

**PROGRESS TOWARDS ACHIEVING THE UNITED NATIONS' FIRST
MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOAL: AN ANALYSIS OF INCOME
AND FOOD POVERTY IN NIGERIA'S STATES OF OSUN AND
JIGAWA**

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the levels and determinants of income and food poverty in Nigeria's States of Osun and Jigawa to assess the progress towards attaining the United Nations Millennium Development Goals' (MDGs) targets on poverty reduction in these states in order to verify claims of previous studies and analyses regarding these. The study uses both the individual and the family household in both Osun and Jigawa States of Nigeria as its units of analysis and employs the mixed-method research, comprising both the quantitative and qualitative methods. It collects its quantitative data relying on administration of questionnaires and collects its qualitative data relying on organization of Focus Group Discussions. Six hypotheses are tested by the study to investigate the likely association between the gender, age, educational attainment, and employment status of the family household head, family household size and family household geographical location (independent variables) and income and food poverty (dependent variables). The study analyzes its quantitative data using the Foster, Greer and Thorbecke (FGT) Poverty Headcount Ratio and the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software and it analyzes its qualitative data using tape-based and note-based analyses.

Findings of the qualitative element of this research hugely reveal that in general, the levels of income and food poverty in the study areas are high. These findings are confirmed by the findings of the quantitative elements of the research which reveal that at the individual level, Osun and Jigawa States have income poverty rates of 62.6% and 70% respectively based on the international market exchange rate; and that based on the PPP exchange rate, Osun and Jigawa States have income poverty rates of 37.7% and 42% respectively. These findings reveal that the levels of income and food poverty in the two states are both high and moderate based on the exchange rates used as yardsticks for measurement of income and food poverty in the states, thereby suggesting that the progress towards achieving the United Nations Millennium Development Goals' (MDGs) targets on poverty reduction is both positive and negative.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ADB	- African Development Bank
AEDEDC	- Academy for Educational Development and Education Development Centre
AIDS	- Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
AMR	- Adult Mortality Rate
AU	- African Union
BLD/FSP	- Better Life/Family Support Programme
CB	- Community Banks
CBD	- Community Based Development
CCTs	- Conditional Cash Transfers
CEE	- Central and Eastern Europe
CGS	- Conditional Grant Scheme
CIA	- Central Intelligence Agency
CNRE	- College of Natural Resources and Environment
CPI	- Consumer Price Index
DAC	- Development Assistance Committee
DCPP	- Disease Control Priorities Project
DfID	- Department for International Development
DFRRI	- National Directorate of Foods, Roads and Rural Infrastructure
DPW	- Department for Work and Pensions
DRC	- Democratic Republic of the Congo
ECA	- Economic Commission for Africa
ECOWAS	- Economic Community of West African States
EFCC	- Economic and Financial Crimes Commission
ERD	- European Report on Development
ETF	- Education Tax Fund
EU	- European Union
FAO	- Food and Agriculture Organization
FCT	- Federal Capital Territory
FEANTSA	- Fédération Européenne d'Associations Nationales Travaillant avec les Sans-Abri
FEAP	- Federal Economic Advancement Programme
FEI	- Food Energy Intake
FEPA	- Federal Environmental Protection Agency
FGD	- Focus Group Discussion
FGN	- Federal Government of Nigeria
FGT	- Foster, Greer and Thorbecke
FOS	- Federal Office of Statistics
FRN	- Federal Republic of Nigeria
FUMTA	- Federal Urban Mass Transit Agency
GDP	- GDP Gross Domestic Product
GNI	- Gross National Income
GNP	- Gross National Product
HDI	- Human Development Index
HDR	- Human Development Report
HICs	- High-Income Countries
HIPCs	- Heavily Indebted Poor Countries

HIV	- Human Immunodeficiency Virus
HND	- Higher National Diploma
HNLSS	-Harmonized Nigerian Living Standard Survey
ICPC	-Independent Corrupt Practices Commission
IES	- International Energy Statistics
IHD	- Ischemic Heart Disease
ILO	- International Labour Organization
IMF	- International Monetary Fund
IMR	- Infant Mortality Rate
INAFI	- International Network Alternative Financial Institution
IOM	- International organization for Migration
LDCs	- Least Developed Countries/Less Developed Countries
LEEDS	- Local Government Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy
LFPR	- Labour Force Participation Rate
LGAs	- Local Government
LICs	- Low/Lower Income Countries
MDAs	- Ministries, Departments and Agencies
MDGs OSSAP-MDGs-	Senior Special Adviser to the President on Millennium Development Goals
MDGs	- Millennium Development Goals
MDRI	- Multilateral Debt Relief Initiative
MICs	- Middle Income Countries
MTEF	- Federal Government Medium Term Expenditure Framework
NALDA	- National Agricultural Land Development Authority
NAML	- National Agency for Mass Literacy
NAPEC	- National Poverty Eradication Council
NAPEP-	National Poverty Eradication Programme
NBER	- National Bureau of Economic Research
NCDs	- Non Communicable Diseases
ND	- National Diploma
NDE	- National Directorate of Employment
NEEDS-	National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy
NGOs	- Non-Government Organizations
NLSS	- Nigeria Living Standard Survey
NMR	- Neonatal Mortality Rate
NNI	- Net National Income
NPC	- National Planning Commission
NPFS	- National Programme for Food Security
NPHS	- National Primary Health Scheme
NpoC	- National Population Commission
NRC	-National Research Council
NRDCS	- Natural Resources Development and Conservative Scheme
ODA	- Official Development Assistance
OECD	- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OFN	- Operation Feed the Nation
ONS	- Office for National Statistics
PAP	- Poverty Alleviation Programme
PBN	- Peoples' Bank of Nigeria

PPAs	-Participatory Poverty Assessments
PPP	- Purchasing–Power Parity
PRSP	- Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper/ Poverty Reduction Strategy Process
PTF	- Petroleum Trust Fund
RIDS	- Rural Infrastructure and Development Scheme
SAP	- Structural Adjustment Programme
SEEDS	- State Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy
SMEDAN	- Small and Medium Enterprises Development Agency of Nigeria
SOWESS	- Social Welfare Service Scheme
SPSS	- Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SSA	- Sub-Saharan Africa
UBE	- Universal Basic Education Program
UDHR	- Universal Declaration of Human Rights
UK	- United Kingdom
UN DESA	- United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
UN	- United Nations
UNDP	- United Nations Development Programme
UNECA	- United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
UNEP	- United Nations Environmental Programme
UNESCO	- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFPA	- United Nations Population Fund
UN-HABITAT	- United Nations Human Settlements Programme
UNHCR	- United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	- United Nations Children’s Fund
UNISDR	- United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Reduction
UNMP	- United Nations Millennium Project
US	- United States
USCB	- United States Census Bureau
USEIA	- United States Energy Information Administration
VON	- Voice of Nigeria
VPF	- Virtual Poverty Fund
WAI	- West African Insight
WDI	- World Development Indicators
WHO	- World Health Organization
WRI	- World Resources Institute
WTO	- World Trade Organization
YES	- Youth Empowerment Scheme

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DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis is my original research work and has not been submitted in any form for another degree or diploma at any tertiary institution, including university. Materials from published and unpublished works of others, which are quoted in this thesis are duly referenced and credited to the authors.

STATEMENT OF COPYRIGHT

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Research

At the Millennium Summit in September 2000, the Millennium Declaration was adopted by 189 United Nations (UN) member-states; the declaration covers “commitments to poverty eradication, development, and protecting the environment” (World Bank, 2011a). According to Bertucci and Rosenbaum (2007, p. 7), the declaration focuses on “upholding human rights, and fostering democracy and good governance; ensuring peace, security and disarmament; promoting development and poverty eradication; fostering environmental protection; protecting the vulnerable; and meeting the special needs of Africa.” One year later, from the declaration emerged eight goals, supported by 18 quantified and time-bound targets and 48 indicators, which became known as the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)” (World Bank, 2011a). Through the MDGs, the attempt of the world community was directed towards “achieving significant, measurable improvements in people's lives by the year 2015;” this informs the reason the progress of the goals is measured “not just for developing countries but for the rich countries that help fund development programmes and for the multilateral institutions that help countries implement them” (World Bank, 2011a).

The idea of MDGs was thus a response from world leaders to reduce poverty globally as the goals have poverty reduction at their core and they have a commitment to halve global poverty by 2015 (Willis, 2011; Greig, Hulme, and Turner, 2007). According to the UNMP (2005, pp. 2; 12; 263), the MDGs are “the most broadly supported comprehensive and specific poverty reduction targets the world has ever established”; “the fulcrum on which development policy is based”; a “linchpin to the quest for a more peaceful world” and a “mid-point en route to ending poverty within a generation.”

Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) of which Nigeria is part has a long history of poverty; the number of people living below US\$1 a day in the 1990s increased from 47.4 percent to 49 percent and as much as 77 percent of the people of the region within the same period survived on less than US\$2 a day (UNDESA, 2005). As at 2010, 48.5 percent (424.3 million people) of the people of the region were living below US\$1.25 while 69.9 percent (611.5 million people) were living below US\$2 (World Bank, 2011b). According to the FAO (2010), in 2010, 239 million people in SSA were either hungry or undernourished; the same year, the region had 30 percent of its population undernourished which does indicate that in that year, one in every three people of the region was hungry. Recent findings support this by showing that SSA's progress towards attaining the MDGs targets on poverty reduction by 2015 is slow; attainment of the MDGs thus remains a distant goal (UN, 2008a; 2009a; Easterly, 2009; McGillivray, 2008; Rispel and Nkibua, 2011). SSA "will be the only region with a sizable number of people in extreme poverty that fails to reach the target" (World Bank, 2010a, p. 4).

Nigeria, as its counterparts in SSA is at a major risk of not meeting the MDGs' targets, particularly the ones on poverty reduction. This is despite the fact that the country is well-endowed with natural resources as it is the sixth largest oil exporter and it has the eighth largest deposit of natural gas in the world (Ogunmola and Badmus, 2010; Soludo, 2006). Nigeria was among the world's 50 richest countries in the early 1970s but slumped to find itself among the 50 poorest countries in the world according to GDP per capita by 2012 (Igbuzor, 2006; UN, 2013; IMF, 2013). The introduction of Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) compounded the country's poverty problems in the late 1980s through the early 1990s; this had devastating consequences for social sectors such as education and health which served the public, as the failure of SAP to deliver on all it promises left both the state and the people worse off (Oladele,

2009). It has been claimed by authors and reports that Nigeria's progress towards attaining the MDGs' targets, particularly the ones on poverty reduction is slow and that it will be difficult for that country to meet the targets (*see 1.2 below and chapter two*).

In a nutshell, the importance of these goals cannot be overemphasized because if achieved, "these goals will profoundly change for the better the nature of life for half of the planet's population" Bertucci and Rosenbaum (2007, p. 7).

1.2 Statement of Problem

Recent findings by experts/reports suggest that based on the level of Nigeria's progress, the country has little realistic prospects of attaining the MDGs targets on poverty reduction; attaining the targets is not feasible and it is a daunting task (Ogege, 2012; Bello and Rosland, 2010; Essien and Usenobong, 2009; Chite, 2009; Ogunmola and Badmus, 2010; Alabi and Adams, 2011; OSSAP-MDGs, 2008; 2009; 2010a; NPC 2004a; 2007). According to the Nigeria Bureau of Statistics, the incidence of poverty is still very high in Nigeria, the proportion of people living in relative poverty in the country stood at around 42.7 percent in 1992; this rose to 54.4 percent in 2004 and to 69 percent in 2010 (NBS, 2005; 2012a). This figure was forecasted to rise to 71.5 percent in 2011 (NBS, 2012a) and 67.4 percent by 2015 (Bello and Roslan 2010). Also, the country had 54.7 percent of its population living in absolute poverty in 2004; this rose to 60.9 percent in 2010 and the figure was forecasted to rise to 61.9 percent by 2011 (NBS, 2012a). The proportion of people who were living below US\$1 per day in 2004 was 51.6 percent, this increased to 61.2 percent in 2010 (NBS 2012a). The figures captured by World Bank (2011c) confirm that as at 2004, 64.41 percent of Nigerians lived below US\$1.25 a day and this rose to 67.98 percent in 2010. It is further reported that 33.6 percent of Nigerians were food poor in 2004 and this increased to 41.0 percent in 2010 (NBS 2012a). If this trend of increase

continues, Nigeria or any part thereof is at a major risk of not attaining these MDGs' targets on poverty reduction. Going by the above (NBS, 2012a) figures which are the country's most complete poverty profile figures, Nigeria would need half the figures captured as its 2004 income and food poverty levels to meet the MDGs targets on halving of extreme poverty and hunger.

Using 2010 as the reference year, NBS (2012a) reports that in Nigeria's State of Jigawa, 74.2 percent of the state population was living below a dollar per day while 25.8 percent of them was living above a dollar per day; and with respect to hunger, 71.1 percent of the state population was reported to be food poor while 28.9 percent was reported to be food secure. Regarding absolute poverty, 74.1 percent of the state population was reported to be poor while 25.9 percent was reported to be non-poor and in relation to relative poverty, 79 percent of the state population was reported to be poor while 21 percent was reported to be non-poor (NBS, 2012a). During the same period, NBS (2012a) reports that in Nigeria's State of Osun, 38.1 percent of the state population was living below a dollar per day while 61.9 percent was living above a dollar per day and with respect to hunger, 19.5 percent of the state population was reported to be food poor while 80.5 percent was reported to be food non-poor and regarding absolute poverty, 37.9 percent of the state population was reported to be poor while 62.1 percent was reported to be non-poor. In terms of relative poverty, 47.5 percent of its population was reported to be poor while 52.5 percent was reported to be non-poor (NBS, 2012a).

It is indeed worrisome that the poverty figures captured by NBS (2012a) for Nigeria and its states including Osun and Jigawa based on a dollar per day which is the bedrock of the analysis of this research may not be accurate. The report claims to have adopted the World Bank 2002 Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) which placed US\$1 to be equivalent to ₦46.2 with further

adjustment to ₦59.2 for 2003 by using the Consumer Price Index (CPI) but puts the annual figures of a dollar per day poverty line it uses to arrive at the above figures for Nigeria and the states at ₦54,750 based on ₦150 to US\$1 at the international market exchange rate instead of ₦21,608 at the PPP exchange rate it should have been. Therefore, the figures may not be reliable. It is equally worrisome that the positions/claims of authors and reports on the progress of the MDGs targets on poverty reduction are not attributed to findings from any rigorous research that involves the collection of relevant primary data. Based on this two deficiencies, an academic investigation is required to verify the levels of income and food poverty, the determinants of extreme poverty and hunger and the chances of meeting the MDGs on reduction of extreme poverty and hunger in the country using both the international market and PPP exchange rates as yardsticks for measurement in specific study areas like Osun and Jigawa States (*see chapter four for the rationale for the choice of these states*).

1.3 Research Objectives

This study is committed to ascertaining/verifying the above positions/claims of authors/reports that the incidence of poverty is high in Nigeria and that the country's progress towards attaining the MDGs' targets on extreme poverty reduction is slow by using both the international market and PPP exchange rates as yardsticks for measurement. The research seeks to verify this by investigating the levels of income and food poverty and the determinants of extreme poverty and hunger in two study areas, to suggest whether or not the poverty reduction targets of the MDGs are attainable in these areas of Nigeria. The investigation is to be carried out in these study areas among family households and focus group discussants.

In summary, this research work aims to:

1. Explore the literature on the MDGs, concept of poverty, poverty in Nigeria, and the

progress of the MDGs in Nigeria with respect to poverty reduction.

2. Present the theories of development, theoretical explanations of the causes of poverty, and the general causes and consequences of poverty across the globe.
3. Investigate and analyze the socio-economic characteristics of the family households in the study areas.
4. Investigate and analyze the levels of income and food poverty in the study areas to assess the progress of the MDGs' targets on extreme poverty reduction in the areas.
5. Test and analyze the relationships among variables in the study areas to suggest the determinants of income and food poverty in the areas.
6. Suggest measures the study areas and Nigeria as a whole could take to further reduce the level of poverty so as to make further progress towards the attainment of MDGs' targets on extreme poverty reduction.

1.4 Research Questions and Research Hypotheses

1.4.1 Research Questions

The research seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the levels of income and food poverty in the study areas?
2. Which factors have association with income and food poverty in the study areas?
3. Is it likely the MDGs' targets on the reduction of extreme poverty and hunger will be met in the study areas?

1.4.2 Hypotheses

With reference to (5) under (1.3) above, this research tests six hypotheses which include testing if there are some levels of association between the gender of the family household head, age of the family household head, educational attainment of the family household head, and

employment status of the family household head, family household size and family household geographical location (dependent variables); and income and food poverty (independent variables). The Hypotheses tested by this research are listed in the table below in form of null and alternative hypotheses:

Table 1.1 Hypotheses

H ₀	There is no significant relationship between the gender of the family household head and income and food poverty
H ₁	There is significant relationship between the gender of the family household head and income and food poverty
H ₀	There is no significant relationship between the age of the family household head and income and food poverty
H ₁	There is significant relationship between the age of the family household head and income and food poverty
H ₀	There is no significant relationship between educational attainment of the family household head and income and food poverty
H ₁	There is significant relationship between educational attainment of the family household head and income and food poverty
H ₀	There is no significant relationship between employment status of the family household head and income and food poverty
H ₁	There is significant relationship between employment status of the family household head and income and food poverty
H ₀	There is no significant relationship between the family household size and income and food poverty
H ₁	There is significant relationship between the family household size and income and food poverty
H ₀	There is no significant relationship between the family household geographical location and income and food poverty
H ₁	There is significant relationship between the family household geographical location and income and food poverty

Source: Author

1.5 Focus, Coverage and Units of the Research

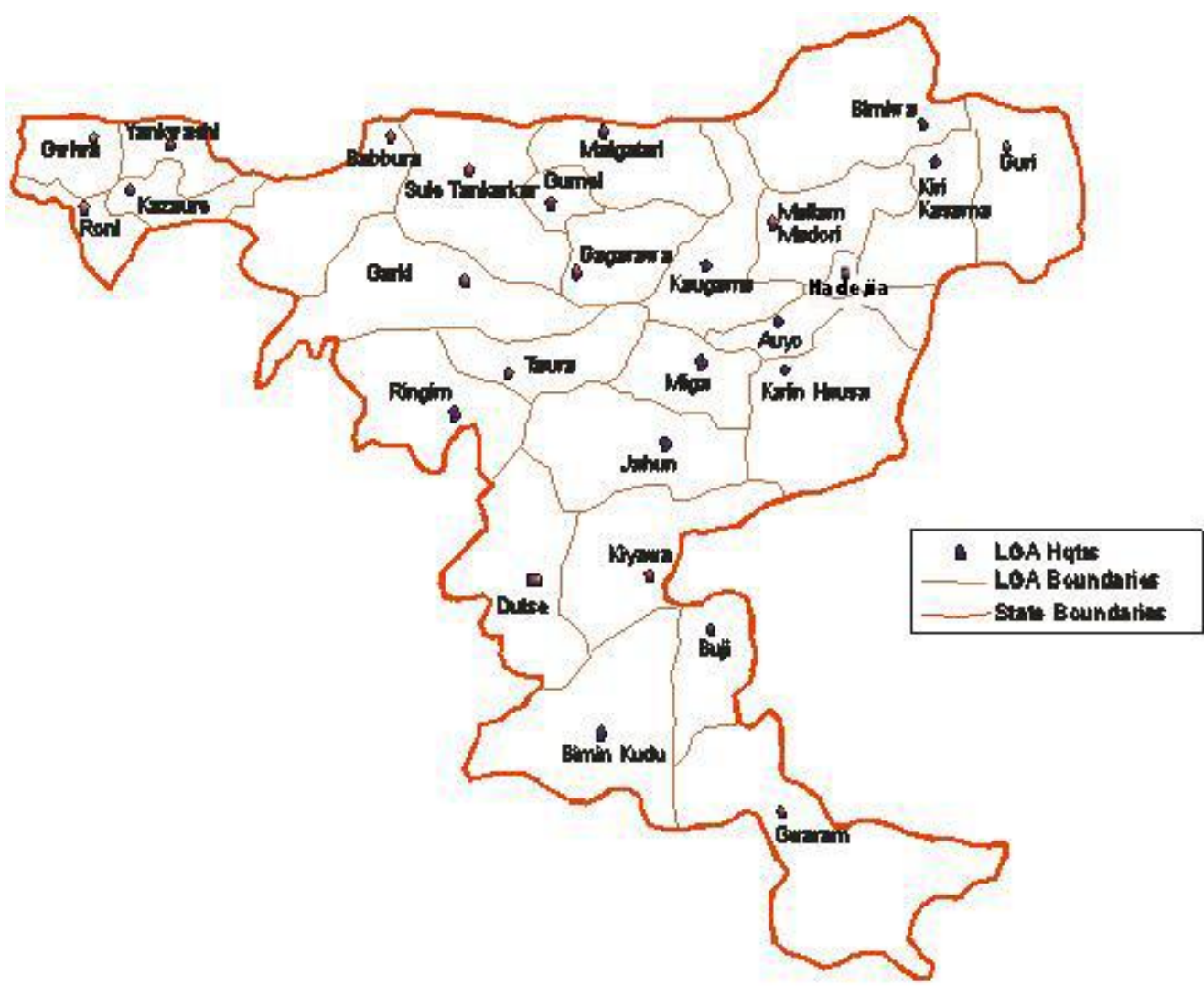
The focus of this research is on levels and determinants of income and food poverty in the study areas to assess their levels of progress towards meeting the targets of the first MDG (eradicate extreme poverty and hunger), based on two of its targets which are (a) halving the proportion of people living on less than US\$1.25 a day and (b) halving the proportion of people who suffer from hunger. The research uses two indicators for its investigation. The indicators

used are (i) proportion of population below US\$1.25 per day and (ii) proportion of population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption. The study covers two states in Nigeria namely Jigawa and Osun States and the units of analysis of the study are the individual and the family household.

1.6 Brief Profiles of the Study Areas of the Research

1.6.1 Jigawa State

Fig 1.1 Map of Jigawa State



Source: jigawastate.gov.ng

Jigawa State is an inland state located in the north-western geographical zone of Nigeria. The state has a total population of 4,361,002 (2,198,076 males and 2,162,926 females), ranking it 8th of Nigeria's 36 states in terms of population size; its people are mainly farmers, others engage in livestock production, trading, artisanship and some others work in both the public and civil service. It covers a total of 23,154 km², which is, 8,490 sq miles in land mass, ranking it 18th of Nigeria's 36 states in terms of land mass (NpoC, 2006); bordered in the north by the Zinder Region located in a neighbouring country, Niger Republic; bordered in the northeast by both Yobe State; bordered in the east by Bauchi State and bordered in the west by Kano and Katsina States. The state was created by the military regime of General Ibrahim Babangida on the 27th day of August, 1991, having carved it out from the old Kano State. In 2007, the state was reported to have a total GDP (PPP) of US\$2.99 billion and per capita of US\$673 (C-GIDD, 2012). Jigawa State's capital is Dutse and it has a total of 27 Local Government Areas (LGAs) namely: Auyo, Babura, Birni Kudu, Biriniwa, Buji (Gantsa), Dutse, Gagarawa, Garki, Gumel, Guri, Gwaram, Gwiwa, Hadejia, Jahun, Kafin Hausa, Kaugama, Kazaure, Kiri Kasamma, Kiyawa, Maigatari, Malam Madori, Miga, Ringim, Roni, Sule-Tankarkar, Taura, Yankwashi (Lawson 2010; FRN 1999; Jigawa State Government, 2012).

1.6.2 Osun State

Osun State is an inland state located in the south-western geographical zone of Nigeria. The State has a total population of 3,416,959 (1,734,149 males and 1,682,810 females), ranking it 19th of Nigeria's 36 states in terms population size NpoC (2006); its people are mainly traders, artisans and farmers while some others are public and civil servants. It covers a total of 9,251 km², which is, 3572 sq miles in land mass, ranking it 28th of Nigeria's 36 states in terms of land mass; bordered in the north by Kwara State; bordered in the east by both Ekiti and Ondo

States; bordered in the south by Ogun State and bordered in the west by Oyo State. The state was created by the military regime of General Ibrahim Babangida on the 27th day of August, 1991, having carved it out from the old Oyo State (Osun State Government, 2012). In 2007, the state was reported to have a total GDP (PPP) of US\$7.28 billion and per capita of US\$2,076 (C-GIDD, 2012).

Fig 1.2 Map of Osun State



Source: onewsportal.com

Osun State's capital is Osogbo and it has a total of 30 LGAs namely: Aiyedaade (Gbongan), Aiyedire (Ile Ogbo), Atakunmosa East (Iperindo), Atakunmosa West (Osu), Boluwaduro (Otan-Ayegbaju), Boriye (Iragbiji), Ede North (Oja Timi), Ede South (Ede), Egbedore (Awo), Ejigbo (Ejigbo), Ife Central (Ile-Ife), Ife East (Oke-Ogbo), Ife North (Ipetumodu), Ife South (Ifetedo), Ifedayo (Oke-Ila Orangun), Ifelodun (Ikirun), Ila (Ila Orangun), Ilesa East (Ilesa), Ilesa West (Ereja Square), Irepodun (Ilobu), Irewole (Ikire), Isokan (Apomu), Iwo (Iwo), Obokun (Ibokun), Odo Otin (Okuku), Ola Oluwa (Bode Osi),

Olorunda (Igbonna, Osogbo), Oriade (Ijebu-Jesa), Orolu (Ifon-Osun), and Osogbo (Osogbo) (Lawson, 2010; FRN, 1999; Osun State Government, 2012).

1.7 Justification for the Research

Since the commencement of the implementation of the MDGs' targets on extreme poverty more than a decade ago, efforts are been made by Nigeria to meet these targets. In view of this, this research is justified because there is need for a research to be conducted on the level of poverty in Nigeria's specific areas to assess such areas' chances of meeting the MDGs targets on poverty reduction based on their progress level. Such a research is necessary at this material time because in recent times, there have not been much academic activities focused on the progress of Nigeria's specific areas towards the attainment of the MDGs' targets on extreme poverty reduction, and there have not been any academic activities that have researched this with specific reference to 'halving the proportion of people living on less than US\$1.25 a day' and 'halving the proportion of people who suffer from hunger.' The aforementioned points justify this study as it is set to provide new findings following the verification of the existing findings whose claims are that the incidence of poverty in Nigeria is high and that the country will be unable to meet the MDGs' targets, particularly, the ones on the reduction of extreme poverty.

1.8 Structure of the Thesis

The first chapter, *Introduction* presents the general introduction to the thesis. It introduces the background to the research, states the problem statement, the objectives of the research, the research hypotheses, the focus and coverage of the research, the profiles of the study areas, the justification of the research, and the structure of the thesis. The second chapter, *Literature Review* is concerned with the review of extant literature on poverty, the general causes and consequences of poverty across the globe and poverty in Nigeria. The third chapter,

Development and Millennium Development Goals presents detailed accounts of theories of development and the MDGs. The fourth chapter, *Research Methodology* describes the research method employed by the research and the data analysis techniques used by the research. The fifth chapter, *Data Analysis and Discussion* analyzes the collected data to identify determinants of extreme poverty and hunger and the levels of income and food poverty in the study areas of the research to assess such areas' progress towards attaining the MDGs' targets on extreme poverty reduction; the chapter further explains the analyzed data. The chapter also discusses the interpretation of the analyzed data by linking them to the positions/claims and findings of authors/reports captured in both the chapters two and three of the thesis. The sixth chapter *Conclusion and Agenda for Further Research* includes the summary of the entire research, recommendations regarding measures the Study Areas and Nigeria could take to increase its prospects of reducing poverty and meeting the MDGs targets on extreme poverty reduction; also, the chapter includes the contribution of the research to knowledge and agenda for further research.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to review the literature on the description of poverty and the poor, different approaches to poverty; theoretical explanations of the causes of poverty; major causes and consequences of poverty across the globe; poverty in Nigeria; percentages of the income poor; the food poor and the population living in poverty in Nigeria; major determinants of poverty in Nigeria; and the poverty reduction strategies in Nigeria.

2.2 Poverty

2.2.1 Brief Description of Poverty and the Poor

Across the globe, the prevailing intensity of the incidence of poverty is mainly the reason the issue of poverty is a crucial one; it is a problem that is global in its various dimensions and it is not peculiar to only the developing countries. According to Lewis (1961), poverty is an adaptation to a set of objective conditions of the larger society, but as soon as it comes into being, it seemingly eternalizes itself from one generation to the other owing to its effect on children. The recognized or general comprehension of the poverty line is incomparably higher in developed nations than in developing nations (Hagenaars and de Vos, 1988; Hagenaars and van Praag, 1985). In other words, “poverty is not confined to developing countries and societies in transition, it is a global phenomenon experienced in varying degrees by all states” (UN, 2001a, p. 4). According to Duze, Mohammed and Kiyawa (2008, p. vii), “poverty is the most serious problem which adversely affects sustainable development in the developing world.” According to Make Poverty History – Canada (2010), poverty kills more than 50,000 people every day and up to 18 million poor people die every year from extreme poverty; these account for 1/3 of all human deaths and this clarifies that more people die as a result of extreme poverty than of any

other cause (WHO, 2004a). The nature of poverty makes it possible for comparisons to exist; three decisions exist in poverty comparisons which include: “choice of a welfare measure; choice of a poverty line and choice of a poverty index for aggregation” (Appleton, 1998, p. 1; Appleton, et al., 1999, p. 1). Poverty as an indicator follows on from the development-as-growth paradigm: “the poor” are the targets of development because they lack economic resources (Pieterse, 2010).

