployment and poverty prevalence. This situation is attributable to a variety of factors that have persisted as important policy challenges and has led to several questions regarding inclusiveness in the poverty reduction process. The Nigerian government often parades some growth indices, but, there is mismatch or disconnect between it and existing realities as reflected in the socio-economic lives of Nigerians (National Bureau of Statistics, 2010).

Arguing further, Tomlinson (2002) observed that in the last twenty years, Nigeria has had thirty-seven poverty reduction programmes implemented with the best of intentions by the Federal Government. Evidences in Nigeria show that the number of those in poverty has continued to increase. By 1999 the government declared in November 1999 that the N470 billion budget for year 2000 was "to relieve poverty." Before the National Assembly even passed the 2000 budget, the government got an approval to commit N10 billion to poverty alleviation programme. In the 2001 budget, the government has increased the allocation to poverty alleviation programme by 150%. (Ogwumike, 2002:1). Despite the enormous human and material resources used by past governments to reduce poverty through different institutions, the programmes, which were put in place, have failed to produce the desired positive impact on the poor (Ajakaiye, 2002).

Importantly, many studies on poverty reduction may not have devoted adequate attention to analyzing the impact of outrageous funds from international donor agencies and those from within voted and doled out towards the fight against poverty in Nigeria. Nwosa (2014:77) noted that previous indigenous studies have paid little or no attention to this issue; bulk of the indigenous studies on government spending has focused on government spending-economic growth nexus. While Holden and Sparman (2013) contended that empirical literature on this issue have produced inconclusive results; Nwosa (2014:77) explained that despite the rising trend in government expenditure in Nigeria, it is paradoxical and worrisome to note that social economic indicators has shown gloomy pictures. The paradoxical situation in Nigeria between rising government expenditure and social economic indicators (especially unemployment rate and poverty rate) makes it unclear on the exact relationship between government expenditure and unemployment rate on the one hand and between government expenditure and poverty rate on the other hand. However, based on his study that examined the impact of government expenditure on unemployment and poverty rates in Nigeria and the implication of this for national development; Nwosa (2014:81) concluded that the import from the findings is that government spending over the years has been inactive in tackling the problems of rising unemployment and poverty rates which pose a serious threat to achieving national developmental objectives of vision 2020 and of halving poverty rate in 2015 in Nigeria.

## 2. Theoretical Framework

Theories like the Natural-Circumstantial Theory, the Capitalist Entrepreneurial Theory, the Theory of Personal Income Distribution, the Individual Attributes Theory and the Urban-Biased Theory explain the problems of poverty from diverse perspectives (Yakubu and Aderonmu, 2010; Babatunde, 2013). However, analysis why policies and programmes geared towards reduction of poverty failed to achieve desired results has been attempted by the Power Theory. It contends that the structure of political power in the society determines the extent and distribution of poverty among the population; the ruling class, constituted by the few, establishes and legitimizes an exploitative property system, through which it determines the allocation of opportunities, income and wealth, relying on the use of state power (Akeredolu-Ale cited in Babatunde, 2013).

While the Power Theory identifies the existence of a ruling class with few membership in society that appropriates opportunities, income and wealth through the use of state power; it failed to label the ruling class (i.e. the elite) and explain how its activities constitute obstacles to poverty reduction. The Elite Theory fills that lacuna; and important advocates of the theory as rightly identified by Innocent, Eikojonwa and Enojo (2014) are Vilfredo Pareto, Geatano Mosca, Robert Michels, James Burnham, Joseph Schumpeter, Raymond Aron, Giovanni Sartori, and Karl Mannheim. The essential theme of the elite theory is that there is in every society a minority of the population which takes the major decisions in the society. As those decisions have political implications, the elite exercise considerable political influence. According to Mbah (2006) elitism is discriminatory, pre-emptive, and savours of a divine right to say what politics ought to be, claim the political office and tend to disregard mass opinion and competence.