Those who live in poverty are referred to as the poor; the poor are those without fundamental freedom of action and choice, who are easily exposed to external and uncontrollable events such as violence, bad weather, illness, economic shocks and natural disasters. They are “the victims of corruption and arbitrariness created by the state” (World Bank, 2000a, p. 1). Those who are in poverty “experience physical pain that comes with too little food and long hours of work; emotional pain stemming from the daily humiliations of dependency and lack of power; and the moral pain of being forced to make choices” (Narayan, et al., 2000, p. 3). In most developing countries, the poor “are often rural people from low status backgrounds, they may have little access to formal employment and hence lower returns to education;” in general terms, “a number of common ('Victorian') attitudes to the poor view them as less intelligent and less industrious, so that any assets they have — such as land — will tend to have lower returns” (Appleton, 1995, p. 5). The poor themselves are concerned about the heightening rate of poverty particularly in Africa and generally in the Third World nations, so also are “the policy makers, scholars (local and international), state and non-state actors, including NGOs and social groups” (Duze, Mohammed and Kiyawa (2008, ix). According to the UNDP (2009a), there are more than 100 countries globally where several millions of people live under US\$1.25 and US\$2 a day. More than 3 billion people who represent more than half of the population of the world live on less than US\$2.50 a day (Shah, 2010); as at 2005, 1.40 billion people live on less than US\$1.25 a

day, and 2.60 billion live on less than US\$2 a day. Moreover, 5.05 billion people (more than 80 percent of the world population) live on less than US\$10 a day (World Bank, 2008a).

Poverty is multidimensional, that is, it has different aspects and as a result cannot be captured by a single definition. In other words, a universally acceptable definition of poverty remains elusive; this may not be unconnected with an incontrovertible fact that it is more easily recognized than defined. As a result of this, an ideal way to define poverty may therefore rest in looking at the concept from different approaches.

2.2.2 Approaches to Poverty

2.2.2.1 Income Approach

In the 1964 Joint Economic Committee Report on the Economic Report of the President with Minority and Additional Views, it is stated that “no objective definition of poverty exists” and that its “definition varies from place to place and time to time” (US Congress, 1964, p. 46). This suggests that poverty is multidimensional and may be defined in different ways from different approaches. Poverty can be defined using the income-based approach. Going by this approach, poverty can either be absolute or relative. The origin of the concept of absolute poverty has commonly been linked to the work of Seebohm Rowntree in 1901. In the work, he investigated the level of poverty in York by talking to working class and poor people in the area to find out what their money were expended on, as he saw poverty in terms of “families whose total earnings are insufficient to obtain the minimum necessities for the maintenance of merely physical efficiency” (Rowntree, 1901, p. 86). Thus, his work revolves around shelter, clothing and quality and amount of food needed for a healthy life. Absolute poverty according to UN (1995, p. 41) is “a condition characterized by severe deprivation of basic human needs, including food, safe drinking water, sanitation facilities, health, shelter, education and information. It

depends not only on income but also on access to services.” Todaro and Smith (2008, p. 815) defines absolute poverty as “a situation where a population or section of the population is, at most able to meet only its bare subsistence essentials of food, clothing and shelter in order to maintain minimum standards of living.” It involves “lack of sufficient income for people to play the roles, participate in the relationships, and follow the customary behaviour which is expected of them by virtue of their membership in society” (Townsend, 1979, p. 10). The definition of absolute poverty is characterized by an acute division of the income status of the poor against the non-poor, and centralization of the acceptance of income or consumption in the comprehension of the poverty concept (Ghellini, Pannuzi and Stanghellini, 1995).

Absolute poverty has been criticized by Marx and Van Den Bosch (2007) on the basis that its way of defining poverty has a colouration of relative poverty. This is in line with the position of Townsend (1979, p. 38) which sees the definitions of absolute poverty as representing “rather narrow conceptions of relative deprivation in practice.” Absolute poverty has also been criticized on another grounds by Walker (1990) who states that there exists no absolute criteria of measuring poverty, therefore, an objective measurement of poverty is basically impossible; that the absolute poverty approach is characterized by a high level of simplicity and inflexibility as there is a question mark in its assumption that all people in all societies have basic needs, thereby failing to recognize that there is variation in the needs of different societies; that defining what adequate provision should be is problematic as it is continually being amended, thereby making comparison impossible and an establishment of an agreed poverty line cumbersome when cultural needs are included in the concept of absolute poverty; and that absolute definition of poverty fails to recognize that the general determinant of diet and lifestyles is social convention and not expert judgment, which seemingly lords over the poor by introducing to them a different

life from that of the rest of the society. These criticisms notwithstanding, Sen (1983) defends the idea of absolute poverty on the basis of human capabilities from which angle he argues that poverty has an absolute image which may though in terms of commodities or incomes be relative. It follows that no matter the level of relativities, as long as there is starvation and malnutrition, then, there is poverty.

Absolute poverty is measured by quantifying the number of people below a fixed real poverty threshold or poverty line; poverty threshold itself is the “minimum level of income deemed necessary to achieve an adequate standard of living” in a given country (Monnier, 2009; Ravallion, 1992). Absolute poverty is thus specified as the line below human existence being an issue comprising hunger, intense deprivation, suffering, and even premature death (Schwartzman, 1998). Normally, the poverty line is determined by finding the total cost of all the essential resources that an average human adult consumes in one year (Ravallion, 2008). Regarding poverty line, the World Bank opted for a method under which all individuals could be equally assessed on the basis of one threshold of real consumption rather than treating poverty as a relative concept through the acceptance of the national poverty lines (Ravallion, 2002). In 1990, international poverty line was set by the World Bank at US\$1 a day per person at 1985 PPP, that is, at Purchasing-Power Parity based on 1985 prices. Purchasing power parity (PPP) is defined by the World Bank as “a method of measuring the relative purchasing power of different countries’ currencies over the same types of goods and services. Because goods and services may cost more in one country than in another, PPP allows us to make more accurate comparisons of standards of living across countries” (WHO, 2001; Teichman, 2012). According to Ravallion (2002, p. 1), the US\$1 international poverty line has been chosen by the World Bank since the 1990 World Development Report to “measure global poverty by the standards of

what poverty means in poor countries.” In 2000, the international poverty line was adjusted by the World Bank to US\$1.08 a day per person at 1993 PPP, and in 2008, it was revised to US\$1.25 a day per person at 2005 PPP (Chen and Ravallion 2000; Ravallion, Chen, and Sangraula, 2009).

As for relative poverty, it is very important in finding out the rates of poverty in the richer countries of the world because the problem of poverty in these countries is that of relative poverty (Bradshaw, et al., 2012); international bodies such as the OECD, EU, United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), and the United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF) use the relative poverty measure as it mirrors the price of social inclusion and egalitarianism of opportunity in particular space and time (Dennis, 2009; Marx and Botch, n.d; Bradshaw, et al., 2012). In the OECD and the EU, the major poverty line used is hinged on a level of income set at 60% of the median household income (Blastland, 2009). According to Giddens (2009), poverty is relative when it is defined with reference to the overall standard of living in a given society. With this description, it follows that “poverty has to be seen in terms of the standard of living of the society in question” (Callan and Nolan, 1991, p. 252). Relative poverty thus refers to a standard of living or stratum of income that is amply high to meet essential needs such as food, water, shelter, clothing, basic education, and basic health care but with a clause that the standard of living is still greatly lower than that of most of the population under consideration. Relative poverty can thus be measured by defining it as being below some relative poverty threshold.

In history, a number of arguments have aligned with the meaning of relative poverty; this include Smith (1776) who sees poverty as an inability to afford necessities which he understands to refer to “not only the commodities which are indispensably necessary for the support of life, but whatever the custom of the country renders it indecent for creditable people, even of the

lowest order, to be without” (p. 519); Galbraith (1958) who states that “people are poverty stricken when their income, even if adequate for survival, falls markedly behind that of their community” (p. 252); Friedman (1965) who supports the use of relative poverty on the basis that general living standards determines how the definition of poverty changes as those who are classified as poor in a particular year would have had a standard of living that was higher than those classified as non-poor years earlier; Townsend (1979) who argues that "individuals, families, and groups in a population can be said to be in poverty when they lack the resources to obtain the types of diet, participate in the activities and have the living conditions and amenities which are customary, or are at least widely encouraged or approved, in the societies to which they belong” (p. 31); and Clan, Nolan Whelan (1993) that see poverty from the perspective of standard of living of the society in question. It can be inferred from all these arguments that poverty can only be conceptually understood as relative.

Criticisms of relative poverty are discussed by Marx and Van Den Bosch (2007). Relative poverty is said to be problematic on the ground that its “measure is in effect an (imperfect) inequality index,” implying that sometimes, “some level of relative income poverty is inevitable if we accept that incomes are not perfectly equally distributed” (p. 3). They believe that relative poverty defers from income inequality on the premise that “a country with a high degree of overall income inequality can theoretically have zero relative poverty if the redistributive mechanisms are in place to truncate the income distribution below the relative poverty line” and that “the redistributive effort that would be required to truncate the distribution at a much used relative threshold like 50 percent of median equivalent income is in fact a fraction of the actual redistributive flows that take place in most countries” (p. 3). They further discuss that relative poverty is problematic because “it precludes the possible existence of absolute or primary

poverty as this is conventionally understood” and because “it is not a good indicator of the extent of deprivation and disadvantage in any given society” (pp. 1, 3). For relative poverty to be more meaningful, they suggest that “it should perhaps be reinterpreted as a measure of relative low income, rather than as an indicator of poverty in any substantive sense” so as to be relevant in showing “the extent to which societies in general and welfare states in particular manage to prevent persons from having a material standard of living that is far below the average one” (p. 10).

2.2.2.2 Basic Needs Approach

According to (Wong, 2012, p. 4), the basic needs approach to poverty “has a relatively long history and it became widely discussed and practised in late 1970s. It was specifically introduced at the World Employment Conference of the ILO in 1976 where the satisfaction of basic human needs was proposed as the paramount aim of development policy at both national and international levels (Jolly, 1976). Along this line, Streeten and Burki (1978, p. 412) states that “the purpose of development is to raise the sustainable level of living of the masses of poor people as rapidly as is feasible and to provide all human beings with the opportunity to develop their full potential.” The basic needs approach to poverty “defines poverty as the deprivation of requirements, mainly material for meeting basic human needs,” taking the income approach a step further (Lok-Dessallien, 1999, p. 11). It thus refers not only to minimum level of consumption of basic needs which traditionally include food, shelter, and clothing but also to different available basic services such as water, sanitation, health care, education, public transport, cultural facilities (Wiman, 2012). According to Wong (2012), this approach works by assessing whether or not people have adequate access to this bundle of basic consumption and thus follows that achievement of subsistence and living decent lives is attached to increasing access of the poor to basic consumptions. Wong goes ahead to explain that it has been argued

that there exist no universally agreed-upon bundle of basic consumption and that going by the fact that this bundle changes over time, there is need for it to be regularly reassessed at the grassroot level. Lok-Dessallien (1999) explains that the indicators of the basic needs approach such as food, shelter, clothing and so on are usually categorized as means but these indicators are occasionally categorized as their indirect ends because they are a step nearer to outcomes than income measures. Lok-Dessallien goes ahead to state that these indicators have advantage over the income measures because “they measure goods and services directly in terms of human welfare;” and they are disadvantageous because “there is no way of aggregating them meaningfully for purposes of in-country analysis and they are usually expressed in terms that do not trigger the same kind of familiarity as monetary ones” (p. 11). Indeed, there exists a connection between deprivation and poverty. Corroborating this, Gordon, et al. (2003, p. 6) states that “deprivation covers the various conditions, independent of income, experienced by people who are poor,” which can be material, social and psychological whereas “poverty refers to the lack of income and other resources which make those conditions inescapable or at least highly likely.”

The basic needs approach has been criticized on a number of grounds. Ghai (1978) states that the basic needs approach has been criticized on the ground that it is deficient of scientific rigour; it is basically consumption-oriented and thereby antagonistic to growth and it is a method of bolstering economic backwardness creating an impression that eliminating poverty is indeed very easy. Corroborating this, Wong (2012) agrees that the approach is defective because of its consumption-based view arguing that too much emphasis is placed on material deprivation by the approach thereby overstating the monetary aspects (as the poverty line is defined as the amount of income required to meet the basic needs), and disconnecting poverty from aspirations

and values. Wong emphasizes that people's choice will be crippled which will result in a biased measurement for poverty if the bundle of consumption is not at all time assessed at the individual level. Wong (2012) further criticizes the basic needs approach to poverty on the ground that "the constituents of the consumption bundle are arbitrarily decided by a few professionals" and that the approach "assumes that each and every good in the predefined consumption bundle are equally needed by everyone," thereby disregarding an incontrovertible fact that there are variations in values people attached to different needs and that by nature, needs are hierarchical. Wong also criticizes this approach arguing that it "falsely assumes that the consumption bundle enjoys stable price or supply (given infrequent review of the bundle)" whereas the reality is that people do "experience fluctuating and unpredictable prices (or access) for basic consumptions" (pp. 5-6). This criticisms notwithstanding, the basic needs approach is advantageous because operationalizing it is easy through the comparison of "the accessibility of the basic need bundle at different time and space" by which the patterns of poverty can be effectively acquired (Wong, 2012, p. 4).

2.2.2.3 Capability Approach

Capability approach came to light in the 1980s and it largely influenced the evolution of the Human Development Report series of the UN. The approach recreated the concept of poverty by linking it to the human development discourse in a broader sense. According to the pioneer of this approach, Amartya Sen, whose proposition revolve around conceptualizing poverty in terms of capabilities emphasizes that development should not be viewed as the maximisation of utility or money income, which is its proxy but rather as the expansion of human capabilities (Sen, 1985; 1999). This approach defines poverty as the "failure to achieve certain minimal or basic capabilities" (Ruggeri, Laderchi, and Stewart, 2006, pp. 9-10). Over time, the term *basic*

capabilities has changed in the literature thereby causing some confusion. The first mention of this term by Amartya Sen was in his 1980 Tanner Lecture on Human Value titled “Equality of what?” In this lecture, Sen explains basic capabilities to refer to “a person being able to do certain basic things. The ability to move about is the relevant one here, but one can consider others, e.g., the ability to meet one’s nutritional requirements, the wherewithal to be clothed and sheltered, and the power to participate in the social life of the community.” This term is used differently by Nussbaum (2000, p. 84) who sees it as “the innate equipment of individuals that is necessary for developing the more advanced capabilities” which in practical sense involves such capability as that of speech and language which a newly born child has with him/her from birth but which only needs to be nurtured. As a result of such confusion, Sen replaces the term *basic capabilities* with *capabilities* in his subsequent works where basic capabilities is defined from an angle of seeing it as a threshold level for the relevant capabilities. This new conceptualization of the term is an indication that it is “not so much in ranking living standards, but in deciding on a cut-off point for the purpose of assessing poverty and deprivation” (Sen, 1987, p. 109). In a subsequent work, Sen refers to basic capabilities as “the ability to satisfy certain elementary and crucially important functionings up to certain levels” (Sen, 1992, p. 45). In another, he refers to it as “the ability to satisfy certain crucially important functionings up to certain minimally adequate levels” (Sen, 1993, p. 41). These basic capabilities are not static, they vary “from such elementary physical ones as being well nourished, being adequately clothed and sheltered, avoiding preventable morbidity, and so forth, to more complex social achievements such as taking part in the life of the community, being able to appear in public without shame, and so on” (Sen, 1995, p. 15).

Capability approach “rejects monetary income as its measure of well-being, and instead focuses on indicators of the freedom to live a valued life” (Ruggeri, Laderchi and Stewart, 2006, pp. 9-10. While the monetary approach recognizes increased income as instrumental to the attainment of valued functionings, the capability approach is about the “actual opportunities a person has,” that is, his/her capabilities (possibly achievable) and functionings (achieved values) (Sen, 2009, p. 253; Oosterlaken, 2009; Robeyns, 2005). This does not mean that Sen does not see a relationship between lack or lowness of income and a high level of poverty. According to him, a “lack of income can be a principal reason for a person’s capability deprivation” and “a strong predisposing condition for an impoverished life” (Sen, 1999, p. 87). Also, Sen’s capability approach deviates from the basic needs approach because its philosophical foundation is based on an assertion that “people should have equal freedom to choose their valued ways of life rather than achieving minimum subsistence; because it defines poverty as a “deprivations of opportunities” rather than that of consumptions; and because poverty can be reduced via “equal opportunity to make choices” rather than ensuring “adequate access to consumptions” Wong (2012, p. 10).

Basically, the capability approach has two fundamental elements which are functionings and freedom. Sen (1999, p. 75) refers to functionings as “the various things a person may value doing or being,” meaning that human living can be said to involve a set of interrelated functionings. Sen (1992) emphasizes that functionings are central to a proper comprehension of the capability approach because capability “represents the various combinations of functionings (beings and doings) that the person can achieve” (p. 40); and as a result, capability is analyzed as an idea that involves the liberty of achieving valuable functionings. According to Robeyns (2011), examples of functionings that capture various things a person may value being include

“being well-nourished, being undernourished, being housed in a pleasantly warm but not excessively hot house, being educated, being illiterate, being part of a supportive social network, being part of a criminal network, and being depressed;” and examples of functionings that capture various things a person may value doing include “travelling, caring for a child, voting in an election, taking part in a debate, taking drugs, killing animals, eating animals, consuming lots of fuel in order to heat one's house, and donating money to charity.” Wells (2012) throws more light on functionings by using Sen’s example of a standard bicycle as a source of explanation. He states that the bicycle “has the characteristics of transportation but whether it will actually provide transportation will depend on the characteristics of those who try to use it” and that it “might be considered a generally useful tool for most people to extend their mobility, but it obviously will not do that for a person without legs.” He states further that even if this person without legs, by some delusion, sees the bicycle as charming, this person still lacks transportation, and this person’s mental reaction does not prove that if transportation by this bicycle was available to him/her, it would not be appreciated. Therefore, functionings “should be distinguished from the commodities employed to achieve them (as bicycling is distinguishable from possessing a bike),” Wells concludes. As for the freedom element of the capability approach, Sen (1999, p. 92) discusses poverty with reference to “the lives people can actually lead and the freedoms they do actually have.” Freedom, according to him is “a principle determinant of individual initiative and social effectiveness; it is good primarily because it enhances the ability of individuals to help themselves” (Sen, 1999, p. 19). In the analysis of Sen (1999), the idea of freedom is exemplified by a rich man who chooses to fast against a man whose hunger situation is as a result of lack of resources. Truly, these two men have been able to achieve same functioning, but what makes the difference is that the former has not got the same

capabilities set as the latter, which indicates that in terms of realization of freedom, these two men may not be seen to be at par. According to Sen (1999, p.76), “fasting is not the same thing as starving,” and having the option of eating makes fasting what it is, to wit, choosing not to eat when one could have eaten.” Sen (1999) lists five fundamental freedoms that are instrumental to leading the kind of life a person values and which by extension make positive freedom possible to include political freedom which refers to “the opportunities that people have to determine who should govern and on what principles, and also includes the possibility to scrutinize and criticize authorities, to have freedom of political expression and an uncensored press, to enjoy the freedom to choose between different political parties, and so on” (p. 38); economic facilities which refers to “the opportunity to enjoy and utilize resources for consumption, production and exchange (p. 39); social opportunities which refers to “the right to enjoy healthier, more educated, and more fulfilled lives” (p. 39); transparency guarantees which refers to “the ability to live under the assurance that disclosure and lucidity are normative elements of society” (p. 39); and protective security which refers to “the chance to exist in a society dedicated to preventing its citizens from experiencing hopelessness” (p. 40).

Sen’s capability approach does not develop any list of capabilities. (Sen, 1992; 1999) emphasize that having a basic list of capabilities as a focal point is a value judgement that is to be clearly made through a process of public debate in most cases. In support of this, Sen (1993, p. 47; 1999, p. 283) emphasize that the use of the capability approach does not require taking a single route as “the deliberate incompleteness of the capability approach permits other routes to be taken which also have some plausibility and also that “there is no substitute for individual responsibility.” Connected to this is an argument that “the capability approach considers people one by one, not as parts of an organic unit; it is very interested in seeing how a supposed organic

unit such as the family has constructed unequal capabilities for various types of functionings” (Nussbaum, 1999, p. 34). This suggests that from one country to another, the list of capabilities needed by an individual to escape poverty is not the same. Alkire (2002) commends Sen’s deliberate incompleteness, arguing that a list of capabilities “may be tremendously overspecified;” and that theoretically, it is “consistent and combinable with several different substantive theories” which may on a balance of probabilities make it a subject of public debate (p. 29). Sen’s approach has been criticized for a number of reasons. According to Wells (2012), Sen’s approach has been criticized based on its focus which revolves around people’s ability to achieve the kind of lives they have reason to value, arguing that this appears as an imposition of an external valuation of the good life, whatever people may actually value, which makes it problematic. Wells further says that Sen’s approach has been criticized based on the premise that the approach’s content and structure are under-theorised which does not make it suitable as a theory of justice, and on the premise that Sen fails to make clarifications as to the level of importance of capabilities and the manner by which they are to be distributed. Another criticism is based on the ground that the individualism aspect of Sen’s approach is too individualistic as it shows no interest in communal values which people’s ways of life are characterized by (Wells, 2012). The emphasis of Sen’s approach on individual freedom looks so vague as it fails to put into consideration the relationship between freedoms of individuals, and fails to point out freedoms that are either good or bad, or that are either important or trivial (Nussbaum, 2003).

Another proponent of the capability approach, Martha Nussbaum is in agreement with Sen on his propositions such as the role of freedom in development process and the measurement of the successes of development programmes with the individual being the main unit but defers in the aspect of the definition of capabilities threshold in form of a list to be met to attain a level of

human dignity to be secured by individuals. Nussbaum (2000) argues that the absence of a list of capabilities in Sen's approach does not make it as relevant as it should be and not as useful for interpersonal comparisons as it should be; and does not constitute an objective normative framework. Corroborating Nussbaum's position, Qizilbash (1996, p. 1212) states that "Sen fails to give a list of capabilities, or functionings, associated with human flourishing, a complete account of interpersonal comparison" which makes his approach incommensurable. In order to define the capabilities threshold which Sen's approach fails to do, Nussbaum (2000) composes a list of universal capabilities which is "a basis for determining a decent social minimum in a variety of areas" (p. 75). According to her, the list represents a "freestanding moral core of a political conception" and is not committed to accepting "any particular metaphysical view of the world, any particular comprehensive ethical or religious view, or even any particular view of the person or of human nature" (p. 76). Nussbaum's list include life (not dying prematurely); bodily health (having good health, including reproductive health, being adequately nourished, and having shelter); bodily integrity (having freedom of movement, protection from assault, having opportunities for sexual gratification, and choice in reproductive matters); senses, imagination, and thought (having the ability to use the senses to think and reason, cultivated by an adequate education which is protected by basic freedoms); emotions (having freedom to love, grieve, experience longing, gratitude, and justified anger, and having freedom one's emotional developing blighted by fear or anxiety); practical reason (having freedom to form a personal conception of the good and to critically engage in planning of one's own life); affiliation (being able to live for and in relation to others, engage in various personally determined social interactions, and having freedom from humiliation and all forms of discrimination); other species (being able to live with and interact freely with the world of nature); play (being able to laugh,

play, and enjoy recreational activities); and control over one's environment (having fundamental political and economic rights which guarantees political participation, ownership of property, and equal opportunity of employment) (Nussbaum, 1999, pp. 41-42). In a nutshell, Nussbaum is particular about getting those who are in poverty out of it to a minimum threshold level. In support of this, she asserts that "we may reasonably defer questions about what we shall do when all citizens are above the threshold, given that this already imposes a taxing and nowhere-realized standard" (Nussbaum 2000, p. 12). Nussbaum's approach has not been free from criticism just as Sen's. Okin (2003) criticizes her approach on the ground that there are basically no changes in her list despite her long years of cross-cultural discourse which has made it remain her same original list which is the Aristotelian one, this puts the epistemological basis of Nussbaum's approach into question. One other criticism of her approach comes from Alkire (2005) who argues that in her list, some vital capabilities are missed out which does not make it useful in a number of aspects such as the quality of life measurement or development fieldwork, this questions the legal-moral-philosophical orientation of her approach.

2.2.2.4 Participatory Approach to Poverty

Participatory approach to poverty is differentiated from the above three because it practically involves poor people and groups themselves in the articulation of what poverty means for them. In other words, "there is an emphasis on paying attention to feeling and understanding of poor people. Hence, this approach encourages the field studies including being among the poor to get more information, to deeply understand poverty and also to respect their information and knowledge" (Dini and Lippit, 2009, p. 11). The original intention of participatory approaches was to deal with small community-based projects, but the approaches were later scaled up by the World Bank and used as an approach to poverty and the part of other and wider

approaches (Riddell, 2004). This development was a response to the ubiquitous criticisms of the 1990s neoliberal policies of SAP which were altogether claimed to have left the poor poorer during that period, and did lead to the Consultations with the Poor which was “the first large scale comparative research effort using participatory methods to focus on the voices of the poor” and also “the first time that the World Development Report is drawing on participatory research in a systematic fashion” (Walton and Kanbur, 1999, p. 1). The consultations resulted in the publication of *Can Anyone Hear Us? Voices from 47 Countries* by Deepa Narayan and others in 1999; the design of the consultations was in form of a response to the challenge of how the “voices of the poor, their experiences, priorities, reflections and recommendations could be incorporated” in the 2000/01 World Development Report on poverty and development (Narayan, 1999, et al., p. 1). This indicates that “like capability approaches, participatory approaches focus on ways to empower poor people to enable them better to make and influence decisions which affect their well-being” (Rendell, 2004, p. 6).

The main part of this approach is the Participatory Poverty Assessments (PPAs) which has been referred to as “a family of approaches and methods to enable local (rural and urban) people to express, enhance, share and analyze their knowledge of life and conditions, to plan and to act” (Chambers, 1994, p. 1253) or as “an instrument for including poor people’s views in the analysis of poverty and the formulation of strategies to reduce it through public policy” (Norton, et al., 2001, p. 6). The term ‘Participatory Poverty Assessment’ which was originally used to refer to “a field based research exercise designed to contribute to country poverty assessments” was framed from within the World Bank in 1992 at a “point staff in the World Bank were developing approaches to meet the request from the Bank’s Board that Country Poverty Assessments be carried out in all borrower countries” (Norton, et al., 2001, p. 7). According to Sumner and Tribe

(2008, p. 110), “PPAs typically involve purposeful sampling, open interviews, participant observation or focus group discussions and yield non-numerical qualitative data which are not subject to statistical analysis.” They “are processes designed to influence policy, not merely data collection exercises, and this feature of their purpose sets them apart from household survey instruments” (Appleton and Booth, 2005, p. 126), because they “attempt to understand poverty dimensions within the social, cultural, economic and political environment of a locality” (Booth, et al., 1998, p. 52), thereby providing a multidimensional view of poverty. According to Norton, et al. (2001), the very first generation of PPAs “were small-scale research exercises designed to complement the survey data used to produce poverty assessments, ” and they did demonstrate “the potential of the approach to produce different information about poverty and new insights about its nature and dynamics” (p. 11). As for the second generation of PPAs, it “built on this information focus, but also showed how PPA processes could create new relationships between actors involved in poverty reduction” (p. 11). Cited in Sumner and Tribe (2008, p. 111), Carvalho and White (1997), Appleton and Booth (2001) and Chambers (2001) state that PPAs provide richer definition of poverty as they give more insights into causal processes; they are holistic, that is, they comprise a set of relationships which have no preselected attributes as a whole; they represent a scope for attention to processes as well as snap shots of the situation; they focus on context and people’s experiences, and they form a feedback loop which assists data interrogation. All these notwithstanding, PPAs are characterized by a number of weaknesses which include “lack of generalizability; difficulties in verifying information, limited systematic disaggregation; possibly unrepresentative participation; agenda framing by facilitators; pitfalls in attitudinal data”; and changes of people’s behaviour due to arrival of a PPA team (Carvalho and

White, 1997; Appleton and Booth, 2001; Chambers, 2001 cited in Sumner and Tribe (2008, p. 111).

In general, participatory approach to poverty has been criticized on a number of grounds. In spite of the approach lying in the “drawing out of the views of the poor and juxtaposing them with the views and perspective of outsiders, it is not clear how the approach deals with the differing views of different people – men and women, traditionalists versus modernisers – within and across different poor communities (Rendell, 2004, p. 6). Also, what people say to outsiders may not be the whole truth after all; for example, what an individual or a group says may not accurately tally with what is in the individual or group’s thoughts if such an individual or group feels threatened (Poulter, 1998). One other problem with this approach is that even where people convey the whole truth or convey accurate views, perspectives and needs, it still does not present the whole picture; it is not out of place for people’s assessments of their conditions to be partial and narrow following the risks of not seeing, and lacking ability to see the whole picture (Sen, 1999). In a nutshell, participatory approach to poverty can “be objectively biased as a result of limited information and social conditioning” (Rendell, 2004, p. 7). Despite these shortcomings of the approach, it has a number of merits. According to Scott and Reyes (n.d), participatory approaches with reference to poverty elicit “people's own analysis of their poverty and wellbeing which provides a deeper understanding of dimensions of poverty other than income and consumption indicators;” they allow for the comprehension of “the complexity and diversity of livelihood strategies, including the impact of structural economic and political factors over time on people's impoverishment and ability to become less poor;” they establish causality by “identifying barriers to participation, factors of social exclusion and assessing social capital of different groups according to gender, age, caste, ethnicity;” and they influence policy and

practice as they have a kind of nature that “provide insights for policy and practical actions with high benefits for poor people in their own terms” (p. 19).

2.3 Major Causes of Global Poverty

Poverty may be caused by a number of factors. First and foremost, poverty may be caused by a number of acute factors such as corruption, warfare, agricultural cycle, and natural disasters including drought, flooding, earthquake and hurricane. Regarding corruption, Chetwynd, Chetwynd and Spector (2003, p. 5) state that it is widely believed that “corruption and poverty are closely related in developing countries” as it is often opinionated or judged to heighten the “conditions of poverty in countries already struggling with the strains of economic growth and democratic transition;” also, nations that suffer extreme poverty are viewed as “natural breeding grounds for systemic corruption due to social and income inequalities and perverse economic incentives.” In line with the account of Gupta, Davoodi, and Alonso-Terme (2002) which stresses that not many studies confirm the correlation between poverty and corruption, Chetwynd, Chetwynd and Spector (2003, p. 6) emphasize that poverty per se does not cause poverty as its direct effects are on “economic and governance factors as intermediaries that in turn produce poverty;” thus, there exists an indirect correlation between poverty and corruption. As regards warfare or armed conflict, it affects the economic status of individuals and households via the magnitude and kinds of violence they set in motion (Kalyvas, 2007). According to Justino (2008), economic standing of households is adversely affected by the stages of violence via the direct and indirect transformations such violence is characterized by. She enumerates such direct effects as “changes in household composition due to killings, injuries and recruitment of fighters, changes in the household economic status due to the destruction of assets and livelihoods and effects caused by forced displacement and migration” (p. 5). She enumerates

the indirect effects as "changes in households' access to, and relationship with local exchange, employment, credit and insurance markets, social relations and networks and political institutions" (p. 5). All these cause and multiply poverty. As regards agricultural cycle, those who engage in subsistence farming within a population and whose reliance is on fruits and vegetables they grow for the consumption of their household go through different phases of poverty during the period of scarcity. Agricultural cycle refers to the annual cycle of activities regarding the growth and harvest of crops such as loosening the soil, seeding, special watering, and moving plants when they grow bigger, and harvesting. For such households, this scarcity occurs at a period immediately preceding harvest and it makes them lack sufficient resources to meet their minimal needs thereby causing and multiplying poverty during that period. Regarding natural disasters, there exist clear links between natural disasters and poverty through infrastructure. The linkages are clear in that "access to infrastructure is often a measure of poverty; infrastructure is a key component of economic growth; and the loss of infrastructure may have significant indirect and secondary costs that directly impact the poor" (Freeman, 2000, p. 3). This culminates in "destruction of crops and livestock, potential losses in income, drops in consumption and reductions in human capital accumulation" (Baez and Santos, 2008, p. 1). Accordingly, these force households "to liquidate assets and take steps that may curtail current and future human capital accumulation thereby causing and multiplying poverty" (Baez and Santos, 2008, p. 12).

Prominent among other probable causes of poverty is overpopulation. Overpopulation refers to the relationship between the environment (the earth or a country) and the human population contained therein. It is "generally defined as an inability of the environment to support the existing population of humans or other living things" (Lucid Pages, 2011).

According to Linkola, (2009, p. 122), “the worst enemy of life is too much life,” that is, the excess of human life; and “the chief cause for the impending collapse of the world - the cause sufficient in and by itself is the enormous growth of the human population,” that is, the human flood. From the Malthusian perspective which is that of *population pessimism*, overpopulation relates to poverty in that it conforms to human suffering owing to the notion that human population multiply geometrically while food production can only do same arithmetically; resultant effect of which would be a society that experiences war, poverty and famine as the need for food exceeds its availability (Malthus, 2005). Going by the current economic thought, the postulations of Malthus on population growth do provide an answer to the obstacle of poverty (George, 2006). According to this perspective, the process of population growth would need to be curbed by a decrease in fertility or an increase in mortality (Brown, Gardner, and Halweil, 1999). Following this perspective is the Neo-Malthusianism perspective which essentially applies to the Malthus’ theories on current world systems so as to systematically examine the trends and make predictions. The Neo-Malthusian perspective implies that earth “can only sustain the agricultural needs of a limited population and that as overpopulation occurs, there are significant social and economic consequences” (CNRE, n.d). Further to this, the (CNRE, n.d) states that the perspective captures beyond agricultural sustainability to describe the need and depletion of all resources; this basically suggests that “overpopulation may in fact be a direct cause of poverty and starvation in societies around the world.” The discussion on the validity of the Neo-Malthusian theories continues as it is not clear whether or not overpopulation is a determinant of poverty. The fact that a conclusion is yet to be drawn with respect to how well the Neo-Malthusian arguments describe the effects of overpopulation does not erase another fact

that the arguments are vital to when the correlation between population and poverty is being investigated (Marsh and Alagona, 2008; Veer, 2005).

Malthus *population pessimism* perspective has an alternative viewpoint in the work of Esther Boserup which is that of *population optimism* that suggests that through human innovations and technological advances, food production will measure up with population growth (Boserup, 2005). She further emphasizes that when enough low population density allows, there is a tendency that the land will not be frequently used which gives it the opportunity to recover by relying heavily on fire and fallowing with which the fields are cleared and the land fertility is restored. According to her, when the use of fallowing is solely reduced by a rising population density with an attendant use of fire, then the fields are getting ready for annual cultivation; this culminates in the reduction of the fertility of the land and this has to be dealt with through people's efforts that include irrigation, weed control, field preparation, and fertilizing (Boserup, 2005). Population pessimism perspective is opposed to by population optimism in that while the former is based on "Malthusian concerns about the finiteness of natural resources and concerns about the (per capita) capital endowment of the economy," the latter is "based on the idea that population growth, by changing certain relative prices, will produce economic and institutional responses chiefly in terms of property rights and technical progress (Cuffaro, n.d, p. 2)." This clear opposition challenges "Malthusian considerations over diminishing returns" and "the resource shallowing effect of population in the neoclassical growth model." (Cuffaro, n.d, p. 1). Going by the diverse positions of pessimists and optimists, Birdsall (1988, p. 493) concluded that "the arguments of the optimists, with the possible exception of the advantages of greater population density in rural areas, though of intuitive appeal, are as poorly

supported empirically (and as intrinsically difficult to support) as are the arguments of the pessimists.”

Both population pessimism and population optimism are not aligned to by another approach, *population revisionism* which became prominent in the population discourse in the 1980s. This approach deviates from an idea that per capita economic growth and development are strongly deterred by that rapid population growth and from an assumption that “rapid population growth in nonindustrial societies is a significant problem” (Hodgson, 1988, p. 542). According to this approach, no statistical association exists “between national rates of population growth and growth rates of income per capita” (NRC, 1986, p. 4). Population revisionism places population growth along with some other factors of commensurate or greater importance thereby relegating its significance as a source of economic growth; assesses the after-effect over a longer period of time; and takes into account indirect feedbacks amidst political and economic systems (NRC, 1986; Wattenberg, 1987; Hodgson, 1988). Also punctured by population revisionism is the pre-revisionist notion that population explosion caused by rapid urbanization and food deficiencies can be tackled by family planning. The approach challenges this notion by linking family planning to other justifiable factors such as the “desirability of reducing the large number of unwanted births, the adverse impact of large families (and close child spacing) on child and maternal health, the flexibility and greater administrative ease in managing a slower pace of development, and the adverse consequences of population pressures on selected environmental resources, the impact of population” (Kelly, 1995, p. 2).

Overpopulation can either be absolute or relative; it is absolute when the living things have exceeded their ability to sustain their existence and this culminates in the population typically destroying its environment and gets starved, it is relative when resources become scarce and as a

result of this, “each individual has less living space, or fewer available resources, or reduced quality of life” (Lucid Pages, 2011). There exists an argument that poverty fundamentally contributes to population owing primarily to lack of adequate education and economic value that children represent to poor families who rely on supplemental income that can be provided by the children. Inasmuch as impoverished communities do not generally have access to quality education which would have exposed them to birth control practices, their women often fail to acquire a sense of independence, and the orbit of poverty is kept going via future generations (Richie, 2011; Pritchett, 1994). This confirms that relationship between poverty and overpopulation significantly depends on the status that women hold in society. It is then arguable that women are empowered via the acquisition of education and social liberty and those who are capable of generating their own income hardly contribute to population growth like those with no such characteristics whose number is large and who are confined to child bearing, child care, and domestic shores following a lower rank in their societies, households, and families. Fertility thus falls following women's acquisition of education which opens doors for them to seek better employment opportunities (Lappé and Schurman, 1990; Nag, et al., 1978). Looking at it from another angle, overpopulation may cause poverty in societies that undergo excessive population growth as limited jobs are available and resources are over-exploited; this aligns with the Neo-Malthusian theory that argues the earth's available resources become insufficient owing to absolute population increase, that food production does not simultaneously increase as population, and that putting population under control is basic to sustainability (Richie, 2011; Marsh and Alagona, 2008; Veer, 2005).

The world population reached 7 billion on October 31, 2011 (UNFPA, 2011). The U.S. Census Bureau has an estimate for approximately further six months; according to the Bureau,

the world population will pass 7 billion on March 12, 2012 (USCB, 2011). The world population currently grows approximately by 74 million people per year. Current forecasts estimate that global population will hit 9 billion by 2050; this is however subject to a decline in typical fertility rate from 2.5 to 2.0 (UN, 2011a). India, Pakistan, Nigeria, Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), Bangladesh, Uganda, US, Ethiopia, and China, based on the sizes of their contributions to population growth are expected to account for half of the global projected population increase during 2005 to 2050 (UN, 2005a). By 2050, India will have 1.6 billion people, China - 1.4 billion, US - 439 million, Pakistan - 309 million, Nigeria - 259 million, Bangladesh - 258 million, DRC – 189 million, Ethiopia - 185 million, and Uganda - 93 million (UN, 2007). Though, there is yet to be an agreement on the carrying capacity of the earth which refers to the “maximum population size of the species that the environment can sustain indefinitely, given the food, habitat, water and other necessities available in the environment” (Hui, 2006). According to UN (2001b, pp. 30-31), “the estimates of earth’s carrying capacity range from under 1 billion to more than 1,000 billion persons;” and not below “two thirds of the estimates fall in the range of 4 billion to 16 billion persons, and the median value is about 10 billion.” This median value of 10 billion persons is said to be what the size of the population of the earth will be by 2022 (UN, 2000b). However, latter estimates are lesser with the consideration of factors such as increased consumption and resource insufficiency (Ryerson, 2010; Brown, 2011). Most of this estimates in the words of Cohen (1995, p. 233), "are probably less dispassionate analyses than they are political instruments, intended to influence actions one way or another.”

Corroborating this, Jones (2008) says that human beings are 10,000 times more common than we should be. A major effect of overpopulation is environmental degradation. According to

UNISDR (2004, p. 4), environmental degradation is “the reduction of the capacity of the environment to meet social and ecological objectives, and needs.” It refers to the deterioration of the natural environment under which resources such as water, air, soil and forests are depleted thereby resulting in the destruction of ecosystems and the extinction of wildlife. Environmental degradation is defined as “any change or disturbance to the environment perceived to be deleterious or undesirable” (Johnson, et al., 1997). Environmental degradation leads to shortages of food, clean water, materials for shelter, and other essential resources thereby breeding poverty. Soil fertility is depleted by intensive farming and as such, decreasing crop yield. Regional overgrazing results in destruction of grazing lands, forest and soil and air and water are also degraded. As overpopulation breeds poverty and people become poorer, they tend to overuse the resources because they do not have anything to eat or any means of getting money except through natural resources. Thus, they destroy the environment faster (NISL-Ecological Informatics, 2007).

Poverty may also be caused by the global unequal distribution of resources. The shadow of this global inequality is lengthening and deepening and “trails the career of modern development policy as its dark shadow” (UNDP, 1992; 2005; Pieterse, 2004, p. 69). Countries of the world are unequal (Sutcliffe, 2002); and they are divided into two, that is, the North and South. The countries of the Global North are those that are rich, democratic, and technologically innovative, with declining birth rates and aging populations. In contrast, the countries of the Global South are home to 85 percent of the world’s population, but the impoverished people living there possess only 20 percent of the globe’s wealth (World Bank, 2006). Sometimes, the Global South is described as a zone of turmoil because most its people live amid poverty, war, tyranny and anarchy as against the Global North where peace, wealth and democracy prevail (Singer and

Wildavsky, 1993). According to the UNDP (2005), as much as 80 percent of the population of the world recorded an increase in wealth inequality while just 4 percent of the population of the world, that is, nine (9) countries reduced the wealth gap between the rich and the poor. Further to this, UNDP (2005) states that the combined income of the world 50 richest people is greater than that of the world poorest 416 million people; and that as much as 54 percent of the global income goes to the world's 10 percent richest people while 40 percent of the population of the world has just 5 percent of global income. This wide gap is attributed to unjust global trade regime between the Global North and Global South of the globe which heightens global inequality (UNDP, 2005). This global inequality is evident in opportunities for social and political participation and in education, employment, health, and gender; and as a result causes poverty (UN, 2005b).

According to Rapley (2004, p. 88), "the principal polarity is not between the rich and the poor countries but between rich and poor people across the globe." Going by this, Champernowne and Cowell, (1998, P. 49), "comparing communities in terms of inequality should not be performed in a vacuum: the study of the income distribution and related issues cannot ultimately be divorced from the historical development of the social and economic system." Therefore, it must be noted that over the years, inequalities among countries of the world have not been static. In a discussion of the composition of global inequality in the early 19th and 21st centuries, Milanovic (2011, p. 499) states that in the early 19th century, inequality between individuals in the world had Gini of around 50 with "about 30% due to differences in average country incomes (15 Gini points) and about 70% due to within-national income differences (35 Gini points)." Milanovic (2011) states further that by the 21st century, inequality between individuals in the world had Gini of around 65 with "about 80% due to differences in average country incomes (53 Gini points) and about 20% due to within-national income

differences (12 Gini points)” (p. 499). This suggests that 200 years ago, inequality between individuals is much lower than today and “its composition has totally reversed: from being predominantly driven by within-national inequalities (that is, by what could be called class inequality), it is today overwhelmingly determined by the differences in mean country incomes (what could be called location or citizenship-based inequality)” which is worth 50 Gini points against 15 Gini points it was worth in the 19th century (Milanovic, 2011, p. 504). Specifically, around 1870, two-thirds of global poverty was explainable by class but now, “the proportions have exactly flipped: more than two-thirds of total inequality is due to location,” which implies that location or “citizenship (i.e., being a member of a rich or poor country), for our lifetime incomes can be also very well captured by another exercise” (Milanovic, 2012, p. 19).

It must be also noted that inequalities within countries have not been static over the years. According to Jolly (2005), in the UK, “the ratio of the incomes of the richest 5 per cent to the poorest 10 per cent decreases from a peak of 40 in 1820 and 1850 to 30 in 1890 and 1910 to 16 in 1929 and to 10 in 1950 and 1992, dipping to 7 for 1970 and 1980” (p.12). Against this, in the US and the Scandinavian countries, there were doubling and modest increases in the ratios over the 19th century with the US “almost doubling from 13 in 1820 and 1850 to 25 in 1890 and 1910, then decreasing to 20 in 1929 and down to 13 in 1950 slipping later to 12 and rising to 15 by 1992” and the Scandinavian countries having modest “rising to 17 at peak from 1870 to 1910, then falling to 12 in 1929 and to 9 and then to 8 from 1950 to 1992” (Jolly, 2005, pp. 12-13). If the 1950 to 1992 data is somewhat more reliable, it may then be safe to conclude that “the highest ratios are in Latin America, for Brazil, Argentina and Chile and these ratios have been rising over this period;” that “the next highest ratios are those of Egypt and Cote D’Ivoire, Ghana and Kenya, which show little change over this period;” and that “Japan and the UK and

the Scandinavian countries show the lowest ratios over 1950-1992, though with India and falling to almost this level according to the data by 1992” (Jolly, 2005, pp. 13). Against this, Jolly (2005) emphasizes that “the ratios in the US were rising from 1950 to 1992, to reach ratios comparable to ratios Egypt and Africa have – and for many of these countries, perhaps the best we will ever have” (p. 13).

Poverty persists in much of the developing countries, particularly, SSA “in the face of increased globalization and rapid trade liberalization” which failed to prevent an estimated over one billion to “live in extreme poverty (based on the US\$1 per day poverty line),” and up to half of the population of the world to live below US\$2 a day (Ackah Morrissey and Appleton 2007, p. 1). By the end of the last millennium, the wealthiest 5 percent of the world population earned 114 times as much as the poorest 5 percent and the top 1 percent earned the equivalent of the bottom 57 percent (UNDP, 2003). The claim of others is that the globe is already in-between two-thirds society where the bottom third is denied meaningful participation in formal economic activities (Lash and Urry, 1994). All these notwithstanding, it can be deduced from the statistics that the global flow is en- route more backward allocation of income and wealth or simply put that “the rich have grown richer” while “the poor have stagnated” (Easterly, 2002, p. 60). Over the past 200 years, the per-capital income gap between the richest and the poorest countries has progressively increased from ratio 3:1 to between 30:1 or 50:1 (Kay, 2004; Landes 2002; UNDP, 2003). The fact that global per-capita income trebled between 1960 and the mid-1990s did not stop over 100 countries whose per-capita income has declined since the 1980s from declining (Robinson, 2004). In the poorest one-fifth of the Global South countries, their “average calories intake” is one-third of the Global South countries one-fifth (Easterly, 2002, p. 11).

Relationship between poverty and unequal distribution of resources in the world economy is evidenced by the continued dependence of the poorer countries on the richer countries; the richer countries have the ability to get from the poorer countries in Asia, Africa, and Latin America, inexpensive natural resources such as oil, ores, and minerals. The richer countries also get from the poorer countries, cheap labour with which factories operated by multinational corporations produced their goods. This practice is a direct contribution to the dependency of poorer countries on the richer ones as their standards of living are not raised. Virtually all the countries of the Global South remain frustrated by their inability to catch up and close gap with the countries of the Global North (Norberg, 2006). This is a major twenty-first century contentious issue in international politics because it reflects incommensurateness of power between countries regarding spelling out the rules involved in global trade (Buckman, 2005). The salience of inequalities across nation and classes has been raised by the globalization of production and trade. This global inequality leaves the world with a condition under which the people in richer countries have more wealth and resources thereby having generally higher standards of living and costs of living than those in the poorer countries. This global unequal distribution of resources has been attributed to the effect of colonialism which is ideologically linked with mercantilism (Klein, 2004). The basis for colonialism is the presence of colonies, which were administered differently from other domains such as protectorates or unofficial stretch of influence; and as such, it cannot be defined independently from colony (Osterhammel and Frisch, 2005). Sovereignty of the former colonies is yet to erase the colonial heritage and vulnerabilities they faced; therefore, they are still somewhat dependent and this multiplies their incidence of poverty. This is referred to as Neo-colonialism under which foreign capital is utilized for profiteering in place of development of the Third World nations and under which

investment expands rather than closes the gap between the wealthy and the poor countries of the world (Nkrumah, 1965). The contrast between the world wealthy and the conditions of the poor in Africa is described by Commission for Africa (2005, p. 7) as the “greatest scandal of our age.”

Poverty may equally be caused by inadequate education and unemployment. When people are uneducated or when they are inadequately educated, they find it extremely difficult to get income-generating jobs thereby breeding poverty. This can be attributed to both the government and people. More often than not, government of poorer countries cannot afford to provide good public schools, particularly in the in the rural areas and this heightens the incidence of illiteracy and poverty in these countries. In Africa, quantity of schools and teachers has been cited as a major explanatory factor for the failure to achieve universal access to basic education (Gueye and Gauci, 2003). On the side of the people, they often forego attending schools so as to concentrate on making a minimal living partly because they see little reason to do so because their countries have few employment opportunities. Some studies have shown that there are wealth differences in school enrolment and attainment in most developing countries, but the gaps vary widely across countries (UNFPA, 2002a). Education in particular, has been increasingly recognized as a key element in the alleviation of poverty whether it is explained in terms of potential provision of income earning, assets or production of public goods (Gueye and Gauci, 2003). In SSA, only about 60 percent of children attend elementary school. According to the UNDP (2002), of the 21 countries of SSA for which data is available, none will achieve the universal primary education goal, and only 7 countries (Benin, Mauritius, Namibia, Senegal, Swaziland, South Africa and Togo) will be on track. What obtains in the richer countries is a deviation from this as all their children have access to education.

Also, when people are unemployed, they make no money and this leads to high level of poverty. According to ILO (1982, p. 4), “unemployment occurs when people are without jobs and they have actively sought work within the past four weeks.” In countries where populations are high, unemployment levels of only a few percentage is an indication that millions of working-age people cannot find job and earn a living wage and thereby breeding poverty. In consonance with this, Hamilton (2011) reports that “more than 200 million people globally are out of work, a record high, as almost two-thirds of advanced economies and half of developing countries are experiencing a slowdown in employment growth.” ILO (2011, p. 12) puts the “number of unemployed at 205 million in 2010, essentially unchanged from the year earlier and 27.6 million higher than in 2007.” It is instructive to state that the fact that unemployment figures indicate only the number of people qualified to work and has got no job but seeking employment does not necessarily present a correct indicator of the proportion of people living in poverty. This is because others who have got jobs but not gainfully employed, that is, those whose jobs earn wages too low to support themselves are also in poverty. High rate of unemployment is not peculiar to only poorer countries; richer countries may also experience high rate of unemployment. As at 2005, about 20 percent of the world workers were in the richer countries while up to 80 percent were in the poorer countries. The labour force of the former is expected to remain at about 600 million if the overall Labour Force Participation Rate (LFPR) remains at 48 percent, largely because of the stable populations of industrial countries (Martin, 2009). According to ILO (2008), the economically active share of populations in poorer countries will converge to the 48 percent of richer countries, so the labour force of less poorer countries will rise strictly with population after 2020. ILO (2008) states further that the labour force of richer countries is projected to cease growing after 2020 because of the stable population,

while the labour force of poorer countries continues increasing at a slower rate and growing further in the direction of four billion in 2050.

Poverty may also be caused by economic and demographic trends. This applies more to the richer countries of the world. In this part of the world, periods of economic crisis likely affect young and less-educated people, who may not get employment that can cater for their needs thereby causing poverty. Further to this, changes in labour markets in these richer countries are contributory to increased poverty level. For example, where the number of relatively high-paying manufacturing jobs is in decline and the demand for service and technology-related industries jobs are on the increase; workers in the manufacturing sector tend to lose their jobs or get too less paid compared to those in the service and technology sector. Economic recession therefore affects people's strategies to secure "elements of basic livelihood, including the opportunity to earn an income and meet basic human needs, maintain health, and obtain a basic education; it also poses risks to the governments and their development projects for water supply, food security, human health, and natural resource management which may affect the income vulnerabilities of communities" (Anbumozhi and Bauer, 2010, p. 8).

Also, demographic shifts, that is, changes with respect to the makeup of populations may be contributory to increases in overall poverty. This also applies more to the richer countries of the world. For example, where typical family structures have significantly changed to an extent where single-parent families have increased, there tends to be increases in poverty particularly, among children. Single-parent families with kids have a much more difficult time escaping poverty than two-parent families with kids where adults can divide and share childcare and work duties. Across the globe, not less than 16 percent of children live in a single-parent household (Rampell, 2010). According to USCB (2011), 27 percent of children in the United States (US)

live with one parent, consistent with the emerging trend noted in 2000. As at 2006, 12.9 million families in the US were headed by a single parent, 80 percent of which were headed by females (NBER, 2007). In the United Kingdom (UK), one out of every four families with dependent offspring are single-parent families, and between 8 to 11 percent of these families have a male single-parent; the UK poverty figures show that 52 percent of single parent families are below the government-defined poverty line after housing costs (ONS, 2005; DWP, 2010).

2.4 Theoretical Explanations of the Causes of Poverty

There are a number of theoretical explanations for the causes of poverty. The assumption of the first theory of poverty explaining the causes of poverty is that poverty is caused by “individual deficiencies” under which individuals are argued to be responsible for their poverty situation (Bradshaw, 2006, p. 6). According to (Jordan, 2004, p. 19), the discourse of scholars is that people are in poverty hugely because of “social and behavioural deficiencies in individuals that ostensibly make them less economically viable within conventional society.” Corroborating this, Loewen (2009) emphasizes that those who are poor are solely responsible for their situations because they had not worked harder or made better choices through which they would have been able to avoid being in such conditions and even redress their poverty situations. A related discourse by Andy (2011, p. 2) states that the “individualistic as well as the pathological theory” offers an explanation to the reason people are in poverty; he stresses that poverty is well connected to characteristics that are deep-rooted in individuals such as a person’s habit and abilities like intelligence, meaning that “people are poor in life because of their inability to compete with others for resources” which for example makes it exceptionally difficult for people born with disabilities escaping the poverty trap and the accompanying consequences. He goes

ahead to emphasize that this theory assumes that the cause of poverty is linked to “something that the individual is born with and for that matter cannot do anything about the situation and as a result, his or her life is being determined by his present condition;” but flops by not taking into cognizance the fact that those born disabled strive to do things that can take them off their poverty conditions because it is arguably right that their disabilities will beget poverty only where they are not inclined to engaging in activities that make their conditions better but not where their conditions are okay by them. According to him, the pathological aspect of this theory assumes that poverty is attributable to “acquired or developed personality traits such as the character and actions of people” under which people born with the habit of being indolent are explained to always depend on assistance from others rather than meaningfully participating in life; this thus confirms that “the decisions people make in life as well as their characters such as indolence always results in causing poverty.” Further to this, he explains that both the individualistic and the pathological aspects flop by apportioning blames to individuals for their poverty conditions without recourse to the fact that “ these factors in themselves cannot lead to poverty but serve to establish casual links that may in effect trigger and promote factors that can push the individual into poverty;” the theory also flops by not being able to offer explanations to people whose poverty conditions are generic but are not poor after all. For example, in the US, the usual mindset is that an individual is in poverty because of his personal traits whose consequences cause him or her to fail (Rank, Yoon, and Hirschl, 2003). It is taken that a person’s personal failure such as laziness and low educational attainment speaks volume about the reason they are entrapped in poverty. This mindset is rooted in ‘meritocracy’ which is defined by Newman (1999, p. 16) as “the view that those who are worthy are rewarded and those who fail to reap rewards must also lack self-worth.”

The assumption of the second theory of poverty explaining the causes of poverty is that poverty is caused by “cultural belief systems that support subcultures of poverty” under which poverty is suggested to be “created by the transmission over generations of a set of beliefs, values, and skills that are socially generated but individually held” (Bradshaw, 2006, p. 8). This discourse is rooted in what is known as the culture of poverty or poverty culture; it can be traced to the study of Oscar Lewis and Oliver La Farge in 1959 which centred on offering explanations to semblance between the poor lower class Latin American families of Mexico and Puerto Rico; the study did find out that by and large, slum children between the ages of six and seven imbibed the fundamental values and characters of their subculture under which they were not rationally prepared or equipped to take full benefit of changing their situations or opting for heightened opportunities which may in their life time occur (Lewis and La Farge, 1959). According to Lewis (1964, p. 150), culture of poverty or poverty culture refers to a “design for living which is passed down from generation to generation;” from this, it is deducible that owing to doggedness of poverty in definite areas, the behavioural context is fortified by the culture of poverty thesis, with a suggestion that individuals form, maintain, and route to future generations a culture that beefs up the various social and behavioural deficiencies (Rodgers, 2000). Basically, the culture of poverty theories are premised on a discourse that the failing of being in poverty lies with the individual; however, it has been clarified that these theories are distinguishable from the individual theories in that under the culture of poverty theories, individuals are not necessarily to be blamed because they are victims of their dysfunctional subculture or culture (Lewis 1966; Shulman 1990; Bradshaw, 2006). Culture of poverty marginalizes individuals within the mainstream society through which “the poor develop a set of institutions, values, norms and behaviours which perpetuates rather than counters poverty” through which their young are

socialized, that is, their young absorb these indelible norms and values (which include psychological self-doubt, impulsive need for gratification, low aspirations, and a limited time horizon); this "underclass," that is, the young, becomes unchanging and is "locked into its own unique, but maladaptive culture," and the results are limitation and obstruction to these young partaking in the established institution (Loewen, 2009, p. 7; Baca Zinn 1989, p. 67, Albrecht, 1999). The analysis this theory offers is very vital in development discourse as it highlights the influence of culture on development. Accordingly, a country develops based on its national mental make-up through which poverty decreases. Grodona (2000) holds that cultural factors can represent indexes for measuring whether or not the cultural environment is positive to development. Such factors are referred to as values of which a country's developmental environment can be suggestive of (Harrison, 2000). Also, countries are either development-prone or development-resistant based on mental models which carry weight on the decisions humans make, just like values (Lindsay, 2000). There is a noted flaw in this theory; the assertion that the developing world aptly represents where poverty is likely to be seen at the most is incorrect as poverty is also present in the developed world thereby making poverty a universal phenomenon (Andy, 2011).