The theory explains the link between failure of poverty reduction strategies and rising incidence of poverty especially in Nigeria. According to Innocent, Eikojonwa and Enojo (2014) taking a look at the various poverty alleviation programmes in Nigeria since



independence, they have left much to be desired because the elites who have been in charge of the governance of the country enunciate and implement policies that are not realistic. The masses and the poor for whom the programmes are meant are not adequately consulted and are not given the opportunity to take active part in issues that affect them. In Nigeria, only a negligible clique who finds their ways into positions of authority put policies in place for the people. More so, given that the country was under military rule for a long time, policies were just foisted on the people. As such, the poverty alleviation programmes remain fundamentally defective either in policy conception or their implementation. The consequence is widespread poverty in Nigeria while the negligible cabal amasses the wealth of the country for selfish interest. Thus, ArticlesNG (2013) affirmed that the failure of most social and economic policies in Nigeria since independence, lends credence to the fact that the distribution of wealth, income and other social benefits is hampered by the corrupt practices of the political elites who most times, deliberately distort the processes of implementation of social, economic, even industrial policies that have direct impact on the masses.

### 2.1. Why the Policies and Programmes on Poverty Reduction Failed

Numerous reasons replete in literature have been adduced by different scholars why the anti-poverty policies and programmes initiated over the years in Nigeria have not produced the desired results: These policies and efforts have not yielded the desired results of alleviating poverty because they were only declarative without concerted effort and lacked the required political will; there are inconsistency in macroeconomic policies, instability and policy reversals; conflicting macroeconomic policy goals; pervasive rent-seeking and corruption facilitated by government being the hub of economic activities; inadequate infrastructure and decay; weak institutional capacity for economic policy management and coordination; lack of effective coordination among the tiers of government; absence of target setting for ministries, agencies and programmes; absence of coordination, complementation and monitoring; unhealthy rivalries among institutions and agencies; lack of involvement of the traditional institutions and community groups in projects selection and implementation; wrong location of poverty alleviation projects also lead to failure in achieving the set objectives; designers and planners often make the mistake of sitting projects in places of their own choice without recourse to their appropriateness in view of the population which may be served by such projects; these choices were often informed by personal interests in terms of religions, politics, ethnicity or social inclination; lack of accountability and transparency thereby making the programmes to serve as pipes for draining national resources; poor leadership; inadequate data base; the nature of socio-political and economic structures, which alienate and exclude the poor from decisions affecting their welfare; programmes are set up from the top with huge overheads, which favour contractors, consultants and the cronies of those in power; the politicization of policies aimed at poverty reduction and the interplay of corrupt practices has often led to the displacement of goals and objectives of programmes designed to reduce the incidence of poverty; coupled with this, is the problem of political instability, the rapid turnover of programmes of action and office holders, lead to the truncation of programmes midstream and unnecessary duplication and waste.

### 3. Conclusion and Recommendations

Relative, Absolute, Dollar-Per-Day, Subjective and Income inequality measures show respectively in the surveys of National Bureau of Statistics (2012) that incidence of poverty in the country is on the increase irrespective of plethora of strategies initiated to arrest the scourge. It implies that the strategies are façade conceived to serve different intents and purposes. An evaluation of the perception of drivers of poverty reduction policies and programmes in the country portray that they are charade and smoke-screen for self-aggrandizement.

The right route to addressing the menace is first and foremost to understand the spirit and import of poverty reduction. Appreciating the meaning of poverty reduction is very crucial and fundamental to stemming to rising tide in poverty incidence in the country. Another common notion of poverty reduction in the psyche of amongst majority of people charged with the responsibilities of formulating and implementing reduction policies and programmes and those within poverty trap, by their actions and inactions is that poverty reduction is a temporary relief measure; hence, the loose use of the term *alleviation* to confuse *reduction*. Poverty reduction means concerted efforts systematically geared towards stemming the tide of poverty incidence in a given place to the barest minimum. It does not connote doling out paltry amounts of money to categories of persons (presumably under the guise of Target Cash Transfer as Safety Net) as have been the cases with most of the poverty reduction programmes in Nigeria. It entails actions that bring about permanent solutions or reduction in the prevalence of the scourge and not palliative temporary measures that give room for poverty to resurface or re-emerge after some time.