The third theory assumes that poverty is caused by "economic, political, and social distortions or discrimination" which makes people have "limited opportunities and resources with which to achieve income and well being" (Bradshaw, 2006, p. 10). Economic inefficiency may cause poverty under which certain individuals are unable to have passage to economic basics and advantage such as land, technical knowledge, and job opportunities which are essential requirements that make individuals economically productive and make them have means to ensure their survival (National Anti-Poverty Commission, 2003). An

economic distortion refers to a condition that creates economic inefficiency, thus interfering with economic agents maximizing social welfare when they maximize their own welfare (Deardorff, 2010). For example, if government purchases were financed by a proportional wage income tax rather than by a lump-sum tax, the outcome is distorted tax and in a competitive equilibrium, a proportional wage income tax discourages work (Williamson, 2010). According to National Anti-Poverty Commission (2003, p. 3), “economic problems always reflect certain clear and unmistakable manifestations of poverty. When the incidence of poverty becomes severe, it imperils economic stability and further worsens social and political distortions.” Political distortions occur where a polity is exogenously divided into cleavages and political actors have incentive to manipulate their relative size to improve their electoral success (Acemoglu and Robinson, 2001; Kundu, 2007; Glaeser and Shleifer, 2005); where political actors can manipulate policies to improve their future electoral strength (Hodler, et al., 2010); where political inefficiencies arise because there is an underlying interest in the society under which the rich benefit from the policies of political actors or because of the Machiavellian considerations of political actors (Acemoglu, et al., 2011; Prato, 2011); or where the presence of a dynamic linkage in policies interacts with the political process to generate distortions (Battaglini and Coate, 2008). This political dimension causes poverty in that the poor are prevented from participating in decision-making and capacity-building processes (process of people disempowerment) which “results in unstable governance structures, a prostituted electoral process, and graft and corruption becoming an accepted societal norm that affect direly the stability of the macro-economy in the long-term;” the effect of this is that private investment will be low, “causing the national output and income to contract and unemployment to worsen” thereby causing and multiplying poverty (National Anti-Poverty Commission, 2003, pp. 4-5). As

for social distortions, National Anti-Poverty Commission (2003) emphasizes that they occur where access to basic education that is necessary to enhance the competitiveness of individuals is absent or inadequate or where access to health care which would have made people more productive is absent or limited. Education is important so that people can “effectively perform their assigned tasks with skill and dexterity;” where skills are absent or lacking owing to poor access to educational opportunities, people tend to be inefficient and uncompetitive, their “ability to assimilate and absorb new skills and technologies and their capability to perform articulated tasks” tend to be impaired thereby causing and multiplying poverty (p. 4). Further to this, where lack of access to basic human needs “constrains individuals to take on jobs or undertakings that are not financially, psychologically and emotionally rewarding,” their amour proper and courage tend to diminish; consequences of which are “persistent social problems such as prostitution, drug addiction, increase in the incidence of petty and heinous crimes, unsanitary conditions, irreparable damage to the environment, malnutrition, medical and health problems, and illiteracy” (p. 4) Discrimination, whether it is economic, political, or social may also cause poverty in that it excludes or restricts members of one group from opportunities that are available to other groups.

The fourth theory assumes that poverty is caused by “geographical disparities” (Bradshaw, 2006, p. 12); in that the poor tend to be clustered in specific places (Hennigner and Snel, 2002). According to Mishra (2011, p. 228), “the nature and distribution pattern of poverty includes many facets of the geographical component and in a way explains the linkages between the terrain of a region and the magnitude of poverty.” The link between geography and poverty is seen to have strong impact on the living standards of people living in the community especially in developing countries (Bigman and Fofack, 2000). This theory generally assumes that “people,

institutions, and cultures in certain areas lack the objective resources needed to generate well being and income, and that they lack the power to claim redistribution” (Bradshaw, 2006, p. 12). Significantly, the reasons for geographic variation in the incidence rates of poverty in a society include differences in agro-climatic conditions and geographic characteristics, particularly access to main urban centres and markets, presence of natural resources such as water for irrigation, and other non-physical conditions and facets of public policy (Bigman and Fofack, 2000; Ravallion and Wodon, 1999). Accordingly, it would be improper to disregard geography, particularly the physical environment, as a factor affecting poverty condition of places and of the people living in disadvantaged regions. Two decades ago, 93 percent of the world poor lived in countries officially classified as low income countries (LICs) but now, there is a new bottom billion, that is, 960 million poor people or 72 percent of the world poor who live not in poor countries but in middle income countries (MICs) mostly in stable, non-fragile MICs. Roughly a quarter of the world poor, that is, about 370 million people live in the remaining 40 LICs, which are largely in SSA (Kanbur and Sumner, 2012).

According to Bradshaw (2006, p. 14), the fifth theory assumes that poverty is caused by “cumulative and cyclical interdependencies” He states further that while the previous four theories demonstrate “the complexity of the sources of poverty and the variety of strategies to address it,” this particular theory to some degree “builds on components of each of the other theories” (p. 14). This theory is rooted in the writings of Myrdal (1957, p. 23) where he claims that “the principle of interlocking, circular, interdependence within a process of cumulative causation has validity over the entire field of social relations.” From this, it can be inferred that a social problem results in a number of other social problems and comes back to the state it was *ab initio* which makes it a cycle. Bradshaw (2006) states that the cycle of poverty captures

unemployment within communities which results in “outmigration, closing retail stores, and declining local tax revenues” which further results in decay in educational system, not well trained workers, inability of dominant firm to make use of the newest technology, and inability to get new firms initiated in the community, which recycles to a greater unemployment situation (p. 14). At the individual level, the cycle results in food and income poverty which prevents people from being able “to invest in businesses or to start their own businesses which leads to lack of expansion, erosion of markets, and disinvestment, all of which contribute back to more inadequate community opportunities” (p. 14). According to him, the poor fall further behind owing to health problems which prevent them from being able to “afford preventive medicine, a good diet, and healthy living environments” (p. 14). Further to this, he emphasizes that the cycle of poverty captures people who have meagre income and are unable to bankroll their children’s education of which resultant effect is lack of job and adequate medical care for such children; the cycle finally captures “individuals whose lack of jobs and income leads to deteriorating self-confidence, weak motivation, and depression” (p. 15). The theory reveals the manner many problems bunch up, and permits a “speculation that if one of the linkages in the spiral was broken, the cycle would not continue;” these linkages are difficult to break and this is based on the premise that “each is reinforced by other parts of the spiralling system” (p. 15).

2.5 Major Consequences of Global Poverty

According to Weebly (n.d)), the consequences of poverty carry a number of major negative effects; these effects are listed to include high annual death rate of both minors and adults, increased diet and hygiene related diseases, increased crime rate, homelessness, and mass emigration of population.

Regarding high death rate, Banerjee and Duflo (2010) find a strong positive association between poverty and mortality rates. Though, they do not establish unequivocally a causal relationship of poverty to higher death rates but it might be the case that less healthy people become poor, and are therefore more likely to die. Further to this, they assert that their analysis is strongly suggestive that the causality runs from poverty to death, or as they put it, “poverty kills.” As for minors, this is classified under infant mortality rate, neonatal mortality rate, and under-5 mortality rate. According to the World Bank (2010), Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) is the number of infants dying before reaching one year of age, per 1,000 live births in a given year. Put in another way, “it measures how many children younger than 1 year of age will die for every 1,000 that were born alive that year” (Skolnik, 2008, p. 20). Though, countries across the globe seek to have as low IMRs as possible but what obtains in reality are variations in the rates captured by different countries owing to respective income status. High IMRs are synonymous with poorer countries of the world while low IMRs are synonymous with the richer ones because in poorer countries, the basic necessities for infant survival such as increased nutritional measures, and quick access to health care facilities, better sanitation, and clean water are either unavailable or unevenly distributed where available (Miller and Goldman, 2011). According to the World Bank (2012i), in 2010, poorer countries like Central African Republic and Democratic Republic of Congo had infant mortality rate as high as 112 and 109 infant deaths for every 1,000 live births whereas richer countries like Sweden and Germany had only 2 and 3 infant deaths for every 1,000 live births. UNICEF (2012) reports that as at 2010, the IMR per 1,000 live births in SSA was 76; it was 31 in the Middle East and North Africa; 52 in South Asia; 19 in East Asia and the Pacific; 18 in Latin America and the Caribbean; and 19 in Central and Eastern Europe (CEE). In general, the IMR per 1,000 live births as at 2010 was 5 in industrialized countries; 44

in developing countries; 71 in the least developed countries (LDCs); and 40 in the world (UNICEF, 2012). IMR is sharply related to neonatal mortality rate and under-5 mortality rate. While the former measures the number of deaths of infants younger than 28 days of age in a given year per 1,000 live births in that year, the latter which is also known as the child mortality rate refers to the probability that a newborn will die before reaching age five, expressed as a number per 1,000 live births (Norton, 2005; WHO, 2011a). As the IMR, both rates generally vary directly with the level of income in different countries under which poorer countries have a much higher neonatal mortality rate (NMRs) and under-5 mortality rate than the richer ones. Higher NMRs are connected to the fact that the high-income countries (HICs) have got a major focus of alleviating the mortality and morbidity of neonates while the lower-income countries (LICs) have given relatively little attention to same (Oestergaard, et al., 2011). According to Houweling, et al. (2005, p. 1257) “country characteristics are known to influence under-5 mortality”; such include the commitment of government to health care (Gupta , Verhoeven, and Tiongson, 2002); political development (Shen and Williamson, 1997; Frey and Al-Roumi, 1999); national income (Preston, 1975; Pritchett, 1996); and female literacy (Cleland and Van Ginneken, 1988). For example, the neonatal mortality rate per 1,000 live births in SSA was 35 as at 2010; in the same year, it was 18 in the Middle East and North Africa; 33 in South Asia; 13 in East Asia and the Pacific; 11 in Latin America and the Caribbean; and 11 in CEE. In general, neonatal mortality rate per 1,000 live births as at 2010 was 3 in industrialized countries; 25 in developing countries; 34 in the LDCs; and 23 in the world (UNICEF, 2012). Also, the under-5 mortality rate per 1,000 live births in SSA was 121 as at 2010; in the same year, it was 41 in the Middle East and North Africa; 67 in South Asia; 24 in East Asia and the Pacific; 23 in Latin America and the Caribbean; and 23 in the CEE. In general, under-5 mortality rate per 1,000 live

births was 6 in industrialized countries as at 2010; 63 in developing countries; 110 in the LDCs; and 57 in the world (UNICEF, 2012).

High annual adult mortality rate is another negative effect of poverty. According to WHO (2011b, p. 9), Adult Mortality Rate (AMR) refers to the “probability of dying between 15 to 60 years per 1,000 population or the probability that a 15 year old person will die before reaching his or her 60th birthday.” Poverty leads to high mortality and this in turn stifles the growth that would help countries escape poverty. The causal relationship between mortality and poverty is clearly bi-directional; people die young in poor countries that are not able to afford sanitation and medical care. Hence, there exists a strong negative relationship between income levels and adult mortality. Secondly, “where people have a short time horizon because they expect to die young, they have less reason to save and the economy fails to grow;” hence, countries with high adult mortality also experience low rates of economic growth (Lorentzen, McMillan and Wacziarg, 2005, p. 82). In the LDCs, the spread of health knowledge has occasioned death rates accommodating more briskly than income levels (Deaton, 2004). Accordingly, per capita income is significantly associated with the mortality rate, and mortality is significantly associated with growth. World Bank (2008a) estimates that 1 percent decline in developing country growth rates traps an additional 20 million people into poverty. According to (Lorentzen, McMillan and Wacziarg, 2005, p. 83), of the 40 countries with the highest AMRs, all are in Africa except three (Afghanistan, Laos, and Cambodia); of 98 countries, those in SSA “grew 1.65 percentage points more slowly than the rest of the world, from 1960 to 2000,” indicating that over a forty-year period, “the gap in per capita incomes between Africa and the rest of the world doubled. Thus, it is clear that mortality is a plausible candidate as a source of poverty traps.”

According to Rajaratnam, et al. (2010, p. 1), across the globe, adult mortality varied substantially across countries and over time. As at 2010, the countries with the lowest risk of mortality for men and women were Iceland and Cyprus respectively; “in Iceland, male 45q15 is 65 (uncertainty interval 61—69) per 1000; and in Cyprus, female 45q15 is 38 (36—41) per 1000.” They go ahead to state that in the same year, the highest risk of mortality “is seen in Swaziland for men (45q15 of 765 [692—845] per 1000) and Zambia for women (606 [518—708] per 1000). Between 1970 and 2010, substantial increases in adult mortality occurred in SSA because of the HIV epidemic and in countries in or related to the former Soviet Union.”

Increased risk of war is also one of the major consequences of poverty. According to Bull (1977: 185), war is “an organized violence carried out by political units against each other.” Many people across the globe consider war ‘as an irrational activity, representing a rejection of politics for an entirely different domain of behaviour’ (Holsti 1991, p. 12). Cross-national empirical evidence showcases a strong relationship between low-per capita income and the risk of armed internal conflict or war breaking out and persisting (Collier, Hoeffler and Söderbom, 2004; Collier and Hoeffler; 1998; World Bank, 2005). Thus, higher levels of poverty, weaker state institutions and lower growth rates are incontestable features of war-affected regions (Collier, 1999; 2007; Collier, Hoeffler and Söderbom, 2004; Stewart, et al., 2001). The commonest form of violent conflict in the world since the Cold War is civil wars; they “impact substantially on economic development and the living conditions of local populations at the time of the conflict and for many years thereafter” (Justino, 2010, p. 3). Majority of civil wars occur in Latin America, Asia, and Africa's poor countries (Collier, Hoeffler and Söderbom, 2004; Fearon, 2004). Across different regions of the world, civil war is attended by high incidence of poverty as people are either killed or injured; apart from this, their personal belongings are

damaged or destroyed, their means of livelihood are adversely affected, and communities and networks are broken up (Verpoorten, 2009; Collier 2007; Gonzalez and Lopez, 2007). Sierra Leone is a good example of a poor country that plunged into civil war. The country had a per capita GNI of US\$180 which made it one of the poorest countries in the world at the inception of civil war in 1991; this resulted in the UN authorizing the deployment of a 17,500 strong peacekeeping mission, at a cost of US\$2.8 billion (Rice, Graff, and Lewis, 2006). Also Zaire (now the DRC), plunged into two full-scale wars in the mid-1990s; during this period, in 1995 to be precise, Zaire's GNI per capita stood at \$130, making it the world second poorest country. These wars resulted in the deaths of an estimated 4 million people and required the eventual deployment of 17,000 UN peacekeepers. As at 2006, its GNI per capita remained the world second lowest, having fallen to US\$120 and this made the risk of renewed conflict remain high, in part because economic conditions had not improved in any meaningful way (Rice, Graff, and Lewis, 2006).

Other consequences of poverty are increased diet and hygiene related diseases. Regarding diet related diseases, people on low incomes tend to have the lowest intakes of fruit and vegetables; they are unable to obtain healthy affordable food and are far more likely to suffer from diet-related diseases such as cancer, diabetes, obesity and coronary heart disease. According to Food Access Network (2012) "expenditure on food is the most flexible part of household budgets as the amount spent on food is often whatever is left over when all the essential bills have been paid. When sudden or unexpected costs happen, the amount available to spend on food is reduced." Throughout the entire life course, diet and nutrition are valuable factors in the advancement and sustenance of good health as their role as determinants of chronic Non Communicable Diseases (NCDs) such as obesity, diabetes, cardiovascular/heart

diseases, cancer, stroke, osteoporosis and dental diseases, is deep-rooted and they therefore occupy a conspicuous position in preventive actions (WHO, 2002). It is reported by WHO (2002) and WHO/FAO (2003) that as at 2001, “chronic diseases contributed approximately 60 percent of the 56.5 million total reported deaths in the world and approximately 46 percent of the global burden of disease;” and “the proportion of the burden of NCDs is expected to increase to 57 percent by 2020.” They reported further that “almost half of the total chronic disease deaths are attributable to cardiovascular diseases; obesity and diabetes are also showing worrying trends, not only because they already affect a large proportion of the population, but also because they have started to appear earlier in life.” The projection is that by 2020, approximately three-quarters of all global deaths from acute diseases will occur in developing countries, and as much as 71 percent of deaths will result from Ischemic Heart Disease (IHD), 75 percent of deaths will result from stroke, and 70 percent of deaths will result from diabetes (WHO, 1998). By 2025, the proportion of people suffering from diabetes will rise by more than 2.5-fold, from 84 million in 1995 to 228 million in the Third World nations (Aboderin et al., 2001); and on a global basis, 60 percent of the burden of chronic diseases will occur in the Third World nations (WHO/FAO, 2003). This may not be unconnected with the current global trend of chronic diseases which has experienced a shift in the pattern of disease taking place at an accelerating rate in the poorer countries; the occurrence of the acute diseases in the Third World nations is quite faster than what obtained in the developed nations fifty years ago (Popkin, 2002).

Hygiene related diseases are undisputed negative effects of poverty; that is, poor hygiene and non-availability of safe drinking water are factors exacerbated by poverty (Stevens, 2004). In other words, inadequate sanitation and contaminated water are significantly related to diseases of poverty like malaria, parasitic diseases and such infections act as co-determinants that

heightens the risk of transmitting HIV (Stillwagon, 2008). There exists a dynamic relationship between poverty and poor health as such diseases result directly from poverty, the diseases further perpetuate and deepen impoverishment by sapping personal and national health and financial resources. In the case of malaria, it decreases GDP growth by up to 1.3 percent in some developing nations, and as a result kills tens of millions in SSA (Roll Back Malaria, 2012). According to WHO (2004b), across the globe, Africa has above 90 percent of the 300 to 500 million malaria infections that occur yearly; and as much as one million malaria deaths happen in children under the age of five annually. According to Whitworth, et al. (2000), malaria is directly related to the spread of HIV in SSA; also, it heightens the viral capacity seven to ten times, and thus heightens the chances of transmitting HIV via sexual intercourse from a patient with malaria to an HIV uninfected partner (Hoffman, et al., 1999). As for AIDS, it threatens the economies, social structures, and political stability of entire societies; HIV/AIDS thus destroys lives and livelihoods alike, wiping out decades of progress in developing countries; even in the developed nations, the poor suffers most HIV/AIDS infections (UNFPA, 2002b). None of the global developed countries has an AIDS epidemic close to those of the Third World countries of the world (Loewenson and Whiteside, 2001). The interaction between HIV and malaria is cyclical as being infected with malaria heightens proneness to HIV infection, and HIV heightens incidence of malaria. The simultaneous existence of both aids the spread both diseases, particularly in SSA (Abu-Raddad, Patnaik and Kublin, 2006).

Increased crime rate is another negative effect of poverty. According to (Bourguignon (1999, p. 63), "available evidence, though limited suggests that poverty may indeed have a significant positive effect on criminality." In other words, high crime rates can be linked to poverty (Fajnzylber et al., 2000). Thus, there exists a direct correlation between poverty and

crime or criminality (Heineke and Block, 1975; Kelly, 2000). Corroborating this, sociological positivism assumes that poverty is one of the major societal factors that can predispose people to crime. In a data and statistical analysis used by Adolphe Quetelet to gain insight into relationship between crime and sociological factors such as poverty, it was found that poverty is an important factor related to crime (Beirne, 1997). It is assumed by Becker's 'Economic Theory of Crime' (where economic analysis was used to determine the optimal control of crime) that people have recourse to crime only if the costs of engaging in the crime are lower than the benefits gained (Becker, 1968). Therefore, it thus follows that, crimes, especially property crimes are committed by the people living in poverty (Chiu and Madden, 1998; Kelly, 2000). Supporting this position, the then British Secretary of State for Justice, Ken Clarke, according to Fraser (2011) did emphasize that the recent decline in the rate of crime was attributable to increased prosperity and that for offending rates to be further reduced, there must be general improvement in the levels of prosperity. According to Berk, Lenihan and Rossi (1980, p. 766), "strong individual and aggregate level correlations between poverty and official measures of crime are perhaps among the most firmly established of social science empirical generalizations" but that "official crime rates are almost always higher among the poor, and poor people are more likely to be arrested and convicted for a wide variety of offences." This generalization between poverty and crime is founded in a theory that assumes that people who have less will want to take from those who have more, that is, increased rate of crime is attributable to a wide gap between the haves and the haves-not (Harney, 2011). Africa exemplifies a place where poverty seemingly leads to high rate of crime; in this region, the number of intentional homicide/murder was 169,105 in 2008 representing a rate of 17 intentional homicides per 100,000 inhabitants which is the highest in the world. For example, the levels of poverty in the DRC and Burundi are high, and so are the rates

of intentional homicide/murder in these countries; going by the 2006 records, the DRC had 87.7 and 95.2 percent of its population living below US\$1.25 and US\$2 per day while Burundi had 81.3 and 93.5 percent of its population living below US\$1.25 and US\$2 per day; in the DRC, the number of intentional homicide/murder was 13,588 in 2008 representing a rate of 22 intentional homicides per 100,000 inhabitant while in Burundi, the number of intentional homicide/murder was 1,726 in 2008 representing a rate of 22 intentional homicides per 100,000 inhabitants (World Bank, 2012j; UNODC, n.d). According to Fleming (2011), the global highest crime rates per capita exist in developing countries; these countries also have very high rates of poverty. For example, as at 2009 in Cape Town, South Africa where there exists a total population of 3.35 million, the rate of murders was 62 per 100,000; in 2003, it was higher, it was 86 per 100,000. In 2009, the rate of common robbery (property) was 2,297 per 100,000; rate of sexual offences was 71,500, this was up 10 percent the previous year; and rate of robberies was 3,900, also, this was up 4 percent the previous year (Safety Security-Crazy, 2012). In 2007, South Africa's deputy president, Phumzile Mlambo-Ngcuka confirmed that South Africa, Africa's biggest economy had one of the highest crime rates world over, which included armed robberies and other violent crimes. She said the unacceptable number of South Africans that still lived in poverty and deprivation was clearly responsible for the rate of crime in the country (IOL News, 2007). Thus, high rate of crime in a country cannot be divorced from the incidence of poverty in that country.

High rate of homelessness is also an effect of poverty. According to UN (1997, p. 50) “homeless households are those households without a shelter that would fall within the scope of living quarters. They carry their few possessions with them, sleeping in the streets, in doorways or on piers, or in another space, on a more or less random basis; ” generally, homeless people are

those living in the streets without a shelter that would fall within the scope of living quarters; this is primary homelessness (UN, 2009b). More people face greater financial woes as poverty sets in; those who already have roofs over their heads may experience difficulty paying rent to their landlords, and those without homes cannot afford a home (Weebly, n.d). In recent years, there has been a steady growth in the number of homeless people worldwide (Zarocostas, 2005; Capdevila, 2005). Homelessness is a problem in developed as well as in developing countries; the UK has one of the highest rates of homelessness in Europe with more than 4 people per 1,000 estimated to be homeless; in the US, the number of homeless people ranges from 600,000 to 2.5 million; and in Germany, an estimated 254,000 people are homeless (Homeless Pages, 2004, FAS, 2009; and FEANTSA, 2012 cited in Homeless World Cup, n.d). In the US specifically; as at 1996 when the federal poverty level was US\$680 per month for an individual, an average income of US\$348 was reported by single homeless persons which represented 51 percent of that year's federal poverty level (US Conference of Mayors, 2000). Current figures reveal that in the US, above 3 million people including 1.3 million people experience homelessness every single year of which many are either unemployed or basically living on minimum wage earnings (NLCHP, 2012a; b). Homelessness is rampant in Third World countries such as Nigeria and South Africa with millions of children living and working on the streets (Urban Poverty Group, 2004; UN-HABITAT, 2003). By 2015, there will be an estimated homeless population of 24.4 million people in Nigeria (UNHCR, 2007). In India, Indonesia, Philippines and Thailand, homelessness is also a big problem despite their growing prosperity (UN-HABITAT, 2003). In 2003, there were 78 million homeless people in India; in Indonesia, there are as much as 3 million homeless people; and in the Philippines, an estimated 1.2 million children live on the streets (Action Aid, 2003; ACHR, 2001; UN-HABITAT, n.d cited in Homeless World Cup, n.d).

2.6 Poverty in Nigeria

2.6.1 A Brief Description of Poverty in Nigeria

According to Chandy and Gertz (2011, p. 6), by 2015, “Nigeria will have more poor people than either of the big two,” that is, India and China as the global reduction in the global poverty rate “is down to the growth leaps of India and China.” Based on the 2003/2004 Nigeria Living Standard Survey (NLSS), it is confirmed that “it is true that absolute poverty is high – covering nearly six out of ten Nigerians” (Appleton, Mckay and Alayande, 2008, p. 367). OSSAP-MDGs (2008) puts the figure of those living in poverty at five out of every ten Nigerians. The Population and Housing Census of the Federal Republic of Nigeria by NPoC (2006) and the 2010 revised World Population Prospects by UNDESA (2010) put the total population of Nigeria at 140,431,790 and 158,423,000 in 2006 and 2010 respectively.

In Nigeria, poverty has been a very serious problem since the 1980s. Deterioration in welfare and an increase in poverty were very evident in Nigeria between 1980 and 1985. Poverty elasticity is lower in Africa than elsewhere due to structural problems which may obstruct the expansion of the benefits of economic growth and the possible exclusion of some parts of the population from such economic growth process (Demery and Square, 1996). According to these authors, Kenya, Nigeria and Tanzania were found to be countries which during the 1980s and early 1990s enjoyed periods of economic growth, whose poverty-reducing effects were partially undone by rising inequalities. There is no doubt that poverty in Nigeria is very real; in the last decade, the quality of life of an average Nigerian citizen has considerably declined.

Between 1972 and 1980, the Nigerian per capita income shot up from ₦1,300 to ₦2,900 (that is, from US\$280 to US\$1,100 in the current US\$ of the time); this was as a result of the oil prices that escalated rapidly (Mundial, 1996). In 1980, the per capita income of Nigerian citizens

stood at US\$1,280 but by 1990, it had plunged to as low as US\$240 which was well below the average of over US\$500 for SSA. The figure captured for Nigeria in 1990 (US\$240) was far below the figures captured for Botswana, Cote d' Ivoire, Egypt, South Africa, and Mauritius which were US\$3210, US\$6600, US\$1,080, US\$3,500, and US\$3,710 respectively; Nigeria's per capita income, consumption and expenditure subsequently dragged down to critical levels owing to decline in global oil revenues; as at 1995, the per capita income and consumption remained lower than what they were as at the beginning of the oil boom in the 1970s (Obadan and Odusola, 2001; Kayode and Odusola, 2000; Mundial, 1996). The WDI (World Development Indicators) reveals that between 1995 and 2005, Nigeria's GDP per capita (in current US\$) rose from US\$256 to US\$803; during this period, that of Gabon rose from US\$4,561 to US\$6,322, that of South Africa rose from US\$3,863 to US\$5,235, and that of Libya rose from US\$5,134 to US\$7,626. The WDI further reveals that between 2006 and 2011, Nigeria's GDP per capita (in current US\$) rose from US\$1,025 to US\$1,452; during this period, that of Gabon rose from US\$6,832 to US\$11,114, that of South Africa rose from US\$4,568 to US\$8,070, and that of Libya was US\$9584 in 2006 but the country had no GDP per capita (in current US\$) record for 2011 (World Bank, 2012a; b; c; d).

In the mid 1990s, the Vision 2010 Committee Report ascertained that 50 percent of Nigerians lived below the poverty line; that only about 40 percent had access to safe drinking water; that about 85 percent of the urban population lived in single houses with more than 7 occupants on the average; that only about 62 percent of Nigerians had access to primary health care; and that most Nigerians took less than one-third of the minimum required protein and vitamins (NigeriaWorld, 1999). This confirms that during this period in Nigeria, a larger "percentage of population" earned "less than one dollar per day;" it further confirms "the

severity of poverty in Nigeria” at this particular period (Edoh, 2003, pp. 69; 71). The incidence of poverty in Nigeria rose from 27.2 percent (which represented 17.1 million people of the country’s estimated population of 65 million people) in 1980 to 65.6 percent (which represented 67.1 million people of the country’s estimated population of 102.3 million people) in 1996, and this declined to 54.4 percent in 2004 (which represented 68.7 million people of the country’s estimated population of 126.3 million people); this implies that though there was an improvement between 1996 and 2004 but by 2009, the proportion of Nigerians who were poor had increased to twice the proportion in 1980 (NBS, 2005; Ashafa, 2009). By 2010, the Nigeria’s poverty incidence had risen to 69.0 percent; this represented 112.47 million people of the country’s estimated population of 163 million people (NBS, 2012a). The proportion of the non-poor fell from 72.8 percent in 1980 to 34.4 percent in 1996, rose to 43.3 percent in 2004, and fell to 31.0 percent in 2010; the proportion of those in the core poverty category increased from 6.2 percent in 1980 to 29.3 percent in 1996, fell to 22.0 percent in 2004, and rose to 38.7 percent in 2010. During the same period, the proportion of those moderately poor increased from 21.0 percent in 1980 to 36.33 percent in 1996, decreased to 32.4 percent in 2004, and increased to 38.7 percent in 2010 (NBS, 2012a). These figures confirm that the flow in poverty levels increased between 1980 and 1996 and the population in poverty rose sharply between 1980 and 1996 under which the proportion of non-poor in the population became less while that of core poor shot up throughout the period; the proportions in all these categories declined in 2004 and increased again in 2010.

Between 1980 and 1996, the poverty incidence in urban areas of the country increased from 17.2 percent to 59.3 percent; it fell to 43.2 percent in 2004, and increased again to 61.8 percent in 2010. In the rural Nigeria, poverty incidence rose from 28.3 percent to 71.7 percent

between 1980 and 1996; it crashed to 63.3 percent in 2004 and reached a high point of 73.2 percent in 2010 (FOS, 1999; NBS, 2012a). These figures show that in 1996, the incidence of poverty in both the urban and rural Nigeria doubled their 1980 levels; during this period, the high incidence of poverty was more glaring among the poorly educated rural and urban dwellers, illiterates, the aged, and women, especially, widows and unmarried women (Ukpong, 1999). In a nutshell, rural poverty incidence held sway over urban poverty incidence between 1980 and 2010, thereby clarifying that poverty in Nigeria is expansively a rural actuality (Anyanwu, 2012). This confirms that in most cases, poverty has no geographical boundary within family or general households in Nigeria; it is present with households in the north-west, north-east, north-central, south-west, south-east and south-south geographical zones of the country. In Nigeria, poverty is accumulated in households headed by informal sector workers, in small farm households, in the elderly and women that have got no social safety nets (FOS, 1999). A larger proportion of Nigerian households languish in poverty; the proportion of poor family households in the rural areas exceeds those at the urban centres; however, the urban slum-dwellers form one of the more deprived groups. In the words of Baker and Schuler (2004, p. 3), “there is a subset of characteristics that are more pronounced for the poor in urban areas and may require specific analysis;” this is analyzed to include commoditization (reliance on the cash economy); overcrowded living conditions (slums); environmental hazard (stemming from density and hazardous location of settlements, and exposure to multiple pollutants); social fragmentation (lack of community and inter-household mechanisms for social security, relative to those in rural areas); crime and violence; and traffic accidents; and natural disasters. According to Cities Alliance (2006), there are similarities in the conditions of the urban poor in most cities of the globe but such conditions are worst in most African cities. In the developing and transitional

world, hundreds of millions of the urban poor have no option than to live in neglected parts of cities (slums) where housing, mobility and general living conditions are terribly or seemingly poor. In a household, poverty has connection with a household's resource bestowals, organizational ability to manage and spread out resources, labour force position, available coping apparatuses and external or familial emergencies (Rakodi, 2002).

Table 2.1 Nigeria's Per Capital Income (1980 – 2011)

Year	Amount in US\$
1980	1,280
1990	240
1995	803
2006	1,025
2011	1,452

Table 2.2 Incidence of Poverty in Nigeria (1980 – 2010)

Year	Total Population in Million	Total People in Poverty In Million	Percentage of People in Poverty
1980	65	17.1	27.2
1996	102.3	67.1	65.6
2004	126.3	54.4	68.7
2010	163	112.47	69.0

2.6.2 Percentages of the Income Poor, Food Poor and Population Living in Poverty in Nigeria

Recent figures show that as at 2004 in Nigeria, 64.4 percent of the population lived under US\$1.25 a day while 83.9 percent of Nigerians lived under US\$2 a day (World Bank, 2011c; d). Using the 2007 estimates, CIA (2012) puts the population of people living below the poverty line in Nigeria at 70 percent. Using the-dollar-per-day measure, NBS (2012b, p. 4) reveals that “51.6 percent of Nigerians were living below US\$1 per day in 2004, but this increased to 61.2 percent in 2010;” that “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 the survey was conducted;” that “the north-west geo-political zone recorded the highest percentage of income poverty at 70.4 percent, while the south-west geo-political zone had the least at 50.1 percent;” that “Sokoto had the highest rate of income poverty among states at 81.9 percent, while Niger had the least at 33.9 percent.” The figures were arrived at by the NBS report using the dollar per day poverty line of ₦54,750; this

measure put into consideration all individuals whose expenditure per day was “less than a dollar per day using the exchange rate of Naira to Dollar in 2009/2010” which was ₦150 to US\$1 (NBS, 2012b, p. 10). An analysis of the WRI (2004) clearly reveals that Nigerians were indeed very poor no matter which yardstick indices were used to identify or measure the country’s incidence of poverty. The Institute analyzes that 70 percent of Nigeria’s population were living on less than US\$1.00 a day while 91percent of the population were living on less than US\$2.00 a day. According to World Bank (2012e; f), in Nigeria, the poverty headcount ratio at US\$1.25 a day (PPP) (% of population) as at 2010 was 67.98 percent while the poverty headcount ratio at US\$2 a day (PPP) (% of population) as at the same year was 84.49 percent. Further to this, it is stated that the poverty gap at US\$1.25 a day (PPP) (%) as at 2010 was 33.74 percent while the poverty gap at US\$2 a day (PPP) (%) as at the same year was 50.17 percent (World Bank (2012g; h). Poverty gap is explained to mean the shortfall from the poverty line (counting the non-poor as having zero shortfall), expressed as a percentage of the poverty line whose measure reflects the depth of poverty as well as its incidence (World Bank, 2012h) . The figure captured by World Bank (2011e) as that of those living below US\$1.25 a day as at 2004 was 64.41 percent.

Regarding the percentage of people who are food poor in Nigeria, WAI (2010) reports that over 53 million, which was about 30 percent of the country’s total population were food poor; this is despite the fact that agriculture contributed 42 percent of the GDP and provided employment and a means of livelihood for more than 60 percent of the productively engaged population. This is attributed to the discovery of crude oil and rising revenue from the country’s petroleum sector which “encouraged official neglect of the agricultural sector and turned Nigeria into a net importer of food, and to underfunding of the agricultural sector which was central to

the crisis of food production, and food security in Nigeria” (p. 1) Corroborating this, World Bank (2012a) reports that agriculture was the main source of revenue for two-thirds of the population but the petroleum industry provided 95 percent of foreign trade earnings and about 80 percent of budget revenues. NBS (2012a) reveals that 33.6 percent of Nigerians were food poor in 2004, but this increased to 41.0 percent in 2010; that the north-west geo-political zone recorded the highest percentage of food poverty at 51.8 percent, while the south-west geo-political zone had the least at 25.4 percent; that Gombe had the highest rate of food poverty among the states at 71.5 percent, while Lagos had the least at 14.6 percent. NBS (2012a) further confirms that these figures on food poverty were arrived at using a food poverty line of ₦39,759.49 at an exchange rate of Naira to Dollar in 2009/2010 which was ₦150 to US\$1; this food poverty line is an aspect of absolute poverty measure which put into consideration “only food expenditure for the affected households” (NBS, 2012a, p. 10).

Regarding the percentage of people living in poverty in Nigeria and with respect to subjective poverty which is based on self-assessment and “sentiments” from respondents, the Nigeria’s Poverty Profile Report reveals that “75.5 percent of Nigerians considered themselves to be poor in 2004, and in 2010 the number went up to 93.9%.” and that the “FCT recorded the most number of people who considered themselves to be poor at 97.9 percent;” while “Kaduna recorded the least number of people who considered themselves poor at 90.5 percent; with respect to relative poverty, the report reveals that “in 2004, Nigeria’s relative poverty measurement stood at 54.4 percent, but increased to 69 percent (or 112,518,507 Nigerians) in 2010;” that “the north-west and north-east geo-political zones recorded the highest poverty rates in the country with 77.7 percent and 76.3 percent respectively in 2010, while the south-west geo-political zone recorded the lowest at 59.1 percent;” and that “among States, Sokoto had the

highest poverty rate at 86.4 percent while Niger had the lowest at 43.6 percent in the year under review. (NBS, 2012a; b, p. 5).” With respect to absolute poverty in terms of the minimal requirements necessary to afford minimal standards of food, clothing, healthcare and shelter, the report reveals that “54.7 percent of Nigerians were living in absolute poverty in 2004 but this increased to 60.9 percent (or 99,284,512 Nigerians) in 2010;” that “among the geo-political zones, the north-west and north-east recorded the highest rates at 70 percent and 69 percent respectively, while the south- west had the least at 49.8 percent;” and that “at the state level, Sokoto had the highest at 81.2 percent while Niger had the least at 33.8 percent during the review period.” Further to all these, the NBS Report estimates that relative, absolute and dollar per day poverty “may have further risen slightly to about 71.5 percent, 61.9 percent and 62.8 percent respectively in 2011” (NBS, 2012a; b, p. 5).

2.6.3 Major Determinants of Poverty in Nigeria

In Nigeria, there are a number of the determinants of poverty or the factors that contribute to poverty. According to Ucha (2010), such factors or causes include: unemployment, corruption, non-diversification of the economy (oil over-dependency), inequality, laziness, and poor educational system. In relation to unemployment, (Ucha, 2010, p. 51) states that it is “a major factor contributing to poverty in Nigeria;” there are lots of unemployed people in the country as being well educated is no more guarantee to being employed.” The correlation between high level of unemployment and widespread poverty is positively strong as “in most cases, those without regular employment or with only scattered part-time employment are among the very poor” (Osinubi 2005, p. 259). This explains the reason employment is indispensable in any development strategy that is poverty focused (Todaro, 1985). In other words, when people are employed, the incidence of poverty is reduced. Unemployment is a very serious issue in Nigeria

and thus remains one of the major determinants of poverty in the country as there is a strong relationship between unemployment and poverty (Englama 2001; Ucha, 2010). The country was estimated to have 23.9 percent unemployment rate for 2011, which ranked it 169th in the world (CIA, 2012). The findings of a survey conducted by Nigeria's Bureau of Statistics confirmed that Nigeria had an unemployment rate of 23.9 percent in 2011 compared to 21.1 percent and 19.7 percent in 2010 and 2009 respectively. Further to this, the findings confirmed that the unemployment rate was "higher in the rural areas (25.6 percent) than in the urban areas (17.1 percent)", and that "persons aged 0 to 14 years constituted 39.6 percent, those aged between 15 and 64 (the economically active population), constituted 56.3 percent, while those aged 65 years and above constituted 4.2 percent" of those unemployed (NBS, 2012c, p. 10). According to Sanusi (2011), the rate of youth unemployment in Nigeria was 41.6 percent in 2011 where in gender-specific terms; he confirmed the rate to be 23.3 percent for males and 17 percent for females within the age bracket of 15 and 24 years. In a study conducted by Osinubi (2005) using secondary data "sourced from World Bank Publications, IMF Publications, United Nations Publications, Nigeria's Federal office of Statistics Publications and Central Bank of Nigeria Publications," and covering a period of 31 years (1976 – 2001), it was confirmed that "unemployment is highly correlated with poverty" (pp. 262-263; 265). In a related study conducted by Aiyedogbon and Ohwofasa (2012), it was revealed that between 1987 and 2011 in Nigeria, unemployment had positive significant impact on incidence of poverty, implying that the "positive relationship means that a unit increase in unemployment, for example, led to 0.02 percent increase in poverty level within the period under review" (p. 277). This correlation is not unconnected with the very fact that unemployment in Nigeria creates welfare loss with respect to lower output, and from this emerges lower income and well-being, coupled with the fact that it

appears as a gigantic waste of the manpower resources of the country (Olajide, 1981). Nigeria's past experience from empirical evidences shows that the higher the rate of unemployment, the higher the rate of poverty. For example, in Nigeria, the steady increase in unemployment rate between 2004 and 2011 was attended by increase in the rate of poverty; unemployment rate in 2004 was 13.4 percent with poverty rate of 54.4 percent; in 2010, unemployment rate rose to 21.1 percent with the poverty rate being 69 percent and in 2011, the unemployment rate rose to 23.9 percent with the poverty rate being estimated at 71.5 percent (NBS, 2012a; b; IMF, 2012). The implication of unemployment-induced poverty in Nigeria is that it "tends to increase the crime rate and violence in the country;" this is so because "most unemployed youths resort to crimes such as armed robbery, kidnapping for ransom, internet fraud and other forms of fraudulent activities" (Ucha, 2010, p. 51).

Related to unemployment is the form of employment which has also been argued to be a determinant of poverty in Nigeria. This is reflected in Appleton, Mckay and Alayande (2008) where a public sector premium is suggested in the analysis of the 2003/2004 Nigeria Living Standards Survey (NLSS). Their analysis reveals that "if all household members were employed in public sector, welfare would be 22 percent higher, *ceteris paribus*," which implies that "public sector employment has a significant effect in reducing the probability of being poor" (p. 353). Also, in a study by Anyanwu (2012), it is revealed that while household heads "in administrative occupations had the highest incidence of poverty in 1980 (44.7 percent), in 1985, it was those in production/transportation sector (46.5 percent) (p. 10)." Subsequently, "in 1992 agriculture/forestry sector household heads had a modestly high poverty incidence (47.8 percent). In 1996, the production/transportation workers had the highest poverty incidence of 72.8 percent while in 2004 it was the agriculture/forestry sector workers with 67.0 percent"

(Anyanwu, 2012, p. 10). These findings by Appleton, Mckay and Alayande (2008) and Anyanwu (2012) are clear indication that form of employment may determine poverty.

Another determinant of poverty in Nigeria is corruption which has been defined to involve “the violation of established rules for personal gain and profit” or “the misuse of public power for private gain” or “efforts to secure wealth or power through illegal means” or making “private gain at public expense” (Sen, 2001, p. 275; Rose-Ackerman: 1999, p. 9; Lipset and Lenz, 2000, p. 112). Corruption “has almost become an accepted way of life in Nigeria;” government funds are constantly stolen by the political leaders and government officials who solely put the interest of their family and friends at heart at the expense of the masses, the effect of which “has increased poverty and inequality as well as contributed to high crime rates” (Ucha, 2010, p. 51). Corollary to this are some other factors like the “use of wrong policies, adaptation to wrong policies and implementation of those wrong policies” which are involved in bad governance in Nigeria (Ucha, 2010, pp. 51 – 52). Corrupt practices in Nigeria include: bribery, embezzlement, fraud, extortion, nepotism, and favouritism (Bayart, Ellis and Hibou, 1997; Girling, 1997). Nigeria ranked 139th out of 176 countries, 143 out of 182 countries, and 134 out of 178 countries in 2012, 2011, and 2010 respectively in the Transparency International Corruption Perceptions Indexes (Transparency International, 2012a; b; c).

Corruption correlates with poverty in Nigeria in that it “siphons off goods and money intended to alleviate poverty,” and also “reduces economic growth through negative influence on investments in human capital, while on the other hand, it has strong negative effects on economic growth by lowering the amount and quality of public infrastructure and services supplied to the nation as a whole” (Transparency International, 2008, p. 2; Ogboru, 2007, p. 68). Reduction in economic growth in turn heightens the level of poverty apart from surviving on less than a

certain income; those in poverty do not have access to adequate health, education, sanitation, basic civil rights, empowerment and human development which are characteristics of poverty (Sen, 2001). These anchors of development are easily impeded by corruption in countries where government is not accountable for their actions, which often culminates in poverty (Moore, 2006). In Nigeria, cases of corruption are endless particularly in the confines of governance under both the military and civilian governments. For example, in year 2000, family and friends of former military head of state of Nigeria, General Sani Abacha who died in 1998 were reported to have had access to accounts and depositing amounts as much as US\$600 million to Swiss banks which were believed to be products of corruption. During this same year, over US \$1 billion were discovered in many European accounts (Pallister, 2000). The demise of this head of state opened a lot more corrupt practices perpetrated by those in power like the one involving the award of a gas plant construction whose investigation by the French led to a number of accounts having in them almost US\$100 million being frozen (Igbikiowubo, 2004). Also, following a probe by the Nigerian Senate in 2008, the civilian regime of Chief Olusegun Obasanjo was reported to have misappropriated as much as US\$16 billion spent on the power sector as Nigeria had no steady power for an average of eight (8) hours during his regime (Vanguard Newspaper, March, 2008). According to the Human Rights Watch (2007), the civilian regime of President Olusegun Obasanjo made an estimated US\$223 billion between 1999 and 2003, a period of eight years (8) years of which a minimum average of US\$4 billion to US\$8 billion (representing between 4.25 percent and 9.5 percent of total GDP of Nigeria in 2006) was lost to corruption on annual basis.

Regarding non-diversification of the economy, which refers to over-dependence on oil with respect to Nigeria, there exists a link between this and poverty. According to Ross (2003, p.

4), those in poverty can be hurt by mineral wealth such as oil “by causing economic volatility; by crowding out the manufacturing and agriculture sectors; by heightening inequality; by inducing violent conflict; and by undermining democracy;” all these exist in Nigeria. Ucha states that oil over-dependency is a major contributing factor to poverty in Nigeria as the successive governments “have practically ignored other sources of income” depending hugely on oil export (Dutch disease); between 1958 and 1984, the oil sector rose from 1 percent of the country’s export revenue to 97 percent and not below 90 percent thereafter, while the agricultural sector that used to be the country’s major source of income before oil was discovered has continuously been relegated to the background and “considered almost useless” (p. 52). In year 2000, Nigeria’s export income from oil was 99.6 percent which at that time made it the “world’s most oil-dependent country” (Ross, 2003, p. 2).

The Dutch disease, which makes Nigeria less competitive among the community of nations lowers its economic fortunes and thereby contributes to the incidence of poverty in the country. According to Ross (2003), the oil industry in Nigeria generated approximately US\$231 billion in rents between 1970 and 1999 which meant that there ought to be US\$1,900 available to every man, woman, and child but this was not the case because the rents were unable to raise income and alleviate poverty as its per capita during this period fell from \$264 to \$250 a year. Ross clarifies that if the yearly oil rents were invested in a fund that generated five percent real interest, the fund would have appreciated to US\$454 billion by the end of 1999 which would have meant that approximately US\$3,750 would have been available to every man, woman, and child which equivalent to almost 15 years of wages. The World Bank Country Director, Ms Marie Francoise Marie-Nelly was reported to have stated in an interview with Economic Confidential that "as oil resources are not indefinite, it is important for Nigeria to plan now what

it wants to be after tomorrow” (Anaro, 2012) Therefore, for Nigeria to diversify its economy that is oil dependent, it would need foreign investment coming in to improve its vast “reserves of bitumen, tin, bauxite, iron ore and gold, as well as the potential to develop a vibrant tourism business” (BBC News, 2002, January 16) By so doing, more money will be generated to tackle poverty provided there is political will to do so.

With respect to inequality, Olaniyan and Awoyemi (2005, p. 3) state that “rising inequality threatens growth and poverty reduction targets;” and that “the higher the level of inequality, the less impact economic growth has in reducing poverty – for any rate of economic growth.” According to Ucha (2010), inequality has tremendously heightened the incidence of poverty in the country as income, consumption, and other welfare indicators or attributes are lopsidedly distributed amongst its populace; the disparity between the income of the richest 10 and 20 percent and the poorest 10 and 20 percent is very high in the country, and the rural-urban income inequality is colossally high “as those who live in the rural areas base all their income on agriculture which is today not a thriving sector” (p. 53). According to Olaniyan and Awoyemi (2005, p. 3), “poverty and income inequalities are two of the important disturbing factors on the way to development in developing countries.” Framed in another way, they emphasize that “structural inequalities especially in income and input distributions is a manifestation as well as a strong cause of poverty.” NBS (2005; 2012a) confirm that 51.6% of Nigerians were income poor in 2004; and this rose to 61.2% in 2010. These figures reflect a high level of income inequality in the country. In a study conducted by Bakare (2012), it was revealed that “there is income inequality in Nigeria which allows the rich to be getting richer and the poor getting poorer on daily basis;” that “Nigeria is “a country with highly unequal income distribution that has a Gini coefficient that lies between 0.46 and 0.60;” that “the illiteracy rate in Nigeria shows

high disparity in the income level of Nigeria;” and that “the redistribution of income might be a source of poverty since income in the hands of the of the minority will lead to increase in illiteracy” (p. 52). The incidence of consumption inequality is equally high in Nigeria. NBS (2005, 2012a) report that 33.1% of Nigerians were food poor in 2004 and this rose to 41.0% in 2010; thereby suggesting a high level of consumption inequality in the country.

In relation to laziness, Ucha writes that it is contributory to the poverty incidence in the country as in a number of cases, “the death of the bread winner means the death of the whole family fortunes because everyone was depending on him or her to provide everything;” a number of people particularly from affluent households depends on the family wealth to live comfortable lives of which more often than not becomes unsustainable for them following the demise of the family bread winner thereby throwing them into the poverty trap (p. 54). And regarding poor educational system, he states that it is a contributing factor to poverty in Nigeria as “the population with no education accounts for most of the poor;” the educational system in the country is seemingly a failure if compared to what obtains in some other countries in the world as a number of people, most of whom are of the female gender are denied education because they are either “considered the inferior sex” or “are expected to marry as early as possible” (p. 54). Though, the idea of the relationship between poverty and laziness seems unclear but it cannot be totally wished away when such works as those of Feagin (1975); Reutter, et al (2006); and Lepianka, Van Oorschot and Gelissen (2009) are considered. In his work which is one of the first large studies of attributions for poverty in the US, Feagin (1975) finds out that an idea that laziness is a cause of poverty was supported more strongly than structural causes and fatalistic attributions such as discrimination and bad luck. In their work on public attributions for poverty in Canada, Reutter, et al (2006) state that up to one quarter of participants in a survey

agreed that laziness is a reason for poverty. This may appear not to be significant but it is indeed relevant to discourse on laziness and poverty. As for the work of Lepianka, Van Oorschot and Gelissen (2009) on popular explanations of poverty, it is stated that a significant number of people captured by their research mentioned laziness as a specific reason for poverty.

In Nigeria, geographical/location variable is also a cause/determinant of poverty. Confirming this in their study, Appleton, Mckay and Alayande (2008) stated that in Nigeria, “living in urban areas raised welfare around 28 percent in the simple regression” and that “the Federal Capital Territory (the default), the south west or the south south were the most favourable areas to reside in *ceteris paribus*, and did not differ significantly from each other at the 5 percent level” (p. 352). In his own study, Anyanwu (2012) showed that while “the north west had the highest level of poverty for the periods, 1980 and 1996 and “the north east had the highest in 1985, 1992, and 2004, the south east had the lowest level of poverty during the periods 1980, 1985, and 2003-2004 and interestingly, the north west had the lowest poverty level in 1996” (p. 11). Further to this, Anyanwu (2012) stated that “on the basis of the overall general trend over the years, many analysts have thus argued that Nigerian poverty is largely a northern phenomenon.” (p. 11). These studies are clear indication that geographical/location variable may be a determinant of poverty in Nigeria.

Household educational attainment is another determinant of poverty in Nigeria. In the developing world, education is frequently “identified as a key area where public investment can lead to poverty reduction;” in the region of Africa, “a strong correlation between poverty and lack of education” is usually seen (Appleton, 2001, p. 1). According to Gardner (1998), education represents an indicator for national socio-economic development; therefore, the proportion of literate population in a country represents a positive indicator of development.

With respect to poverty, education is described as critical variable and lack of education as an overwhelming characteristic among the extreme poor (Canagarajah, Ngwafon and Thomas, 1997). According to Appleton (2000), there exists an association between a year of education and 3 to 14 percent increases in wages and productivity; education is thus “a very important factor enabling individuals get access to wage jobs which accords them the opportunity of obtaining “often substantially higher earnings within these jobs” (Appleton, Mckay and Alayande, 2008, p. 366). Educational attainment centers on indicators such as years of schooling completed, level of education completed or ability to read and write (Barro and Lee, 2010; Thomas, Wang and Fan, 2001; Psacharopoulos and Arriagada, 1986). In Nigeria, the incidence of poverty is highly related to educational attainment as household with heads that have got little or no education experience the highest poverty incidence, depth and severity (OSSAP-MDGs, 2010a; b; Ojowu, Bulus and Omonona, 2007). According to Akerele and Adewuyi (2011, p. 6) “educational attainment enhances human capital and participation in labour market and has been widely accepted as a veritable tool for poverty reduction and improving peoples’ welfare.” In Nigeria, for those who got little education or none, the incidence of poverty is high; this implies that education is a vital determinant of poverty. There exists a relationship between education and poverty because education increases the stock of human capital under which the level of educational attainment increases labour productivity and wages. This can be explained under the premise that labour represents the most vital asset of those who are in poverty; a lot of people in poverty do not find education attractive and attainable even when it is publicly provided because they find themselves in a fix of opportunity cost, this often results them to choosing to work to eke their living and shunning education. When the level of educational attainment of people is increased; their level of poverty is reduced. Low level of educational attainment seemingly

culminates in a vicious cycle of poverty where low education results in poverty and poverty results in low educational attainment (Bastos, et al., 2009). Education thus provides people with pieces of information and technological advancements that have the capability of enhancing economic activities (Ruel, et al., 1998; Oniang'o and Makudi, 2002).

In their study, Canagarajah, Ngwafon and Thomas (1997) reported that the incidence of poverty was 48 percent in households where the head had no education in 1985 in Nigeria while it was 28 percent where the household head had secondary education. This declined in both types of households to 39 percent and 23 percent respectively in 1992. Available statistical data in Nigeria did confirm that household heads with no education had a higher proportion of poverty than those with at least primary education. The computation of Anyanwu (2012) from National Consumer Survey of 1980, 1985, 1992, 1996 and 2004 revealed that in 1996, 74.1 percent of household heads who had no education were poor while in 2003/2004, 68.7 percent of household heads who had no education were poor; as for those who attained post-secondary education, 47.8 percent and 26.3 percent of them were poor in 1996 and 2003/2004 respectively (FOS, 1999, NBS, 2005). UNDP (2009b) in the Human Development of Nigeria (2008 – 2009), reported the existence of “educational dimension to poverty in Nigeria” stressing that the superior the educational attainment, the reduced the poverty incidence. The report stated that there was concentration of poverty among people that had got no education and those that attained primary level of education and that the tendency of highest level of poverty was positive where the household head had no formal education. The report further stated that in 2004, the overall poverty incidence of households whose heads had no formal schooling was 48 percent while that of households whose heads were educated up to the secondary level was 30 percent;

therefore, “it follows that the more educated the household head, the less probability of the household falling into poverty” (pp. 65; 72)

Analyzing the 2003/2004 Nigeria Living Standards Survey (NLSS) by using only adults that have completed their education as their education measures, Appleton, McKay and Alayande (2008, pp. 345; 350) stated that their results implied that a household where all members completed their schooling “would have welfare about a quarter (24 percent)” higher than a household of comparable measure whose members were all unschooled. This was based on Nigerian education system which consisted of “six years of primary and secondary education.” Further to this, they stated that “if all adults had attended university, welfare would be 87 percent higher *ceteris paribus*,” attending polytechnic and teacher training educational institutions “had somewhat smaller effects, at 48 percent and 20 percent respectively.” In a study conducted by Akerele and Adewuyi (2011), it was revealed that in Nigeria, the educational level of household heads had significant relationship with the incidence of poverty and that although it appeared that incidence of poverty was higher among households whose head had secondary school education, however, this did not downplay the importance of education in poverty reduction. Further to this, they stated that an additional year gained by the household head to acquire formal education would lead to rise in household income whose implication was enhanced welfare of household members. This evidences the positive impact of education on poverty reduction and implies that the level of poverty increases significantly when one has got little or no education in Nigeria and that poverty decreases significantly when one attains post-secondary educational level. In other words, when one has not got any formal education, the odds of being in poverty are increased but when one attains the post-secondary educational level, the odds of being in poverty is decreased. Using a set of household data, the P-alpha class measures of poverty, a linear regression analysis

and participatory poverty assessment method in seeking the perception of the people on the influence of low education attainment on the incidence of poverty, Ijaiya and Nuhu (2011) in a related study confirmed that in Nigeria, low educational attainment had a significant influence on the level of poverty. In this study, the head count poverty index was (0.54) which represented 54 percent of the population of households under study.

Household size is also a determinant of poverty in Nigeria. According to Lanjouw and Ravallion (1994, p. 17), “one of the stylized facts about poverty in developing countries is that large families tend to be poorer.” Large family household size in most developing countries of the world is not unconnected to absence of “well developed social security systems and low savings” particularly in Africa where the fertility rate is very high among the poor who in anticipation of not wanting to live in poverty or suffer hunger at their old ages increase the number of their children so as to have a high probability of getting support from these children at their old ages (Anyanwu, 2012, p. 16). It is not also unconnected with the high rate of infant and child mortality in these countries, which often propels excess replacement of births to be insured for the future (Schultz, 1981). Using the 2004 National Consumer Survey as the basis of analysis, the computation of Anyanwu (2012) did confirm that in Nigeria, the incidence of poverty was high in large households; correlation thus exists between the household size and poverty levels. Available statistical data in Nigeria did confirm that households with a single person exhibited the least incidence of poverty, while households with as much as 20 persons and above exhibited the highest incidence of poverty. The incidence of national poverty with the households with at least a single person was 12.6 percent while that of households with more than 20 persons was 87.1 percent in 2003/2004.