Another salient issue is tracking the incidence of poverty and availability of up-to-date data, which none of the reduction strategies focused. There are known problems with availability, reliability and timeliness of data for monitoring progress or otherwise of poverty incidence. A variety of issues affect the collection of data in the country, including: the time lag between data collection and publication; gaps in the collection of data and usage. The latest official statistics on poverty incidence in the country are from surveys conducted by the National Bureau of Statistics captioned *Nigeria Poverty Profile 2010* published in 2012 as the authoritative source and custodian of all official statistics. These are statistics being cited in practically all poverty and related studies in respect of the country from then till date. The vital question is what is the statistics of persons that have moved in and out of poverty between 2010 when the surveys was concluded and 2012 when the Report was published on one hand, and between 2012 and 2015 on the other hand, when no other Report has been produced?

Finally, genuine and concerted efforts at tackling grievous issue as poverty must be preceded by baseline studies and surveys to ascertain the incidence of poverty in both aggregate and disaggregate shades before formulating and implementing policies and programmes to curb it. When this is done, it facilitates milestones assessment to appraise the strategies and ascertain whether they are

on course towards achieving the target; if they are not, there is room to fine tune to reflect practical solution to achieve desired targets. Available evidences have not supported any of the avalanche of poverty reduction policies and programmes identified above that observed these steps or procedures, meaning that they are illusions.

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## Appendix I

		Food Poverty		Absolute Poverty		Moderately poor based on 2/3 of the weighted mean household per capita expenditure regionally deflated (Relative poverty)		Dollar per day based on an adjusted PPP	
		Food Poor	Non Poor	Poor	Non Poor	Poor	Non Poor	Poor	Non Poor
sector	Urban	26.7	73.3	52.0	48.0	61.8	38.2	52.4	47.6
	Rural	48.3	51.7	66.1	33.9	73.2	26.8	66.3	33.7
	National	41.0	59.0	60.9	39.1	69.0	31.0	61.2	38.8
zone	North Central	38.6	61.4	59.5	40.5	67.5	32.5	59.7	40.3
	North East	51.5	48.5	69.0	31.0	76.3	23.7	69.1	30.9
	North West	51.8	48.2	70.0	30.0	77.7	22.3	70.4	29.6
	South East	41.0	59.0	58.7	41.3	67.0	33.0	59.2	40.8
	South South	35.5	64.5	55.9	44.1	63.8	36.2	56.1	43.9
	South West	25.4	74.6	49.8	50.2	59.1	40.9	50.1	49.9
state	Abia	30.5	69.5	57.4	42.6	63.4	36.6	57.8	42.2
	Adamawa	55.4	44.6	74.2	25.8	80.7	19.3	74.3	25.7
	Akwa ibom	35.6	64.4	53.7	46.3	62.8	37.2	53.8	46.2
	Anambra	34.2	65.8	56.8	43.2	68.0	32.0	57.4	42.6
	Bauchi	54.1	45.9	73.0	27.0	83.7	16.3	73.1	26.9
	Bayelsa	23.3	76.7	47.0	53.0	57.9	42.1	47.0	53.0
	Benue	48.5	51.5	67.1	32.9	74.1	25.9	67.2	32.8
	Borno	33.2	66.8	55.1	44.9	61.1	38.9	55.1	44.9
	Cross-Rivers	46.4	53.6	52.9	47.1	59.7	40.3	52.9	47.1
	Delta	42.8	57.2	63.3	36.7	70.1	29.9	63.6	36.4
	Ebonyi	63.5	36.5	73.6	26.4	80.4	19.6	73.6	26.4
	Edo	39.4	60.6	65.6	34.4	72.5	27.5	66.0	34.0
	Ekiti	35.8	64.2	52.4	47.6	59.1	40.9	52.6	47.4
	Enugu	52.7	47.3	62.5	37.5	72.1	27.9	63.4	36.6
	Gombe	71.5	28.5	74.2	25.8	79.8	20.2	74.2	25.8
	Imo	33.3	66.7	50.5	49.5	57.3	42.7	50.7	49.3
	Jigawa	71.1	28.9	74.1	25.9	79.0	21.0	74.2	25.8
	Kaduna	41.7	58.3	61.5	38.5	73.0	27.0	61.8	38.2
	Kano	48.3	51.7	65.6	34.4	72.3	27.7	66.0	34.0
	Katsina	56.2	43.8	74.5	25.5	82.0	18.0	74.8	25.2
	Kebbi	47.0	53.0	72.0	28.0	80.5	19.5	72.5	27.5
	Kogi	50.1	49.9	67.1	32.9	73.5	26.5	67.3	32.7
	Kwara	38.1	61.9	61.8	38.2	74.3	25.7	62.0	38.0
	Lagos	14.6	85.4	48.6	51.4	59.2	40.8	49.3	50.7
	Nassarawa	26.8	73.2	60.4	39.6	71.7	28.3	60.4	39.6
	Niger	20.4	79.6	33.8	66.2	43.6	56.4	33.9	66.1
	Ogun	41.8	58.2	62.3	37.7	69.0	31.0	62.5	37.5
	Ondo	36.1	63.9	45.7	54.3	57.0	43.0	46.1	53.9
	Osun	19.5	80.5	37.9	62.1	47.5	52.5	38.1	61.9
	Oyo	24.6	75.4	51.8	48.2	60.7	39.3	51.8	48.2
	Plateau	44.0	56.0	74.1	25.9	79.7	20.3	74.7	25.3
	Rivers	26.3	73.7	50.4	49.6	58.6	41.4	50.6	49.4
Sokoto	56.6	43.4	81.2	18.8	86.4	13.6	81.9	18.1	
Taraba	45.2	54.8	68.9	31.1	76.3	23.7	68.9	31.1	
Yobe	58.5	41.5	73.8	26.2	79.6	20.4	74.1	25.9	
Zamfara	44.4	55.6	70.8	29.2	80.2	19.8	71.3	28.7	
FCT	32.5	67.5	55.6	44.4	59.9	40.1	55.6	44.4	

Table 1: 2010 Poverty Numbers for Absolute, Relative, Dollar/day and Food Poverty

Source: Adapted from National Bureau of Statistics (2012). Nigeria Poverty Profile 2010. Retrieved July 29<sup>th</sup>, 2012 from [http://www.tucrivers.org/tucpublications/Nigeria%20Poverty 20 Profile%202010.pdf](http://www.tucrivers.org/tucpublications/Nigeria%20Poverty%20Profile%202010.pdf)

## Appendix II

Household Assessment of Livelihood						
Sector	Very poor	Poor	Moderate	Fairly rich	Rich	Total
Urban	6.1	30.1	56.2	6.3	1.2	100.0
Rural	11.6	41.9	41.2	4.5	0.8	100.0
<i>Total</i>	9.5	37.2	47.2	5.2	0.9	100.0
<b>North Central</b>						
Benue	12.6	50.4	32.7	3.8	0.5	100.0
Kogi	5.8	32.2	58.7	2.9	0.4	100.0
Kwara	3.8	36.6	57.0	2.4	0.2	100.0
Nasarawa	7.0	26.9	60.0	5.9	0.2	100.0
Niger	6.9	25.1	59.6	7.7	0.7	100.0
Plateau	7.6	31.1	55.9	4.0	1.4	100.0
FCT	3.3	39.0	55.6	1.3	0.8	100.0
<i>Total</i>	7.3	35.1	52.8	4.2	0.6	100.0
<b>North East</b>						
Adamawa	10.2	46.6	39.2	3.5	0.6	100.0
Bauchi	7.1	42.3	41.9	8.1	0.6	100.0
Borno	3.9	41.7	51.3	2.4	0.7	100.0
Gombe	7.5	42.6	46.3	2.9	0.8	100.0
Taraba	10.1	54.3	29.8	5.4	0.4	100.0
Yobe	11.0	35.4	49.7	3.3	0.5	100.0
<i>Total</i>	7.8	43.8	43.5	4.3	0.6	100.0
<b>North West</b>						
Jigawa	4.9	30.7	56.0	7.3	1.0	100.0
Kaduna	8.8	43.5	38.2	9.0	0.5	100.0
Kano	11.5	41.9	40.8	5.2	0.6	100.0
Katsina	7.9	40.8	46.2	4.5	0.7	100.0
Kebbi	6.6	39.6	46.3	5.3	2.2	100.0
Sokoto	8.6	23.3	59.4	7.5	1.1	100.0
Zamfara	15.3	37.2	43.6	2.8	1.0	100.0
<i>Total</i>	9.3	38.0	45.8	6.0	0.9	100.0
<b>South East</b>						
Abia	15.8	47.2	30.3	4.9	1.8	100.0
Anambra	10.1	37.5	45.0	5.1	2.2	100.0
Ebonyi	27.6	51.4	15.2	5.2	0.5	100.0
Enugu	13.2	36.2	42.2	7.7	0.8	100.0
Imo	20.3	46.7	30.4	1.8	0.8	100.0
<i>Total</i>	16.3	42.8	34.8	4.9	1.3	100.0
<b>South South</b>						
Akwa Ibom	14.0	36.4	43.3	4.5	1.8	100.0
Bayelsa	32.6	35.0	28.6	1.7	2.1	100.0
Cross River	17.0	52.7	26.0	3.7	0.7	100.0
Delta	13.6	43.5	36.2	6.0	0.7	100.0
Edo	3.9	29.8	59.1	6.1	1.1	100.0
Rivers	12.0	45.9	33.9	6.2	1.9	100.0
<i>Total</i>	13.6	40.6	39.2	5.2	1.4	100.0
<b>South West</b>						
Ekiti	8.0	37.6	51.1	2.7	0.6	100.0
Lagos	4.3	20.5	66.2	8.3	0.7	100.0
Ogun	2.7	21.8	69.2	5.2	1.0	100.0
Ondo	5.9	46.4	44.2	3.4	0.0	100.0
Osun	1.9	23.6	65.3	7.0	2.3	100.0
Oyo	7.6	38.3	49.5	3.9	0.6	100.0
<i>Total</i>	4.9	29.4	59.1	5.7	0.8	100.0