UNDP (2009b) reported that poverty incidence was “found to increase with household size” in Nigeria; this is because “the larger the size of the household, the larger the resources required to meet basic needs of food and other necessities.” According to the report, in 2004, a household that comprised of four or more individuals had poverty incidence that surpassed the national average; households that consisted of nine or more individuals constituted more than 70 percent of poor households while households with 20 or more individuals constituted more than 90 percent of poor households. In the same year, households with 5 – 9 individuals contributed 59 percent to poverty while households with 10 – 19 individuals contributed 20 percent to poverty; this thus confirms that “the larger the household size, the higher the likelihood of falling among the poor” (pp. 67; 72). Corroborating this, Anyanwu (2005, p. 435) confirmed that household size was “positively and significantly correlated with the probability of being poor;” thereby confirming household size as an important factor determining poverty in Nigeria as it got national poverty increased in Nigeria. Using the fixed-effect regression model in a study, Omonona (2010, p. 3) identified large family size as one of the factors that influenced poverty; the study which investigated the nature of their influence on poverty in rural households for 1996 and 2004 confirmed that “large family size reduces welfare in most regions of Nigeria” and that ‘the larger the household size, the poorer the family.’ In their study, Akerele and Adewuyi (2011) revealed that an increase in household size was significantly related to an increase poverty situation among households in the study area; this was with high values of incidence, depth and severity for household with 7 to 10 members. The study further revealed that the situation might be worse still if the increase in household size translated into more dependants who did not contribute to the household income. In a related study, (Etim and Ukoha 2010, pp. 50-51), confirmed that “poverty incidence and severity increase with increase in size of

household members;” they further confirmed that “72 percent of households with more than 10 members captured by their study were impoverished” while “28 percent of households with less than 5 members were poor;” and that “the contribution of 1–5 members subgroup to the whole group’s poverty incidence was 4 percent, whereas it was 41 percent and 55 percent for the 6–10 and 11–15 members sub-groups, respectively.” In their study, Ijaiya and Nuhu (2011) estimated poverty indices by measuring the well-being of the households it captured “by their total consumption-expenditure and by their household size using the adult equivalent scale;” the study established households’ consumption–expenditure as a cut-off point; this represented the poverty line having used one dollar per day as consumption-expenditure of the households captured by the study. The study revealed that 54 percent of the households captured by it were poor (p. 86).

Lastly, gender/sex and age compositions of family/households may determine poverty in Nigeria. In relation to gender/sex composition of family/households and poverty, it was stated in a study by Appleton (1996) that “the linkages between gender and poverty have been a major issue in discussions of the role and effectiveness of policy intervention in developing countries” (p. 1811). He went ahead to identify a number of “observable factors that account for rough economic parity of women and men-headed households” to include women and men headed households’ marital status and schooling, remittances, household size, dependency ratio, and cultivatable land (pp. 1; 1819-1823). In a related study by Anyanwu (2010), it was stated that “an understanding of gendered poverty is a precondition for effective pro-poor development strategies” and that “the determinants of gendered poverty are not only complex but also multidimensional, involving, among other things, age, location, education, and occupation (p. 40). With respect to Nigeria, Appleton, Mckay and Alayande (2008) in their study stated that there were “subtle relations between welfare and gender” under which the female headed

households were associated with lower welfare *ceteris paribus* – 9 percent lower in the regression; they stated further that it seemingly appeared that women as heads of households did encounter various disadvantages but that there was tendency for “more prosperous households” to have in them “a higher proportion of women” (p. 351). With respect to Nigeria, Anyanwu (2010; 2012) in his studies revealed that in female-headed households, incidence of poverty was higher and this applied to female-headed households in all the six geographical zones of the country, it was 29.1 percent while that of male-headed households was 26.9 percent; this had changed since 1985 as male headed households had since been characterized by a higher incidence of poverty with the widest gap in 2003/2004, during this period, while the poverty incidence for of male-headed households was 56.5 percent, that of female-headed households was 36.5 percent. These studies are clear indication that sex composition of family/households determines poverty in Nigeria.

With respect to age composition and incidence of poverty in Nigeria, Appleton, McKay and Alayande (2008) did reveal that the higher the proportions of people aged 65, the strong the negative effect on welfare, as did “the proportion of children aged 5-15 years of age,” and also, that there existed a relationship between “increased proportion of children under five in the household” and higher welfare (p. 351). Anyanwu (2012) revealed that between 1992 and 2004, “poverty tended to decline marginally” following the age group 45 to 54 years, and that in general terms, poverty heightened alongside the age group of household head which implied that poverty rose “at old age as the productivity” of an individual declined with an attendant “few savings to compensate for this loss of productivity and income” (pp. 10; 16). These studies are clear indication that age composition of family/households determines poverty in Nigeria.

2.6.4 Poverty Reduction Strategies in Nigeria

Todaro (1982) gives a summary of the policy options for attacking poverty to include policies affecting economic growth and demand for labour and policies affecting the accumulation and sustainability of asset. The former includes policies designed to get price incentives right and thereby correct biases against demand for unskilled labour and rural outputs and policies such as labour market regulations which inhibit the growth of labour markets and macro-economic policies which influence the distributional impact of fiscal spending in favour of the poor. The latter includes policies designed to modify the size distribution of income and human capital development, policies designed to enable the poor to take advantage of economic opportunities, policies designed to confer access to basic life sustaining social services such as education, health and family planning services, and policies designed to promote indigenous technological research and development, assets redistribution policies designed to govern finance/capital, land and the environment.

Nigeria has history in poverty reduction/alleviation efforts. According to Aigbokan (2008), Nigeria has adopted different poverty reduction/alleviation strategies which include economic growth strategy; basic needs approach, rural development approach, targeting approach, and employment oriented approach. Years before the commencement of the implementation of the MDGs, Nigeria's first three National Development Plans had economic growth as its main focus and this indirectly dealt with the poverty reduction/alleviation issues. Following this was another National Development Plan that consisted of policies targeted at poverty reduction/alleviation. Nigeria evolved a catalogue of programmes targeted at reducing the hardship Nigerians faced to arrest some of the decline in social service delivery, particularly to the poor. Such programmes according to Famutimi and Omosulu (2008) include Operation

Feed the Nation (OFN), National Agricultural Land Development Authority (NALDA), National Primary Health Scheme (NPHS), National Agency for Mass Literacy (NAML), Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP), National Directorate of Foods, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI), National Directorate of Employment (NDE), and the Better Life/Family Support Programmes (BLD/FSP). Specifically, beginning from mid 80s through to the 90s, Nigeria embarked on several projects and programmes and the slogan of the government was year 2000 (housing for all by year 2000; education for all by year 2000; health for all by year 2000 and so on) but all these were either abandoned or suspended at the end of the day (Odewale, Aribaba and Adeyeye, 2008). Famutimi and Omosulu (2008) list measures and institutions introduced to help reduce poverty particularly in the 90s to include Petroleum Trust Fund (PTF), Peoples' Bank of Nigeria, (PBN), Community Banks (CB), Federal Urban Mass Transit Agency (FUMTA), Federal Environmental Protection Agency (FEPA), Federal Economic Advancement Programme (FEAP), and the Education Tax Fund (ETF). Virtually all the pre MDGs implementation efforts of Nigeria's government to reduce/alleviate poverty have failed to deliver the desired result because of a number of political, social and economical reasons; whoever one is or wherever one comes from, the incidence of poverty is on the individual (Oladunni, 1999). In one statement, the major problem with Nigeria in its efforts towards poverty reduction/alleviation is the targeting problem (Lipton and Ravallion, 1995). The observation of Bardhan and Mookherjee (2003) that decentralization of anti-poverty programmes can result in reduction of targeting failures has not helped Nigeria out of poverty because quite a number of the poverty reduction strategies that have been decentralized have not yielded any positive results.

Some current efforts of the Nigerian government, specifically from year 2000 towards poverty alleviation include Poverty Alleviation Programme (PAP), National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP), National Economic Empowerment Strategies (NEEDS) which is MDGs based, National Programme for Food Security (NPFS), Microfinance Banking, Vision 20: 2020 and the Seven Point Agenda. PAP is an interim policy introduced early 2000 to address the problems of rising unemployment and crime wave, particularly among youths. It has an ultimate aim of increasing the welfare of Nigerians. Specifically, PAP has three primary objectives which are to “reduce the problem of unemployment and hence raise effective demand in the economy;” to “increase the productiveness of the economy;” and to “drastically reduce the embarrassing crime wave in the society” (Obadan, 2002, p. 51). In order to achieve these objectives, the Nigerian government put in place several measures which included “increase in salary of public sector workers,” and “improving the supervisory capacity within the nation’s institutions.” Also, the measures included “encouraging and rewarding all deserving Nigerians for industry and enterprises and launching of the Universal Basic Education Programme” (Alehile, 2009, p. 45). These measures notwithstanding, “the programme appeared to be ad-hoc in orientation with little attention paid to the policy framework.” PAP placed emphasis on “massive construction and other public work projects” and this “made it look like a one-off affair rather than making it a revolving one.” Also, it “paid little attention to the framework of allocation of funds, sustainability aspect of the PAP and the needed collaborative arrangements for its success;” its political connotation “served as an important threat to the success of the programme;” it “lacked appropriate framework for beneficiary targeting;” and “the timing and phasing of the direct labour (200,000 jobs) were not explicitly stated” despite the fact that “this aspect was very crucial to the success of the programme” (Obadan, 2002, p. 53).

As for NAPEP, it was introduced early 2001; and it focuses on the provision of “strategies for the eradication of absolute poverty in Nigeria” (FRN 2001, p. 3). NAPEP is under the supervision of the National Poverty Eradication Council (NAPEC) which is charged with the responsibility of “coordinating all poverty eradication programmes of all government agencies and parastatals and ministries with the aim of ensuring the central planning and coordination of all poverty reduction programmes in the country.” Poverty eradication under NAPEP are classified into four namely Youth Empowerment Scheme (YES), Rural Infrastructure and Development Scheme (RIDS), Social Welfare Service Scheme (SOWESS), and the Natural Resources Development and Conservative Scheme (NRDCS) (Alehile, 2009, p. 45). To ensure that NAPEP overcomes the inadequacies of the previous programmes, Aliu (2001, pp. 12 - 13) confirms that its blueprint is characterized by the following:

“it adopts the participatory bottom-up approach in programme implementation and monitoring; it provides for rational framework which lays emphasis on appropriate and sustainable institutional arrangement; it provides for pro-active and affirmative action deliberately targeted at women, youths, farmers and the disabled; it provides for inter-ministerial and inter-agency cooperation; it provides for the participation of all registered political parties, traditional rulers, and the communities; it provides for technology acquisition and development particularly for agriculture and industry; it provides for capacity building for existing skills acquisition and training centres; it provides for the provision of agricultural and industrial extension services to rural areas; it provides for institutional development for marketing of agricultural and industrial products; and it provides for integrated schemes for youth empowerment, development of infrastructure, provision of social welfare services and exploitation of natural resources.”

Though laudable, this programme is not being properly implemented; an analysis in support of this is that of Wohlmuth, Alabi and Burger (2008) that claims that the programme has been able to train 130,000 youths and engaged 216,000 persons, but most of the beneficiaries were non-poor. This programme is getting off its target by the day and this has been strongly attributed to corruption. According to Ibekwe (2011), from the KEKE NAPEP project alone, up

to ₦600 million was stolen. If this trend continues, NAPEP programme would be a complete failure in a couple of years, just as the ones that preceded it.

Regarding NEEDS, it is a comprehensive medium-term growth and development programme based on some core principles (NPC, 2004a). It was a reform programme devised to cover 2004 to 2007; it was “aimed at re-engineering the growth process,” as its process of formulation was “largely participatory;” its focus was on “strategy and policy directions rather than programmes and projects;” and implementation of its aspects predated the official launching of the strategy paper (Akpobasah, 2004, p. 2). NEEDS did have equivalents at both the state and local government levels, known as State Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (SEEDS) and Local Government Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (LEEDS) respectively (OSSAP-MDGs, 2010a). Approval and adoption of NEEDS by the regime of President Olusegun Obasanjo was instrumental to the debt reprieve granted the country in 2005 by the Paris Club. Further to this, NPC (2004a) did state that the scope and contents of NEEDS were divided into four parts which included employment generation, poverty reduction, wealth creation and value reorientation which were not covered by 2007 which was the targeted year for its complete implementation. Corroborating this, the Nigerian government through the then Minister/Deputy Chairman of NPC, the coordinating institution for NEEDS programmes, Senator Abdullah Wali, in a report did admit the failure of NEEDS to achieve significant results in the medium term. He stated that NEEDS had a lot of challenges and that the major challenges were not only in the areas of infrastructural crisis but also high poverty level and high dependence of the nation’s economy on oil exports. Some other challenges highlighted were low contribution of secondary activities to yearly GDP, low aggregate demand, high cost of production, high rates as well as high import dependence of the economy, especially on capital

and intermediate goods import (Ogefere, 2007). Within the academic circle, the failure of NEEDS was variously attributed to corruption, disregarding the poor as the core, discrepancies in pro-poor programmes, reprehensible implementation of pro-poor programmes, and a visible detachment between the poor and the government (Ugoh, and Ukpere, 2009; Ogwumike, 2002; Adogamhe, 2010).

The 7-Point Agenda and the Vision 20: 2020 which were NEEDS-based and aimed at ensuring steady progress of the MDGs were two key policies of Late President Umaru Musa Yar'adua who was President Olusegun Obasanjo's successor (OSSAP-MDGs, 2010a). The 7-Point Agenda accommodated power and energy, food security and agriculture, wealth creation and employment, mass transportation, land reform, security and qualitative and functional education (Arizona-Ogwu 2008; NigeriaFirst, 2012). As for the Nigeria's Vision 20: 2020, the key target was that "Nigeria will become one of the first 20 economies in the world by 2020" (Onyenekenwa, 2011, p. 1); this was seemingly with the hope that the country would have the ability to cement its leadership role within the African continent and constitute itself as a vital player in the economic and political arena of the world. Nothing tangible has come out from these policies owing to the demise of President Yar'adua in May, 2010. The current administration of President Goodluck Jonathan that took over after Yar'adua does not seem to be fully committed to implementing these policies. Thus, Nigeria's hope of attaining the MDGs and alleviating poverty through government policies is at the moment very dim.

Commenting on obstacles of alleviating poverty in Nigeria, Canagarajah, Ngwafon and Thomas (1997) argue that a considerable lack of understanding of the configuration of poverty by economic sectors and socio-economic groups in Nigeria has blurred and will continue to hinder the prospect of designing pragmatic, cost effective poverty reduction strategies in Nigeria.

Further to this, they confirm that after a nationwide study on poverty in Nigeria that lasted a year, a key lesson learnt was that Nigeria with adequate capacity has a statistical system that is a decade behind, compared to some of the poorer countries in SSA. They stress that a weak data base on poverty in Nigeria is worsened by year-to-year changes in Nigeria, which are quite drastic without any assurance of their non-occurrence in the future. This is also an obstacle to poverty reduction/alleviation in Nigeria. According to Chenery (1974), the lowest income groups do not sufficiently benefit from growth and trickle down effects and the additional redistributional programmes targeting the poor are often needed for improvement of living standards of the poor. What can be inferred from this in relation to policy direction is that some nuance rather than pan-territorial policies may be required for the poor to benefit from growth in Nigeria. So, it is quite impossible that the right kinds of policies that will improve the living standard of the poor in Nigeria are not yet in place. On the growth front, there is a possibility that the poor in Nigeria did not participate in the growth process. According to Aigbokan (2000) and Ajakaiye and Adeyeye (2001), for growth to truly reduce poverty, it must be inclusive of the poor. In addition, Lipton (1996) states that in countries where growth induced policies and growth did not factor in the attributes of the poor, poverty reduction are usually missed. Corroborating this, Chen, Datt and Ravallion (1992) state that when the poverty line is held constant overtime, poverty reduction effects of growth are overstated and the contribution of improvements in income distribution are underestimated and vice versa. Thus, the proper understanding of the concept of poverty may be critical to resolving this important debate of the relative importance of economic growth and income distribution for poverty reduction.

There are a number of other studies carried out in Nigeria to examine the poverty reduction phenomenon. Atoloye (1997) presents a growth-led poverty alleviation strategy. He

states that the partial barter arrangements and the production for consumption in rural areas complicate the realistic assessment or evaluation of the level of poverty in Nigeria. He further states that the deficiencies of various measures of poverty such as the poverty line, based on minimum income required to acquire the minimum necessities of life and the relative poverty index or the absolute income received by the poorest 40 percent of the population cannot be ignored. Finally, he suggests the revolutionary measures to the production system in Nigeria to emphasize labour - intensive and rural-based production activities for the purpose of achieving the desired objectives of growth-led strategy for poverty alleviation. Okunmadewa (1997) in his appraisal of the World Bank study on poverty alleviation in Nigeria identifies a number of poverty reducing strategies including the promotion of high and broad-based growth as well as employment generating growth, increase access to social services and infrastructure by the generality of the people. Others include targeting expenditure programmes towards the primary education, healthcare services and infrastructural improvement. He further states that the removal of price distortions, liberalization of trade regimes and investment in technology and physical capital are positive steps towards stimulation of broad-based and employment generating growth.

2.7 Framework for the Research

This research has its foundation in the frameworks of some previous studies on the level of poverty and factors associated with poverty which include the gender factor, the age factor, employment/form of employment/unemployment factor, educational attainment factor, family size factor, and the geographical location factor (*see the table 3.3 for the previous studies*). The research has its foundation in the frameworks of these previous studies because those studies involved the use of primary or secondary data generated from people. The factors from the

previous studies are in order for this research because it is committed to investigating the levels of income and food poverty and the factors associated with them to assess progress towards attaining the MDGs' targets on poverty reduction by using primary qualitative and quantitative data involving the individual and the family household as units of research analysis. Income poverty and food poverty are being investigated through the individual because individuals personally experience poverty, and because if poverty is comprehended in terms of a right to a minimum level of resources, the individual is basically the appropriate unit (Nussbaum, 2000; Atkinson, 1989; Atkinson, et al., 2002). This research does not have its foundation in the frameworks of some previous studies on the level of poverty and factors associated with poverty which include corruption factor, inadequate education/poor educational system factor, overpopulation factor, global inequality factor, individual deficiencies/laziness factor, and the generational poverty/culture of poverty factor. The reason for this is that these factors are not best investigated by a research like this which is committed to collecting primary data and using the individual and the family household as its units of analysis.

Table 2.3 Factors Associated with Poverty and Relevant Previous Studies

Factors Associated with Poverty	Previous Studies
1. Gender/Sex Factor	Appleton (1996), Appleton, Mckay and Alayande (2008) and Anyanwu (2010; 2012)
2. Age Factor	Appleton, Mckay and Alayande (2008), and Anyanwu (2010; 2012)
3. Household Educational Attainment Factor	Canagarajah, Ngwafon and Thomas (1997), FOS, (1999), Appleton (2000), Appleton (2001), Ojowu, et al. (2004), NBS (2005), Appleton, Mckay and Alayande (2008), Bastos, et al. (2009), OSSAP-MDGs (2010a), Akerele and Adewuyi (2011), Ijaiya and Nuhu (2011) and Anyanwu (2012)
4. Employment/Form of Employment/Unemployment Factor	Englama (2001), Appleton, Mckay and Alayande (2008), Osinubi (2005), NBS, (2012b), Aiyedogbon and Ohwofasa (2012), and Anyanwu (2012)
5. Household Size Factor	Anyanwu (2005), Omonona (2010), Etim and Ukoha (2010), Akerele and Adewuyi (2011), Ijaiya and Nuhu (2011) and Anyanwu (2012)
6. Location Factor	Appleton, Mckay and Alayande (2008) and Anyanwu (2012)

Author's Compilation

2.8 Chapter Summary

The chapter gives a brief description of poverty and the poor and explores what poverty means from four different approaches namely income, basic-needs, capability and participatory approaches. Review of the different approaches to poverty indicates that there exists no objective or unique way of defining poverty as the approaches seemingly lack considerable overlapping. This suggests that poverty is understandable from multiple perspectives and that a choice of using one of the approaches as a means of targeting is bound to generate a bunch of serious targeting errors. The chapter gives theoretical explanations of the causes of poverty under which poverty was assumed to be caused by individual deficiencies, cultural belief systems that support subcultures of poverty, economic, political, and social distortions or discrimination, geographical disparities, and cumulative and cyclical interdependencies. The chapter describes the major causes and consequences of global poverty.

The chapter states that the incidence of poverty is high in Nigeria and that by 2015; the country will have more poor people than either India or China; it confirms that in 1980, 1996, 2004 and 2010, 27.2 percent, 65.6 percent, 54.4 percent, and 69 percent of Nigerians were officially poor, and that by 2011, 75.1 percent of Nigerians would be poor. The account claims that the incidence of income and food poverty rose between 2004 and 2010; 51.6 percent of Nigerians were income poor in 2004, but this increased to 61.2 percent in 2010; also, 33.6 percent of Nigerians were food poor in 2004, but this increased to 41.0 percent in 2010. The chapter lists the determinants of poverty in Nigeria as identified by authors in different previous studies to include unemployment, corruption, non-diversification of the economy (oil over-dependency), inequality, laziness, poor educational system, geographical/location variable, household educational attainment, household size, and sex and age compositions of family/households. The chapter explores the Nigeria's poverty reduction strategies over time.

CHAPTER THREE

DEVELOPMENT AND THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS

3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present an analysis of development by looking at it from its historical background and from what the concept has meant over the years from different perspectives and their links to the MDGs. The chapter also discusses the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs); the progress of the MDGs' targets on global poverty reduction; and the progress of the MDGs' targets on poverty reduction in Nigeria.

3.2 The Idea of Development

Historically, the idea of development is traceable to some authors who went back to seek the roots of the idea in Marx and Hegel and others who went back to the 17th century political economist, Adam Smith or further back to the European Age of Enlightenment with the novel suggestion of transforming the world by scientific discovery and human intervention (de Rivero, 2001). From the beginning of the 19th century, development thinking was couched as a reaction to the crises of progress, such as social dislocations caused by industrialization (Pieterse, 2010). Within this century, development had meanings from different perspectives including the classical political economy, latecomers, colonial economics and development economics perspectives. From the classical political economy perspective, similar problems of economic development were addressed by classical political economists, from Ricardo to Marx. From the classical political economists, development meant “remedy for progress” and “catching up” (Martin, 1991; Pieterse, 2010, p. 7). From the turn-of-the century latecomers' perspective, development meant “industrialization” and “catching up;” from the colonial economics perspective, development meant “resource management” and “trusteeship” under which the administration of colonial economies was “not merely with a view to their exploitation for

metropolitan benefit but also for the interests of the native population;” and from the development economics perspective, development meant attaining economic growth through industrialization (Pieterse, 2010, pp. 5-7).

Modern development thinking can be traced back to the post Second World War era. This is not to claim that the concept of development was not in discussion until the post Second World War era, it was indeed in discussion from different perspectives. Though, the term *development* was not necessarily used before the post Second World War era, but “earlier practices have been viewed as antecedents of development policy (Pieterse, 2010, p. 5). The second half of the 20th century was specifically labelled as the era of development. The beginning of this era is traceable to the 20th day of January, 1949 when it was emphasized by US President Harry Truman in his inaugural address that a new bold programme must be embarked on to make the advantage of his country’s “scientific advances and industrial progress available for the improvement and growth of the underdeveloped areas.” President Truman further emphasized that neither the old imperialism nor exploitation for foreign profit had places in his country’s plans; and that the US envisaged “a programme of development based on the concepts of democratic fair dealing” (Truman, 1949). The idea of development was invented in the post Second World War era to describe the process by which “backward” countries would “catch up” with the industrialized world following help from the latter (Black, 2007, p. 10). According to Esteva (1992), the post Second World War idea of development established a new dimension into development thinking which centred on development from the perspective of escaping from underdevelopment. As at this time, undeveloped countries represented two-thirds of the globe which necessitated a greater proportion of the nations of the globe to define themselves as having fallen into the “undignified condition called underdevelopment” (Esteva, 1992, p. 7). This era

therefore witnessed “increasing international discussion about how development particularly in the Global South was to take place” (Willis, 2011, p. 29). Development thus “stood as the idea which oriented emerging nations in their journey through post war history” (Sachs, 1992, p. 1). Much of the post Second World War descriptions of development were in relation to “a long-term view with an emphasis on socio-economic structural transformation;” such as “the shift from an agrarian economy to an industrial economy.” The word *development* was widely regarded as both self-evident and prophetic, informing a widespread assumption in the 1950s and 1960s that “most underdeveloped countries would almost inevitably become developed” (Haynes, 2008, p. 8). But as from the 1990s, much definitions of development were in relation to “a shorter horizon related to policy objectives and performance indicators such as growth of income per capita and poverty reduction” (Sumner and Tribe, 2008, p. 25).

According to Cowen and Shenton (1996), development comes to be defined in a multiplicity of ways because there is multiplicity of developers who are entrusted with the task of development. Development is a concept which is “contested both theoretically and politically and is inherently both complex and ambiguous;” and it is a term which is used so loosely and freely that it has little precise meaning (Thomas, 2004, p. 1; McCarthy, 1994). In other words, it means different things to different people. According to Rodney (1972, pp. 3-4), “development in human society is a many-sided process. At the level of the individual, it implies increased skill and capacity, greater freedom, creativity, self-discipline, responsibility and material well-being;” at the level of social groups, “development implies an increasing capacity to regulate both internal and external relationships.” Rodney states further that the term *development* is used in “an exclusive economic sense, the justification being that the type of economy is itself an

index of other social features” (p. 4). In his final analysis, he states that development is universal because the conditions leading to economic expansion are universal.

Chambers (1997) simply refers to development as good change. This simple description of development indicates that “it is a positive word that everyday parlance is virtually synonymous with progress” (Thomas, 2000, p. 23). He goes ahead to state that the implication of progress is “continual improvement reaching higher levels perhaps without limit, whereas development, as an analogy from development of living organisms, implies moving towards the fulfilment of potential” (Thomas, 2000, p. 25). Conceptually, development should be differentiated from progress as progress had been thought to be an immanent process in the preceding centuries, in that human society was understood as moving viciously to a higher stage of civilization (Cowen and Shenton, 1996). As an immanent process, and “with the intrinsic dynamism of capitalism,” development requires it being distinguished from “development as an intentional activity,” often designed to ameliorate the faults of capitalist growth (Thomas, 2000, p. 48). The two words *good change* merged quite dissimilar ideas which can cause disorientation between various senses in which the term *development* is used. The word *good* implies a vision of a desirable society, that is, wellbeing for all; something to target, condition of being with certain affirmative traits which can be evaluated so that more or less development can be talked of. As for *change*, it is a process which may entail disruption and which may or may not be possible to direct (Thomas, 2000). Further to this, Thomas clarifies that the idea of development is beyond simple *good change* and thus makes it to be an inherently ambiguous concept. One of the points stated in support of this is that development generally implies an all-encompassing change and not just an improvement in one aspect. Secondly, development does not revolve around just “a one-off process of change to something better but implies a process which builds on itself, where change is continuous and

where improvements build on previous improvements.” Thirdly, development refers to “a matter of changes occurring at the level of social change and the individual human being at one and the same time;” this simply indicates that “changes in how people think, interact, make their livings and perceive themselves form the basis for changes in society” (p. 23). As a process, development implies a “change for the better in the individual circumstances as in societies” (Black, 2007, p. 29). Fourthly, development is not seen positively at all times as “what some see as general improvement may have losers as well as winners;” and therefore, for social change to be all-encompassing, “previous ways of life may be swept away with the loss of positive as well as negative features” (Thomas, 2000, p. 24).

Development is also described as “the organized intervention in collective affairs according to standard of improvement” (Pieterse, 2010, p. 3). He goes ahead to state that what constitutes improvement and what is an appropriate intervention obviously varies in consonance with “class, culture, historical contexts and relations to power” (Pieterse, 2010, p. 4). Development refers to the “remedies for the shortcomings and maladies of progress” (Cowen and Shenton 1996, p. 130). According to Ake (1995, p. 125), development is “the process by which people create and recreate themselves and their life circumstances to realize higher levels of civilization in accordance with their own choice and value.” The Human Development Reports (HDR) of United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) describes development as “the enlargement of people’s choices” (UNDP, 1990, p. 10). Development is referred to as enlargement of people’s choices and human capacitation (Sen, 1985). From all these, it can be inferred that “development includes an element of reflexivity that ranges from infrastructure works such as roads, railways, dams, canals and ports to industrial policy, the welfare state, new economic policy, colonial economics and Keynesian demand management” (Pieterse, 2010, pp.

7-8). Thus, in the modern sense, development “implies intentional social change in accordance with social objectives” (Hettne, 2008, p. 6). Also, it can be inferred that development is “a kind of social change in which new ideas are introduced into a social system in order to produce higher per capita income and levels of living through modern production methods and improved social organization” (Roger and and Svenning, 1969, p. 18). Further to these, it can be inferred that the rate at which a given society is developed is determined by so many attributes such as the whole people's educational level, leadership, and natural resources of a particular country. Development has been taken to mean growth, economic development, industrialization, economic growth, modernization and nation-building. It thus serves as “a mirror of changing economic and social capacities, priorities and choices’ (Pieterse 2010, p. 8).

Three different propositions are set up about the meaning of development by Sumner and Tribe (2008). The first proposition sees development as a process of structural societal transmutation or change characterized by long duration. This aligns with the description of development by Thomas (2004) as a process of historical change. The main characteristics of this proposition are that “it is focused on process of structural societal change” and “it is historical and it has a long term outlook.” Thus, development relates to a wide view of diverse socio-economic changes in that the process does not relate to any specific “set of objectives” and as a result, “not necessarily prescriptive.” The analysis of the proposition is not based on “any expectations that all societies will follow approximately the same development process.” This indicates that development is not compulsorily connected to intentional or good change as in some cases, it is characterized by “decline, crisis, and other problematical situations” of which can be “accommodated within the wide perspective of socio-economic change” (Sumner and Tribe, 2008, p. 12). Such structural and long term transformation or changes or goals were the

ones that “dominated the 1950s and 1960s via vision” (Gore, 2000, p. 794). The second proposition sees development as “a short to medium term outcome of desirable targets;” in other words, it centralizes its focus on “the outcomes of change so that it has a relatively short-term outlook” (Sumner and Tribe, 2008, p. 13). This is characterized by a vision or measure of progressive change (Thomas, 2004). Gore (2000, p. 794) relates this to “performance assessment.” This perspective has a “much more instrumental element which is likely to be favoured by practitioners within development community notably in international development agencies” because its concern is based on development that occurs “in terms of a set of short to medium-term performance indicators, goals or outcome which can be measured and compared with targets” such as “changes in poverty or outcome levels (Sumner and Tribe, 2008, p. 13). The MDGs of the UN that have to do with meeting specific targets on poverty reduction by 2015 exemplifies this perspective. It is important to clarify that “the two perspectives of development are respectively based on visions and outcomes” (Sumner and Tribe, 2008, p. 14). The third proposition sees development as a dominant discourse of Western modernity. This is referred to as “post modern, post development, post colonial or post structuralist position” and its argument “is based on the view that development has consisted of bad change and bad outcomes through the imposition of Western ethnocentric notions of development upon the Third World” (Sumner and Tribe, 2008, p. 14). The view of this perspective “suggests that those who construct the concept or the discourse have in mind an inherent element of inferiority-superiority,” under which “values are placed on certain assets which the South does not have.” The South is thus “viewed as inferior” to the North as an attribute such as “non-modern or non Western approaches to medicine, or other aspects of society are perceived as inferior” (Sumner and Tribe, 2008, p. 15).

Thomas (2000) distinguishes three main senses in which the term *development* is used. First, it is “used as a vision, description or measure of the state of being a desirable society;” second, it is “used as historical process of social change in which societies are transformed over long periods;” and lastly, it is “used as consisting of deliberate efforts aimed at improvement on the part of various agencies, including governments, all kinds of organizations and social movements.” There exists a relationship in the three senses in which the term ‘development’ is used in that “the state of being a desirable society is supposedly the result of the historical process of development, and the vision of a desirable society may form an aim towards which to direct efforts at improvement” (p. 29).

From the above analysis, it may be safely agreed that real development involves a structural transformation of the economy, society, polity and culture of a country that allows the self-creating and self-bolstering use and development of the people’s potentials (Nkrumah, 1965). It may also be agreed that the overall multiplicity of definitional debates includes a general agreement on the view that development encompasses continuous change in a variety of aspects of human society (Sumner and Tribe, 2008).

3.3 Perspectives of Development over Time

3.3.1 Perspective of Development in the 1950s

The 1950s marked a period of significant advancement in the discourse of modern development with the emergence of modernization theory, from which perspective development meant “growth” and “political and social modernization” (Pieterse, 2010, p. 7). The theory emerged in the US at this period following an exercise under which American social scientists were encouraged “often through direct government funding, to develop an interest in the new countries” and to study these poorer nations, so as to guide against throwing off the new states to

the Soviet communist bloc (Chirot, 1981; So, 1990, Haynes 2008, p. 20). In other words, “it arose as the theoretical corollary of American globalism in the context of the Cold War and decolonization’ and then follows that “What Victorian anthropology was to the British Empire is what modernization theory is to American states hegemony” (Pieterse, 2010, p. 21). The theory emphasizes that modernization of the poorer countries is “a phased, irreversible, progressive, lengthy process that moves in the direction of the American model” (So, 1990, p. 261). The theory is the leading paradigm of development and it represents an effort to examine the prospects for Third World Development (Pieterse, 2010). The theory is widely attractive because it enables a society to move from being poor, to being rich; it encompasses industrialization, and increases the use of technical knowledge and application of realistic thinking and scientific principles to the understanding of progress of medical, legal and political systems (Inglehart, 1997; Willis, 2011). In a nutshell, modernization is the antidote to global poverty (Roxas and Ungson, 2011). Modernization theory assumes that the attributes of modernity form a consistent whole and as a result appearing in a cluster rather than in isolation (Hermassi, 1978). This suggests that modernization is a systemic process and involves changes in almost all aspects of social behaviour including industrialization, urbanization, mobilization, differentiation, secularization, participation, and centralization (So, 1990).

The dominant explanations of the dilemmas and chances of development in the Third World written from a modernization theory approach is *The Stages of Economic Growth: A Non-Communist Manifesto* by Walt Rostow. According to Rostow (1960, pp. 12-13), the stages of economic growth “are not merely descriptive. They are merely a way of generalizing certain factual observations about the sequence of development in modern societies. They have inner logic and continuity. They have an analytic bone-structure, rooted in a dynamic theory of

production.” His main argument is that “all developing societies must pass, in order to attain the promise land of a stable, prosperous, liberal democratic polity along lines of those of the US or Britain” (Haynes, 2008, p. 21). In his analysis, Rostow (1960) postulates five basic stages to economic growth namely traditional society; preconditions for take-off; take-off; drive to maturity; and age of high mass consumption. According to him, the Third World countries are at first at the traditional stage characterized by a basically agricultural economy and strict ranked social structure with little social change; at the second stage, economic growth of the Third World countries has started to take place with the development of new industries, an increase in the proportion of new entrepreneurs, and expansion of market. For the Third World countries to be pushed beyond this second stage which is characterized by poverty trap as the first stage, Rostow emphasizes that a stimulus, that is, a big push is required which can be in the form of political transformation that revamps main institutions, a technological modification such as the intervention of the steam machine in the Industrial Revolution or a positive international environment characterized by export demands and prices. At the third stage, Rostow argues that the Third World countries follow a pattern of take off to possess self-sustained economic growth under which they marshal capital and resources to increase the rate of productive investment to 10%; at the fourth stage, the Third World countries attain a level at which they are driven to maturity; and at the last stage, they are at the level of maturity under which there is a boost in employment opportunities, rise in national income, expansion of consumers’ demands, and creation of powerful domestic markets.

Within development thinking, Rostow’s *take off* approach has confirmed itself to be enduring and widespread in that modernization consists of an acute break between the more stable or static social relations of traditional society and the more fluid and ambiguous conditions

of modern society (Sachs, 2005). A vital characteristic of Rostow's development design is that for the traditional societies of much of the developing world, the initial propellant to modernization arrives through the example set by the industrialized countries; the basic dilemma for them of "taking off" is totally internal to the economies concerned (Randall and Theobald 1985, p. 21). Modernization thus travels through different phases within a country/society; thus, countries/societies can be compared in terms of the extent to which they have moved down the road from tradition to modernity (Rostow, 1964; Levy, 1967). This suggests that modernization is transformative as for a country/society to move into modernity, its traditional structures and values must be replaced by a set of modern values (So, 1990).

Modernization theory looks at the internal factors of a country/society, it assumes that if a country/society does not attain development, this condition is caused by problems/obstacles internal to the country/society; it emphasizes that development is an internal problem and that poverty is caused by internal factors or factors contained in the relevant country/society (Bauer, 1981; Berger, 1985; Harrison, 1988; So, 1990; Tiryakian, 1992; de Soto, 1999; d'Souza, 2002; Rahman, 1993; Inglehart and Baker, 2000; Nielsen, 2007; Pieterse, 2010; Damerow, 2010). Across disciplines, modernization theory attributes problem relating to attaining development particularly in the Third World to factors internal to them and this provides an international explanation; sociologists stress the persistence of traditional values and institutions, psychologists highlight the low achievement motivation, demographers highlight population explosion, political scientists emphasize inefficient and corrupt bureaucracies, and economists point to the lack of productive investment (Yeh, 1989). For development to be attained in a country/society, modernization theory emphasizes overcoming internal obstacles to development or effecting changes to them (Kuhmen, 1987; Harrison, 1988; So, 1990); this implies that

internal situations in societies affects the processes of modernization immediately (Huskey and Morehouse, 1992; Gavrov, 2004).

Internal/endogenous factors often referred to in modernization theory discourse as being responsible for the inability of countries to achieve development include “illiteracy, traditional agrarian structure, the traditional attitude of the population, the low division of labour, and the lack of communication and infrastructure,” a change in these endogenous factors is the strategy for development (Kuhmen, 1987, p. 2). In the words of Fakhry (2003), potential internal barriers that tend to block change and thus thwart attainment of development include an ineffective or underdeveloped educational system, including both relatively low levels of general literacy and an imbalance between allocations of financing to lower and higher education, the role of the state, that is, the power and nature of the influence of government including the degree of political freedom and the strength of democratic processes; the importance of political corruption and patronage and impact of these on public policies and economic behaviour of those governed. Inglehart and Baker (2000) simply list poverty and inadequate culture as internal factors obstructing attainment of development in countries/societies.

3.3.2 Perspective of Development in the 1960s

In the 1960s, there emerged the dependency theory in the modern discourse of development, from which perspective development meant “economic growth or capital accumulation” (Pieterse, 2010, p. 6). Dos Santos (1971, p. 226) describes dependency as a situation in which the relationship between or among countries “assumes the form of dependence when some countries (the dominant ones) can expand and can be self-starting, while other countries (the dependent ones) can do this only as a reflection of that expansion.” The theory divides the countries of the world into the periphery and the core nations. The periphery nations

are basically located outside Europe and North America, including countries of in Latin America and SSA. These countries are characterized by least economic diversification, relatively weak governments, relatively weak institutions with little tax base to support infrastructure development, single economic activity, least industrialization, openness to exploitation and influence by the multinational corporations controlled by the core nations, small bourgeois and large peasant classes, high rate of poverty and illiteracy, and high level of inequality (Barfield, 1997; Halsall, 1997). On the other hand, the core nations are the most powerful in the world economic system and they consist of such nations as the ones in Europe, the United States, Australia, and Japan (Andersen and Taylor, 2007). They are characterized by most economic diversification, economic and military wealth and power, strong central governments, extensive bureaucracies, sufficient tax base, high industrialization, high levels of technology and specialization, strong bourgeois and working classes, significant means of influence over non-core nations, and relatively independent of outside control (Barfield, 1997; Halsall, 1997).

Dependency theory was developed in Latin America to respond to a programme of the UN known as the Economic Commission for Latin America (ECLA) which became bankrupt. The theory is therefore “a representation of the voices from the periphery that challenge the intellectual hegemony of the American modernization school” to critique “modernization theory’s assumptions about development and how to achieve it;” and a part of the response to the deficiencies of modernization in theory and practice (Bodenheimer 1970; Dos Santos 1973; Blomstrom and Hettne, 1984; Staniland, 1985; So, 1990; Haynes, 2008, p. 24). Modernization Theory is critiqued for a number of reasons. The first argument against the theory is that it is a Europeanization or an Americanization of the development discourse; that is, it has an attitude toward Western Europe and the US as they are viewed to have unmatched economic prosperity

and democratic stability (Tipps, 1976). This idea of Western superiority is ethnocentric and makes the theory fall between social policy and science, keeping one eye on society 'as it really is' and another on society 'as it should be' (Stretton, 1987). Another argument against the theory is that its assumption that the path from tradition to modernity is a phased process is not as straightforward as the theory suggests. This assumption fails to take cognizance of the fact that in many cases, social conflict is endemic and pervasive and also that, inequalities between and within countries are sharpening; it further underplays issues of power inequalities within and between societies (Morawetz, 1977; Webster, 1984). The theory is again critiqued on the grounds that its arguments are formulated at a high level of abstractions to the extent that it is difficult to know what country and what historical period are being discussed; its arguments are anchored at a high level of generalization to the extent that its propositions are beyond time and space limitations (So, 1990).

Specifically critiquing Rostowian take off approach, Frank (1971), from his dependency theory perspective known as the development of underdevelopment argues that Rostow's approach does not tally with ancient or current facts of existence as it is beyond the bounds of possibility to see anywhere across the globe today a society which displays the features of Rostow's traditional stage. Franks goes on to argue that Rostow's kind of traditional societies had long broken down as a result of their inclusion in the world global capitalist system which gives rise to a clear-cut focus on the nature and attributes of the disproportional interdependent *metropolis-satellite* relationship under which the developing countries are stagnated and exploited by the developed countries. Frank claims that Rostow fails by not examining this association. Further to this Frank argues that the way the developing countries can escape this economic stagnation and exploitation is by detaching themselves from the world capitalist

system through self-sufficiency, socialism and expanded trade with the progressive states which generally referred to the socialist countries of Eastern Europe, especially, the Soviet Union at that time. Frank notices from the historical experiences of Latin America that the economies of the periphery countries grew, their level of manufacturing expanded, their conditions of living became better, and their exports were variegated when their ties with the core countries were weakened; examples being period Europe had internal problems such as the Second World War, the Napoleonic Wars, and the great depression (Frank, 1970). Had the periphery countries been left on their own, they could have initiated actions towards taking the usual route to capitalist development as previously done by the core countries (Frank, 1974). In sum, the bedrock of Frank's argument is that the possibility of the economic and human development of the developed/industrialized countries of the world was as a result of the outrageous underdevelopment of the developing countries. This means that the development of the periphery is impossible, unless the strength of their links to the core is reduced or totally matching.

Dependency theory emphasizes that lack of development which include poverty in the periphery nations is basically attributable to the forces of external/exogenous factors that stem down from the core nations that exploit them (Frank, 1970; Wallestein, 1974; Clarke; 2002; Willis; 2011). The theory simply focuses on the external forces of capitalism and colonialism. Regarding capitalism, it is claimed that the backwardness of the periphery nations which was progressively capitalist from the 16th century is attributable to economic condition under which there exists flow of economic surplus from them to the core nations, the effect of which is a sharp inter-societal precedence where the dominant core develops and is more complex at the expense of the periphery which is subordinated via the shift of economic plethora to the core regardless of any economic changes that may occur (Frank, 1971; 1984; 1994; Rodney, 1972;

Hechter, 1975; Blomstrom and Hettne, 1984; Amin, 1987; Haynes, 2008). Corroborating this, Amin (1976, p. 200) states that “extraversion does not result from inadequacy of the home markets but from the superior productivity of the centre in all fields, which compels the periphery to confine itself to the role of complementary supplier of products for the production of which it possesses a natural advantage.” Regarding colonialism, Rodney (1972) claims that the intervention of European powers in the peripheral (particularly Africa’s) social economic and political processes throughout the 19th century created a situation of dependency and led to the poor state of the latter. This historical experience “reversed the development of many advanced periphery nations and forced them to move along the path of economic backwardness” as many of these countries like China and India were making steady progress before they bumped into colonialism (So, 1990, p. 96; Frank 1969). In other words, the historical experience resulted in an “interdependent but unequal relationship established between colonizer and colonized” (Spybey, 1992, p. 225). This theory is critiqued on the premise that it overstates the negative influence of the external forces of the core nations on the periphery nations as if they are the only factors that are capable of deciding their fate without regard to their local resistance. Corroborating this, Trimberger (1979, p. 128) identifies that such an exaggeration “sees dynamic of system as flowing completely from the centre. The periphery, whether originally in Europe or today in the Third World countries, becomes a passive victim of capitalism from without.” The theory is further critiqued on the premise that it fails to recognize a positive side to the effect of the external forces of the core nations on the periphery nations, which is that they serve as the opportunities that can be used by the peripheral countries to change their technologies, ideas, and institutions. After all, “all historical evidence points to the existence of certain degrees of freedom for national government and their ability to carry out, under certain circumstances,

fairly drastic policies of internal and external transformation” (Portes, 1976, p. 79). It is noted by the critics of this theory that development and dependency can indeed co-exist and dependency may not lead to underdevelopment at all times (Warren, 1973) This position is exemplified by former colonies of Japan, Taiwan and South Korea that have since the Second World War attained rapid economic development; and also Canada which displays a standard of living higher than that of most Third World countries despite the fact that it is ‘dependent’ based on its economy being permeated by foreign subsidiaries (So, 1990). Again, the theory is critiqued for being highly abstract as it treats all the periphery countries as if they were same in its bid to lay out the general design of dependency in Third World countries which is erroneous (So, 1990).

Both modernization and dependency theories of development independently stress the vital aspects of development in the developing countries with each looking at the world via myopic lens. Modernization theory focuses on internal political and economic factors of the developing countries whereas the focal point of dependency theory is the purported effects of the restructure of the global economic system on the developing countries. This suggests that in the modernization discourse, for developing countries to attain development, it is a necessity for them to migrate from tradition to modernity through the exertion of modernizing state structures or presumed agents of modernization that has got the capability of completely changing economic, political and social realities; whereas in the dependency discourse, internal factors are deemphasized, emphasis is on the sinister effects imperialism and the international economic system. This reflects a clear division or fragmentation between the two theories of development.

3.3.3 Perspectives of Development in the 1970s

In the mid-1970s when the ideological battle between modernization and dependency theories began to dissipate, there emerged a variant of dependency theory known as world-

system theory whose main proponent was Immanuel Wallerstein. This theory has a lot of similarities with dependency theory; it basically covers the same ground with dependency theory in practice, and is often cited together (Petras, 1982; Barrett and White, 1982; Koo, 1984; Gills, 1995). Both dependency and world system theories “stress the importance of considering national economic development within a global context, rather than just concentrating on individual countries,” also, both “have a strong historical basis” (Willis, 2011, p. 80). However, the main demarcations are that while the unit of analysis of dependency theory is the nation-state just like the modernization theory, that of the world-system theory is the world system; also, while the theoretical structure of the former is bimodal (core-periphery), that of the latter is trimodal (core-semiperiphery-periphery); while the direction of development of the former is deterministic, indicating the dependency is harmful, that of the latter implies “possible upward and downward mobility in the world economy;” and finally, while the research of the former focuses on the periphery, that of the latter focuses “on the periphery as well as the core, the semi-periphery and the world economy” (So, 1990, p. 195). Semi-periphery nations refer to nations which are midway between the core and periphery and with tendency of approaching industrialization and a more diversified economy; they emerge from either the developing peripheries or the declining cores (Halsall, 1997). They possess peripheral-like relations to the core, exert control over some peripheries and act as intermediaries between cores and peripheries thereby playing “a key role in the functioning of the system” (Chirot, 1977, Barfield, 1997; Halsall, 1997; Lechner, 2001; Hettne, 1995, p. 139). Countries like China, India, Brazil and South Africa came under semi-periphery as at 2000; as at 2007, they included countries like Malaysia, Turkey, Mexico, Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirate and Tunisia (Dunn, Kawana and Brewer, 2000; Babones and Alvarez-Rivadulla, 2007; Sheppard, et al., 2009). According to

Willis (2011), the countries of the semi-periphery are not fixed; over time, they are able to move in and out of categories depending on their economic situations.

In the world-system theory discourse, Wallerstein (1974, p. 347) states that the world system is a social system in which “life within it is largely self-contained” and in which “the dynamics of its development are largely internal.” This “implies an internalization of the external factor” thereby solving a dependency theory “problem of external versus the internal” (Hettne, 1995, p. 140). Wallerstein, (1976) insists that the modern world-economy is, and only can be, a capitalist world-economy which is external/exogenous to the attainment of development of the periphery; he goes ahead to state that capitalism has been able to wave about precisely because of the world-economy that comprises a heap of political systems. Accordingly, it is claimed by the theory that “it is a function of the social organization of work, one which magnifies and legitimizes the ability of some groups within the system to exploit the labour of others, that is, to receive a larger share of the surplus” Wallerstein, (1976, p. 349). Therefore, in the world-system perspective, “the process of underdevelopment started with the incorporation of a particular external area into the world system; i.e the peripheralization” (Hettne, 1995, p. 140). The only agent of change in the theory is the core countries while the periphery countries are viewed as a “pliable material in the hands of the all powerful imperialist nations” (Kiely 1995, p. 51). In its classical form, this concentrates far more on the inevitability of external/exogenous factors with respect to foreign investment or capitalism on the periphery (Sanderson, 2005).

In the 1970s, there emerged another perspective in the modern discourse of development known as alternative or another development. From this perspective, development meant social and economic development and human flourishing (Friedman, 1992). According to Nerfin (1977), alternative development refers to the domain of Third System or citizen politics, which is

significant following the failed development efforts of government and market forces. Alternative development is therefore defined by Nerfin (1977, p. 10) as “need oriented (being geared to meeting human needs, both material and non material to be off the poverty trap; as endogenous (stemming from the heart of each society, which defines in sovereignty its values and the visions of its future)”; as “self-reliant (implying that each society relies primarily on its strength and resources in terms of members’ energies and its natural and cultural environment); as ecologically sound (utilizing rationally the resources of the biosphere in full awareness of the potential of local ecosystems as well as the global and local outer limits imposed on present and future generations)”; and as “based on structural transformation (so as to realize the conditions of self-management and participation in decision-making by all those affected by it, from the rural or urban community to the world as a whole, without which the goals above could not be achieved.”

The idea of alternative development can be traced to the Cocoyoc Declaration and the Dag Hammarskjold Foundation Report *What now? Another Development* of the mid-1970s. A prominent subject of the meeting of the Cocoyoc Declaration held in Cocoyoc, Mexico in 1974 was resources while the participants’ main belief was that “mankind’s predicament is rooted primarily in economic and social structures and behaviour within and between countries;” the Declaration states that “a process of growth that did not lead to the fulfilment of basic human needs was a travesty of development” (Hettne, 1995, p. 176). It is further noted by Hettne that development is not all about basic needs such as freedom of expression, self realization in work but also “a need for the rich to reconsider over-consumptive types of development, violating the inner limits of man and outer limits of nature” p. 176). As for the Dag Hammarskjold Foundation Report of 1975 which was prepared on the occasion of the 7th session of the UN General

Assembly, discussion was structured around three main elements which were that another development should be “geared to the satisfaction of needs, beginning with the eradication of poverty;” it should be “endogenous and self-reliant, that is, relying on the strength of the societies which undertake it;” and it should be “in harmony with the environment.” This shows that “another development requires structural transformations” and that “immediate action is necessary and possible” (Dag Hammarskjold Foundation Report, 1975, p. 28). In a nutshell, the argument of the Declaration and Report is that development should be adjusted to the satisfaction of some normative concepts such as basic needs, participation, self-reliance, and eco-development; and should be in conformity with the environment (Hetnne, 1995; Pieterse, 2010).

Pieterse (2010, p. 85) refers to alternative development as “development from below;” and that “below refers to both community and to NGOs.” This indicates that alternative development is identified with the development by the community and NGOs. As for the NGOs as agents of development, they engage in playing major roles on the ground and in development cooperation. This is not to claim that the state has no role in development process; the role of the state within the orbit of the alternative development discourse is that it acts as one who helps like a facilitator or an enabler. It is therefore implied that a state should be characterized by democratization for it to discharge such a responsibility.

Community consists of “group of people with shared interests in some senses; usually based on shared residential location like a village or urban district, but can also refer to a community based on social identity” (Willis, 2011, p. 27). According to Mansuri and Rao (2004, p. 9), we have Community Based Development (CBD) where communities “use their social capital to organize themselves and participate in development processes”. They state further that “the cornerstone of CBD initiatives is the active involvement of members of a defined

community in at least some aspects of project design and implementation;” and as for participation, it “can occur at many levels, a key objective is the incorporation of local knowledge into the project’s decision making processes” (p. 9). As actors in development, communities enhance sustainability; improve efficiency and effectiveness; allow poverty reduction efforts to be taken to scale; empower poor people, build social capital, and strengthen governance; and complement market and public sector activities. Communities thus make development more inclusive (Dongier, et al., 2003). As regards the NGOs, they are organizations that are legally constituted and are independent from any government; they are created by either a natural or legal person. In 2001, the number of internationally recognized NGOs was estimated at 40,000 (Anheier, Glasius and Kaldor, 2001), this is likely to have increased now. Other estimates given ranged between 26,000 and hundreds of thousands; as much as 30,000 NGOs is claimed to exist in the State of Israel alone (Gidron, Bar and Katz, 2004, Nye, 2004). The estimate ambiguity notwithstanding, NGOs have been “involved in sustainable systems development involving facilitating development by other organizations, both public and private” (Korten, 1987, p. 149). They “can be very small scale organizations, or very large global organizations,” they are not profit-making companies and they “help local communities set up projects to provide services, create income-generating opportunities, or improve social relations” (Willis, 2011, p. 27). NGOs function to allow “aid agencies to claim that at least, some of their activities benefit the poor.” Good intentions are asserted through the transfer of ODA to the NGOs as they “are viewed as political, socially accountable, and integrated into the communities which they serve” (Thomas and Allen, 2000, p. 213). The NGOs’ impact is “highly localized and often transitory” their “many small-scale successes” notwithstanding (Edwards and Hulme, 1992, p. 13).

NGOs exist at both international and national levels. At the international level, there exist both the “campaigning” and “charitable or service” providing types. Most of the former are based in the Global North while a few are based in the Global South; “they are epitomized, by Greenpeace” and they “only become involved in the development policy issues from a distance;” Tiers-Monde is a notable example of this type. The latter are based in the North with branches in the South where they work; “they run their own projects, sometimes setting up their own bureaucracies, effectively bypassing the state” and they “fund and monitor local service-providing NGOs or membership organizations;” Oxfam, Save the Children, Christian Aid and World Vision are notable examples of this type. At the national level, there exists the “public interest research or campaigning”, “indigenous, national and provincial service-providing”, and “membership” types. The first type are “relatively few in number; have limited support; represent the concerns of a particular group; and some may reflect the aspirations and social demands of specific professions.” The second type are “mostly concerned with welfare and rural development; some aim at particular constituencies or interests; some adopt participatory style and attempt to build up local membership; they work in partnership with international NGOs;” and they are “essentially based on trust, charity and private initiative aimed at social and development goals.” The third type “exists to further their members’ interests; may combine into regional or national federations; and may originally be based on some local campaign” (Thomas and Allen, 2000, pp. 211-212). The different types of NGOs are a confirmation that they “are simultaneously viewed as market-based actors and placed in central position as component of civil society (Edward and Hulme, 1995, p. 849).

As helpful as NGOs are to development, they are not free from criticisms. According to Shivji (2007, p. 84), “objective effects of actions” of NGOs as they steadily rise has a colouration

of neoliberalism more than that of pure unselfish motivations, thereby continuing the imperial relationship between the rich and the poor countries of the world. Hallward (2011) refers to their operations as the “humanitarian face of imperialism.” Pfeiffer (2003) criticizes NGOs on the premise that local primary health care efforts are undermined through the existence of NGOs and on another premise that the ability of the maintenance of an agency to oversee a country’s health sector is taken away. Pfeiffer says that NGOs can be uncoordinated to a level at which aligned projects among different organizations are created, the effect of which is the pulling away of health service workers from their normal duties to get the interests of the NGOs served. One other criticism of NGOs is on the ground that their design and use extend the usual foreign-policy instruments of some countries of the global North (O’Connor, 2012). Most large NGOs based in the global North such as Action Aid, Red Cross and Oxfam still export “the ideologies of their backers” (Bond, p. 321).

What alternative development is basically concerned with is to offer other practices and redefine the goals of development. It is about local development with alternative or other practices on the ground. From the alternative development discourse, it can be inferred that its approaches are not totally distinct from the approaches of the modernization and dependency theories as they share some key elements. For example, the endogenous process emphasized by the alternative development approach is similar to the discussion of the modernization theory. Also, the position of the alternative development approach which supports different societies following their respective paths to development in consonance with their respective histories, cultures, and ecologies bears certain resemblance to the discussion of the dependency theory. However, while both modernization and dependency theories emphasize structural large-scale economic change, alternative development emphasizes the capability of people to effect social

change or what can be simply referred to as people-centred or participatory approach to development. This indicates that similar goals shared with these earlier theories of development are pursued using diverse means. This has unfortunately culminated in the failure of the alternative development approaches to emerge with “a clear perspective on micro-micro relations, an alternative approach, and a coherent theoretical position” (Pieterse, 2010, p. 85). This is disadvantageous as without a defined theoretical underpinning, alternative development is akin to a ship without a rudder. The normative concepts such as basic need, participation and eco-development which the alternative development approach is characterized by are good because unlike the economic growth perspectives which exhibits primacy of the form of development over the content of development and the dependency perspective which does not emphasize the meaning and purpose of development, they lay their emphases on the content of development rather than the form of development. However, these normative concepts of alternative development could be problematic as “they become worn-out when reality remains the same;” some concepts got replaced with new ones “without much change in the basic orientation; for example, “eco-development was replaced with sustainable development” and “basic needs were translated to human development, which was defined as a widening of individual choices (Hettne, 1995, p. 175).