Table 2: Household assessment of livelihood: Subjective poverty measurement

Source: Adapted from National Bureau of Statistics (2012). Nigeria Poverty Profile 2010. Retrieved July 29<sup>th</sup>, 2012 from <http://www.tucrivers.org/tucpublications/Nigeria%20Poverty%20Profile%202010.Pdf>

## Appendix III

	Income Inequality		% change from
	2004	2010	2004 to 2010
<b>National</b>	<b>0.4296</b>	<b>0.447</b>	<b>4.1</b>
<b>State</b>			
Abia	0.3524	0.3968	12.6
Adamawa	0.4414	0.4339	-1.7
Akwa ibom	0.3645	0.4381	20.2
Anambra	0.3534	0.3803	7.6
Bauchi	0.4705	0.3348	-28.9
Bayelsa	0.3333	0.337	1.1
Benue	0.3888	0.4069	4.6
Borno	0.3601	0.3841	6.7
Cross-rivers	0.3977	0.4369	9.8
Delta	0.3582	0.4698	31.1
Ebonyi	0.3598	0.425	18.1
Edo	0.3742	0.4177	11.6
Ekiti	0.3695	0.4831	30.7
Enugu	0.3976	0.4273	7.5
Gombe	0.3652	0.4217	15.5
Imo	0.3844	0.425	10.6
Jigawa	0.3368	0.3976	18.1
Kaduna	0.3668	0.4005	9.2
Kano	0.375	0.4692	25.1
Katsina	0.4174	0.374	-10.4
Kebbi	0.3046	0.3259	7
Kogi	0.4914	0.4145	-15.7
Kwara	0.4848	0.3594	-25.9
Lagos	0.504	0.3719	-26.2
Nassarawa	0.3494	0.34	-2.7
Niger	0.3665	0.3675	0.3
Ogun	0.3984	0.4076	2.3
Ondo	0.3274	0.3869	18.2
Osun	0.3482	0.3856	10.7
Oyo	0.3295	0.3923	19.1
Plateau	0.4242	0.3995	-5.8
Rivers	0.4052	0.4614	13.9
Sokoto	0.3574	0.355	-0.7
Taraba	0.3664	0.5241	43
Yobe	0.3283	0.523	59.3
Zamfara	0.3506	0.3397	-3.1
Federal Capital Territory	0.4062	0.5116	26

Table 3: Income inequalities for 2004 and 2010 by states

Source: Adapted from National Bureau of Statistics (2012). *Nigeria Poverty Profile 2010*. Retrieved July 29<sup>th</sup>, 2012 from <http://www.tucrivers.org/tucpublications/Nigeria%20Poverty20Profile%202010.pdf>