3.3.4 Perspectives of Development in the 1980s

In the modern discourse of development in the 1980s, development meant “capacitation” and “enlargement of people’s choices” from the perspective of human development (Pieterse, 2010, p. 7). According to Kegley (2006, p. 360), human development refers to “the extent to which human’s ability to develop to their individual potential is protected, so that they are provided with sufficient schooling, income and opportunity to live full life.” Specifically, UNDP

(1996, p. 5) describes human development as “a complex concept of development based on priority of human well-being aimed at ensuring and enlarging human choices leading to greater equality of opportunities for all people in society and empowerment of people so that they participate in and benefit from the development process.” The idea of human development got its inspiration from 1985 Amartya Sen’s capabilities approach to development. Capabilities are “the alternative combinations of functionings that are feasible for an agent to achieve;” they are “the substantive freedoms he or she enjoys to lead the kind of life he or she has reason to value” (Sen, 1999, p. 87). The human development paradigm has got four essential components which are “equity” which refers to the idea of fairness among people, that is, making people have equal access to available opportunities without any form of discrimination; “sustainability” which refers to continuity of available opportunities in a manner that future generations will not be left with fewer opportunities owing to the misuse of earlier opportunities by the earlier generations; “productivity” which refers to building capabilities in people in a manner that they are participants in the full income generation process; and “empowerment” which refers freedom of the people to make choices in a manner that influences decisions and development affecting their lives” (Ul Haq, 1995, pp. 16-20). These pillars of human development indicate that human development does not cover the rise and fall of national incomes or economic growth but also covers the expansion of people’s choices leading them to kinds of lives valuable to them; it also covers improvement of human condition in a manner that affords them the opportunity of leading full lives (Streeten, 1994).

The “productivity” element of the human development sets it apart from the alternative development paradigm; this suggests that Ul Haq’s “human development paradigm is identical to the alternative development paradigm except that characteristically; It includes production as a

core value” (Pieterse, 2010, p. 105). Also, Pieterse states that while “the bottom-line of human development paradigm is the state, that of alternative development is “local and social movement activism” (p. 107). One fact that cannot be disputed between the relationship between human development and alternative development is the role of the state. Within the orbit of human development approach, a permissive viewpoint of the developmental role of the state is made provision for; also, within the orbit of alternative development, developmental yardsticks such as healthcare, infrastructure and education need the state for them to be implemented as such cannot be exclusively left in the hands of non-state agents. Both paradigms cannot possibly be delinked from each other as they portray a mixture of state, local and grassroot perspectives; as alternative development cannot be delinked from the state, so also human development cannot be delinked from an active local and civil society for it to be functional at both domestic and international levels.

The dimensions of human development are broad and are understandable from different angles. According to Haynes (2008, p. 12), from the political and economic angles, human development revolves around “stability, security and citizens’ relative prosperity;” from the social angle, it is concerned with “literacy, education, social relationships and more vaguely the quality of life;” from the moral angle, it relates to “development of conscience, moral awareness and the will and associated capacity to act according to societal and cultural knowledge of what is judged to be right;” and from the psychological angle, it is related to “mental health, self-esteem, success in significant relationships, and human happiness.” Human development has some key aspects which include the followings: “incomes are means not an end; humans are ends not means; humans are a virtually important resource; major focus on basic needs-type goods and services; freedom to choose is given priority” (Haynes, 2008, p. 12). This is a clear

indication that “the wellbeing of humankind is the essence of development” (Nayyar, 2006, p. 827).

With respect to human development, development is measured using a measure known as the Human Development Index (HDI). From inception by the UNDP in 1990, the HDI has been a very prominent composite index. This index is esteemed as it extends “the economic concept of welfare, but for many purposes it is more useful to focus on the individual components of the index than the index itself” (Appleton and Teal, 1998, p. 2). The HDI was devised and launched by two prominent economists; Mahbub ul Haq, a Pakistani and Amartya Sen, an Indian in 1990 (UNDP, 2012). It is a representation of an attempt to put a “human face” on development via operationalizing other indicators such as wellbeing, governance and participation; and it sheds more light on how different government “prioritize” development aims (Green, 2002, pp. 58; 59). Ultimately, “the core of the concept is that it puts human at the centre, not incomes” as “it seeks to measure three main elements (life expectancy; education/literacy; and adjusted incomes); and “it works on the premise that people are the real wealth of a nation” (Haynes 2008, p. 12). The inclusion of these variables is an indication that the index has the ability to “throw systematic light on the actual lives people lead, especially by the relatively deprived” (Sen, 2001, p. 73). Thus, the HDI, according to 2006 HDR indicates that the basic objective of development is to create an enabling environment for people to live long, healthy and creative lives (UNDP, 2006). The UNDP utilizes the HDI scores to divide or classify the world’s countries into “Very High; High; Medium and Low Human Development” (UNDP, 2011, p. 127-130). HDR has a couple of merits; it “goes beyond basic as it encompasses all nations, both developed and developing;” it “takes us further than physical condition to include institutional and political elements”; it “seeks to tally up and assess individual country progress and, as a

result, improves upon the capacity approach;” and finally, it “is significantly a political as well as development agenda” (Hayne, 2008, p. 13).

These merits notwithstanding, HDI has been criticized based on a number of points. Firstly, it is a repetitious measure that does not count up much to the worth of individual measure it is made up of; also, it is a recreation of the cycle gauging the visible features of development which have been earlier meticulously studied (McGillivray, 1991; Srinivasan, 1994); secondly, it serves as a mode of giving legality to erratic measurements of not too many visible features of social development (Rao, 1991); thirdly, it concentrates on an assumption that provision of material amenities alone would bring about human development leaving out both material and moral development (Basu, 2005); fourthly, it pays little attention to development from a global perspective and it is characterized by possible imprecise categorization of countries in the classifications of being a low, medium, high or very high human development country on the premises of the measurement errors of the UNDP’s fundamental formula and statistics changes (Wolff, Chong, and Auffhammer 2011); and finally, it has no appropriate treatment of income and lacks year-to-year comparability and assesses development differently in different groups of countries; the HDRs are off-track pursuing its genuine vision, and the index falls short of grabbing the significance of the world it pursues to represent (McGillivray and White, 2006; Sagara and Najam, 1998). Human development, according to Haynes (2008, p. 13) “is never a finished process but a work-in-progress, a continuing attempt to evaluate humanity’s current condition.” Haynes goes ahead to state that “it is also a normative attempt to outline the priorities while also serving as a rallying cry for all those seeking humane alternatives.” One may rightly conclude that this assertion by Haynes on human development is responsible for the reason the HDI is the most frequently used to measure development.

There exists a link between human development and the MDGs. The MDGs embodies the idea of human development and the HDI by reckoning with a number of indicators which include adult literacy rate and life expectancy (UNDP, 2006). Corroborating this, UNDP (2003, p. 143) states that human development is emphasized by the MDGs with respect to the “elimination of poverty, provision of employment, the reduction of inequality and the progressive realization and guarantee of human rights.”

Also in the 1980s but through the 1990s, development meant “economic growth” through “deregulation,” “liberalization,” and “privatization” from the perspective of neoliberalism in the modern development discourse (Pieterse, 2010, p. 7). According to Kegley (2006, p. 331), neoliberalism refers to “a perspective that accounts for the way international institutions promote global cooperation and prosperity through reforms such as the creation of free markets and acceptance of free trade.” Neoliberalism emerged in the 1930s from liberal scholars in Europe in their attempt to mark the middle way between classical liberalism and collectivist central planning that were not in agreement; its approach was in support of the promotion of a market economy under a strong state’s rules and guidance otherwise known as the social market economy (Mirowski and Plehwe, 2009). After a heavy decline to the usage of term ‘neoliberal’ in the 1960s, and following arguments by some theorists in the 1970s that the extensive involvement of the state in economic activities led to slower economic growth rates and incompetence and that leaving the market to its own design would achieve higher economic growth, it got reintroduced in the 1980s in association with Chilean military regime of Augusto Pinochet which took over government in 1973 and which launched a profound programme of liberalization, deregulation, privatization, and tariff cutting (Petras and Vieux, 1990; Boas and Gans-Morse, 2009; Willis, 2011). Neoliberal approach to development re-emerged during this

period because of the collapse of the state-led policies on development, the downturn of the Soviet Union, and the revival of market ideas which all invigorate the conviction that free-market policies were able to convey greater levels of economic growth, poverty alleviation, and freedom much more than any other system (Greig, Hulme and Turner, 2007).

The main principles underpinning neoliberalism places stronger emphasis on market-oriented growth or “market fundamentalism” and “minimal state” (Kay, 2004, p. 308). The former refers to a condition where “development is synonymous with sending the right signals to the market through the deregulation of national economies, and international trade” (Greig, Hulme and Turner, 2007, p. 104); that is, getting the price right and allowing market forces to do their work. This allows for openness under which there exists a better favourable chance for economic growth, more adept use of resources, and swap of technical knowledge. The latter refers to condition where “the state’s role would be significantly reduced, opening way to a much greater economic and developmental role for private capital” (Haynes, 2008, p. 30). In other words, government should withdraw from direct involvement in economic activities which is anathema to development as such involvement distorts the operation of market forces. The implications of these principles, policy-wise are the creation of “freer trade and fewer impediments to free movement of factors of production and of firm;” meaning that “an open free-enterprise economy is the sine qua non of development” (Olson, 1982, p. 141; Norberg, 2003, p. 103). Neoliberalism is recognized to be associated with a higher rate of economic growth than any other economic system (Christian, 1992; Hobsbawn, 2000). It is important to state that the principles of the social market economy of the 1930s deviates from the current day minimal state. The social market economy is preoccupied with a coordinated market economy that supports state intervention in public enterprise to establish a fair competition between the

market and the state (Koppstein, Lichbach and Irving, 2005). This suggests that the state actively implements regulative measures. As for the minimal state, it goes a step further by capturing the respect of fundamental individual rights in its intervention in public enterprise to establish a fair competition between the market and the state (Nozick, 1974). This suggests that the state is not at liberty to monopolize the use of force to interfere with free transactions between people to guarantee the fundamental individual rights of the people involved in such free transactions.

In summary, Kegley (2006, 44 - 45) lists the key units of neoliberalism as individuals, penetrated states and non-state transnational actors; its core concern as one that involves fostering interstate cooperation on the globe's shared economic, social and ecological problems; its major characteristic is an approach that involves transnational interdependence and regimes; its outlook on global prospects to revolve around expectation of cooperation and creation of global community; motives of its actors as that which capture global interests (absolute gains), justice peace, prosperity, liberty and morality; its central concepts as those that include transnational relations, law, free markets, interdependence, integration, liberal republican rule, human rights, and gender, and its policy prescriptions as those which involve developing regimes and promoting democracy and multilateral international institutions to coordinate collective responses to global problems. From the account of neoliberalism so far, it can be inferred that it has a relationship with modernization theory as it maintains one of the theory's traditional meanings of development which is economic growth; the main demarcation however, is that neoliberalism supports reduction in the role of the state in development and an improved role of the market in development. In short, neoliberalism changes the agency of development from the state to the market, and the process of development from state-oriented to market-oriented. It can also be inferred that neoliberalism has a relationship with the human development as a market-

based economic system is greatly enhanced by human development which allows for more competition under a common humane atmosphere.

The exhibition of the tenets of neoliberalism was clearly evident in various structural adjustment programmes (SAPs) in the 1980s and 1990s. SAPs was strongly underpinned by an idea enunciated by Barber Conable who was the president of the World Bank between 1986 and 1991 that the best approach to achieving a type of growth that could cure poverty was to allow for market forces and economic efficiency (Thomas and Reader, 2001). The best examples of SAPs' philosophy in action are the administrations of Thatcher (UK) and Reagan (USA) which adopted the market ideologies of which implementation "demonstrates the ways in which policies developed in the North could be imposed on Southern nations" (Willis, 2011, p. 56). Introduction, implementation and consolidation of SAPs in the developing world by these two leading international donor countries (UK and USA), Japan, and the main international financial institutions (IFIs), such as the World Bank and IMF in the 1980s followed an extreme hike in the oil prices and an attendant high rate of indebtedness for the developing world in the 1970s (Haynes, 2008). SAPs, in line with the prescriptions of neoliberalism scaled down "the developmental role of the state and increased faith in the ability of the market forces and private capitalists' economic efficiency to bring about to increased broad-based economic growth" (Haynes, 2008, p. 38). Unfortunately, results produced by the implementation of SAPs was highly disappointing as it was unable to lessen developmental inequalities and poverty; measures of SAPs "certainly did not lead to poverty reduction," neither did it improve human welfare despite of its achievement of economic stabilization (Stiglitz, 2006; McIlwaine, 2002, p. 99; Simon, et al., 1995). The downsizing of the state culminated in lack of safety nets and any form of assistance the down and out and the most vulnerable (Cornia, et al., 1987). The effects of

SAPs went from bad to worse to the extent that there was an extensive demand for reforms to subdue financial markets, scale down the single global market and upsize the state (Pettifor, 2003; Patamiko and Tievanen, 2006).

Neoliberalism has been criticized on the premise that it brings about adverse economic consequences under which its policies bring about inequality with the gap between the richest and the poorest 20 percent continuing to widen during the last 20th century decades (Pieterse, 2004; Chang and Grabel, 2004); the focus of these policies on economic growth relegates growing inequality to the background. This does not align with Wolf (2005) and Norberg (2003) which claim that both the rich and the poor are assisted by economic growth. Neoliberalism has also been criticized on the premise that its downsizing of the state roles in the development process and substituting it by upsizing the roles of the market through competitive private companies which takes off the efficiency accruable from the economy of scale (Katter, 2012); and on the premise that wealth distribution process under neoliberalism promotes exploitation and social injustice as its process naturally benefits the upper class courtesy of shift in the state and economic policies which heighten corporate power (Wolff, 2012). It is important to acknowledge that while there is a clear positive link between growth and poverty reduction, the impact of the distribution of income on this link is particularly less clear even at a point where higher inequality lessens the reduction in poverty generated by growth. The effect growth has in poverty reduction is determinable by initial levels of inequality. To buttress this, Ravallion (2007) estimates that it is possible for a one per cent increase in income levels to result to a 4.3 per cent decline in poverty in countries with very low inequality or as little as a 0.6 per cent decline in poverty in highly unequal countries. It is equally important to acknowledge that it is not a compulsion that growth leads to increased inequality. A recent common position suggests that

there exists no consistent relationship between inequality and changes in income as this is evidenced in the experiences of developing nations between the 1980s and 1990s which suggest that the chance of growth being accompanied by increasing or decreasing inequality is roughly equal (Ravallion, 2001).

3.3.5 Perspective of Development in the 1990s

In the 1990s, development meant “illusion” from the perspective of postdevelopment (Greig, Hulme and Turner, 2007, p. 252). Postdevelopment approach is a radical response to the crisis of development; it arose following a realization that the attainment of middle-class life for most of the people of the world is impracticable (Dasgupta, 1985). In his own account, Esteva (1992), development starts off as a Western concept long used by the Western powers with respect to colonialism which is characterized by the domination of the South by the North. Corroborating this, Kothari (1988, p. 143) states that “where colonialism left off, development took over.” In his postdevelopment discourse, Sachs (1992, p. 1) states that “the idea of development stands in ruin in the intellectual landscape;” he goes ahead to state that “delusion and disappointment, failures and crimes have been steady companions of development and they tell a common story: it did not work.” Further discrediting the term development, Sachs states that “the historical conditions which catapulted the idea into prominence have vanished: development has become outdated” and that “above all, the hopes and desires that made the idea fly, are now exhausted: development has grown obsolete” (p. 4). Development is described by Sachs as “amoeba-like concept, shapeless but ineradicable, with no contours, so blurred it denotes nothing” (p. 4). Arturo Escobar, the most famous postdevelopmentalist sees development as a kind of external norm of Eurocentrism and colonialism imposed on the poorer countries of the South by the richer countries of the North and their institutions in the post

Second World War period of which should be confronted from the grassroots level to put an end to an unequal Western-dominated rhetoric that refuses the grassroots level approach (Escobar, 1995). This Eurocentric domination has “destroyed indigenous cultures, threatened the sustainability of natural environments and has created feelings of inferiority among people of the South” (Willis, 2011, p. 32). Escobar does not pitch his tent with any form of alternative development because most of the efforts put into such forms of alternative development “are also products of the same worldview which has produced the mainstream concept of development” (Nandy, 1989, p. 270). Postdevelopment approach rejects development because it is new religion of the West; it is the imposition of science as power; it does not work; it means cultural Westernization and homogenization; and because it brings environmental destruction (Rist, 1990; Nandy, 1998, Kothari, 1998; Constantino, 1985 cited in Pieterse, 2010). This is a clear indication that postdevelopment does not only probe the means by which development is achieved but the whole concept of development as comprehended in the Eurocentric discourse.

Postdevelopment supports a condition under which indigenous people of the South are “able to choose the way they want to live without being made to feel that they are somehow inferior or backward by not following patterns that has been adopted elsewhere” or imposed on them by the North (Willis 2011, p. 32; Maiava, 2002). Therefore, participation should be key to development under which the focal point should be the views and actions which should be given priority in policy development rather than considering and attempting development at the global scale (Esteva and Prakash, 1997). Clear-cut Western solutions to development problem in the Southern countries is refuted by Esteva and Prakash (1998), Escobar (1995), and Sachs (1992); they completely say no to universal rationality, modernization, Westernization, capitalism, industrialization and technology. In place of these, they prescribe that the key to good life in

modesty and economizing which involves meeting basic needs from local sources should be established. Quality of life should thus be advanced in a bottom-up process driven by social local movements. In summary, the main actors of postdevelopment are the grassroots, organizations and individuals; its scale is a very small scale; its definition of development is that it is a dangerous, Eurocentric concept that destroys local cultures and environment; and its description is that it focuses on grassroots activities and local level participation (Willis, 2011, p. 225). From the account of postdevelopment so far, it can be inferred that it has a relationship with dependency theory as it bears resemblance with its faith in endogenous development. However, while dependency theory's main actor is the nation-state, that of postdevelopment is the local/grassroot autonomy. It can further be inferred that postdevelopment has a relationship with the alternative development approach as it bears resemblance with its focus on self reliance; the main demarcation between the two is that postdevelopment rejects development outright while alternative development does not.

Postdevelopment has been criticized based on a number of reasons. The idea that development is an illusion is challenged based on the premise that progress is real, progresses in science, technology, medicine, improved living standards, and decrease in the percentage of people living in extreme poverty have "been real and sustained; this claim is accurate "as long as it is not taken to be a claim of perfection" (Riggs, 2003; Sachs, 2005, p. 252). Postdevelopment is also criticized on the premise that it fails to proffer solution to or offer concrete actions to the development problems such as poverty and inequality; it is therefore worrisome and worrisome that postdevelopment approaches with all their sharp rejection of the concept of development are mere replica of "studies that cry out for some proposal of what to do in desperate situations suddenly ending where they should propose or call safely for further research" (Peet, 1999, p.

193). Specifically criticizing Escobar's idea of sharp rejection of the concept of development, Willis (2011) states that his "influential study is based largely on the policies in Colombia in the 1950s and 1960s;" further to this, Willis states that "rather than recognizing the diversity and dynamism of development theorizing and practice, much postdevelopment analysis has drawn on a stereotypical image of how development has been defined and implemented" (p. 232). These criticisms notwithstanding, postdevelopment approaches have so far functioned to contest some long-held assumptions which revolve around the nature of development. In line with this, Rapley (2002, p. 16) states that "if postdevelopment theory fails to provide answers to the pressing needs of today's Third World, it remains useful for the questions it raises."

3.4 The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)

3.4.1 A Brief Description of the MDGs

In history, development has meant different things from different perspectives including modernization theory in the 1950s; dependency theory in the 1960s; world system theory and alternative development in the 1970s; human development in the 1980s; neoliberalism in the 1980s through the 1990s; and postdevelopment in the 1990s (*see chapter three for discussions on the perspectives of development over time*). From the 2000s, the focus of development policies has been on the eradication of global poverty from the perspective of the MDGs. The prevailing intensity of the incidence of poverty across the globe led the General Assembly of the UN on the 18th day of September, 2000 at a Millennium Summit to adopt a Resolution 55/2 known as the United Nations Millennium Declaration (UN, 2000a). The declaration sets out a bold vision, uniting "larger freedom" and human development recognizing that although, individuals freedom matters, people are restricted in what they can do with that freedom if they are poor, ill, illiterate, discriminated against, threatened by violent conflict or denied a political voice (Poku and

Whitman, 2011). According to Bertucci and Rosenbaum (2007, p. 7), the declaration is obviously “one of the boldest, indeed probably the boldest, initiative ever undertaken by any multi-national organization to improve the human social and economic condition.” This set the stage for the promotion of the eight different goals known as the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) of which targets were adopted in 2001. These international goals “are the world’s biggest promise – a global agreement to reduce poverty and human deprivation at historically unprecedented rates through collaborative action;” and this is perhaps the most significant step in the war against poverty (Hulme, 2009, p. 4; Davidson and Esubalew, 2009). The MDGs have further been described as “the world’s most comprehensive time-bound set goals designed for addressing poverty in its many dimensions - namely income poverty, disease, lack of adequate shelter and exclusion, while promoting gender equality, education, and environmental sustainability.”(UNMP, 2005, p. 1).

According to the UNDG (2003), ERD (2008), UN (2008a; b; 2010), ITU (2011), and World Bank (2011a), the first goal is to eradicate poverty and hunger; the second goal is to achieve universal primary education; the third goal is to promote gender equality and empower women; the fourth goal is to reduce child mortality; the fifth goal is to improve maternal mortality; the sixth goal is to combat HIV and AIDS, malaria and other diseases; the seventh goal is to ensure environmental sustainability; and the eighth goal is to develop a global partnership for development (*see appendix 7 for complete goals, targets and indicators of the MDGs*). The prospects of the MDGs, according to Poku and Whitman (2011), cannot be reduced to the sum of the eight goals, divorced from international dynamics, the hard interests of states and the global dynamics that affect both, or from the complexities and intractability of widespread poverty and consequences. The central idea of these goals is to improve both the

economic and social conditions of the very poor countries across the globe to generate development. At Monterrey, Mexico in 2005, the international commitment to achieve the MDGs was reaffirmed by all member states of the UN (INAFI, 2010). The MDGs thus constitute a normative consensus in the development community of the beginning of the 21st century (Ziai, 2011). In general, the idea of the international community is that development is achievable by “developing a holistic approach to development that stresses the linkage between security, good governance and economic development,” suggesting that “development can only be achieved in a secure and democratic environment, conducive to long-term investments” (Bagoyoko and Gibert, 2007, p. 9). The MDGs closely link development and poverty reduction in that they are committed to sparing “no effort to free fellow men, women and children from abject and dehumanizing conditions of extreme poverty” and “making the right to development a reality for everyone and to freeing the entire human race from want” (UN, 2000b, p. 4). The MDGs support making core investments in infrastructure and human capital which enables the poor to make full use of them wherever they are domiciled; this evidences a construction of a harmonious, mutually reinforcing relationship between poverty and economic growth (Anan, 2005; World Bank, 2000a). With these descriptions of the MDGs, it follows that to achieve the goals, strong political will from national leaders is required and simultaneously, citizens’ participation is a prerequisite for developing and developed countries by holding their governments to account to fulfil their pledges (INAFI, 2010). To guarantee poverty reduction and promote global prosperity for all, primary responsibility should be recommitted by developing nations for their own development by strengthening governance, combating corruption, and putting in place the policies and investments to drive private-sector led growth and maximizing domestic resources to fund national development strategies (UNMP, 2005).

To ensure the implementation of the MDGs in poorer countries, richer ones have been providing aid. For example, since 2000, the vast majority of European Commission general budgetary allocations have been for the support of African, Caribbean and Pacific countries. The European Union (EU) as a whole, including its member states, contributes around 60 percent of global Official Development Assistance (ODA). The European Commission Development Programme allocated €51 billion for the period 2007–2013, making it a critical player in global efforts to achieve the MDGs (Alliance 2015, 2008). In general, the “European states have shown a keen interest in Africa’s political and economic development throughout the postcolonial era” (Gibert, 2007, p. 107). The MDGs are fashioned on the belief that poverty in the poorest countries can be dramatically reduced only if developing countries put in place well-designed and well-implemented plans to reduce poverty. According to UNMP (2005), world poverty can be effectively reduced if a number of quick wins approaches are followed which include: access to information on sexual and reproductive health; action against domestic violence; appointment of government scientific advisors in every country; deworming school children in affected areas; provision of drugs for AIDS, tuberculosis, and malaria; phasing out of school fees; ending user fees for basic health care in developing countries; provision of free school meals for schoolchildren; legislation for women’s rights, including rights to property; tree planting; provision of soil nutrients to farmers in SSA; provision of mosquito nets; access to electricity, water and sanitation; support for breast-feeding; training programs for community health in rural areas; and upgrading slums, and providing land for public housing. Implementation of the MDGs was guided by the Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs) for achieving the goals. The formulation of PRSPs’ requires quick and correct understanding of its many technicalities, theoretical foundations, scope and contents and processes as in preparing it, capability of

different interpretations is not unlikely (Hunter, May and Padayyachee, 2003). The formulation of PRSPs globally is not a new invention; the new things on board are both the MDGs and the MDGs-based PRSPs. Before the emergence of the MDGs, both the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) were at the vanguard of promoting poverty reduction strategy programme in many developing countries including Nigeria and went far with developing methodologies for PRSPs. So, it is an incontestable fact that PRSPs have got their origin in SAP. No thanks to the failures of SAP in many African countries including Nigeria which informed the first set of PRSPs. This is a major factor as to why PRSPs are not fully acceptable (Craig and Portel, 2001; Hunter, May and Padayyachee, 2003). In some countries, their PRSPs are known as Poverty Reduction Strategy Process (PRSP) instead of Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper that it originally meant.

The MDGs have been criticized for a number of reasons. One such criticism is on the premise that the chosen objectives of the MDGs have no analytical power and justification. In relation to the poorer countries of the South, the MDGs have no strong objectives and indicators for within-country equality in spite of their fundamental disparities (Deneulin and Shahani, 2009; Kabeer, 2010). According to Easterly (2009), the way the targets and indicators of the MDGs are designed is unfair to poor countries, particularly Africa countries as basing the measurement of changes on proportion makes it very difficult for these countries to progress. Easterly further states that if in Latin America, the rate of poverty is halved from 10 percent to 5 percent, and the rate is cut from 50 percent to 35 percent in Africa, it means that the former has more progress representing 50 percent poverty reduction against the latter that has 30 percent poverty reduction. Another criticism is on the basis that the mechanism of using external innovations supported by external financing to get local change introduced is inadequate. This could have been

alternatively achieved with the use of community initiative, building from resources of solidarity and local growth within existing cultural and government structures (Rodrik, 2008; Marglin, 2008). The MDGs have also been criticized on the premise that the process involved fails to make an inclusion of the voices of those they aim to assist as the creational process of the MDGs has little involvement of developing countries and civil society constituencies (Kabeer, 2005; Waage, et al., 2010). According to Amin (2006), the United States (US), Europe and Japan drove the overall creation process of the MDGs with co-sponsorship from the World Bank, IMF and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). This according to Fukuda-Parr (2010) makes the MDGs framework to suit the interests of these rich states and institutions. The MDGs have also been criticized on the ground that they are unrealistic and overambitious as limited local capacities with particular respect to missing capabilities of governance are neglected by the goals (Oya, 2011). Another account criticizes the MDGs on the ground that they are less ambitious when they are considered against the sheer volume of basic human needs not met (Barnes and Brown, 2011). For example, the less ambitious characteristic of the MDGs reflects in the first MDG which aims to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger when juxtaposed with the 1996 World Food Summit's goals on poverty alleviation; rather than aiming to halve the proportion of people suffering from extreme poverty and hunger, the MDGs should have aimed to halve the absolute numbers of people suffering (Pogge, 2004). The failure of the MDGs in Low Income Countries (LICs) and Middle Income Countries (MICs) is attributed to the over-ambition of the goals for some countries and the non-challenging stance of the goals for other countries (Langford, 2010). The MDGs are again criticized on the premise that its contents exclude political and human rights. According to Ziai (2011), the contents of the MDGs' targets suggest that the problems to be tackled are technical rather than political; which

further suggests that the solution solely lies on increasing financial resources. An inclusion of human rights orientation within the MDGs' framework could have positively impacted on the monitoring and co-functions of the MDGs' targets (Cecchini and Notti, 2011). One last criticism of the MDGs is based on the ground that with respect to the implementation of the MDGs, the data are not readily available and most available ones are not reliable which put the progress reports of the MDGs into question as they are difficult to interpret (Sachs, 2012; Dar and Khan, 2011; Reddy and Heuty, 2008). For example, in LICs, reports on global MDGs' targets are founded on limited and insufficient evidence of feasibility (AbouZahr and Boerma, 2010); also, from 1990, the health-related baselines are founded on inaccurate and undependable household surveys that have no information on health records/statistics, and death and birth records/statistics (Attaran, 2005).

The criticisms of the MDGs notwithstanding, they have got their strength in an assertion that they represent an "important frame of reference "through which a more "decent and fairer" world can be built (ILO, 2004, p. 106; Sachs, 2005, p. 210). This is sensible because challenges in development always need an "overarching framework" like the MDGs with which global energy can be well coordinated (Shetty, 2005, p. 28). Shetty (2005) and Vandemoortele (2005) claim that another visible strength of the MDGs is their quantitative targets whose attainment or non-attainment can be more rigorously monitored.

3.5 The Links between Perspectives of Development and the MDGs

There exist some links between modernization theory and the MDGs. The MDGs discourse seemingly aligns with the principles of modernization theory as two terms associated with the theory namely *big push* and *poverty trap* were consistently used in the 2005 United Nations Millennium Project report directed by Jeffrey Sachs. The report emphasizes that it is the

poverty trap and not bad government that is associable with the poor growth of Low Income Countries and their negative progress towards the attainment of the MDGs (UNMP, 2005). It goes on to state that “a big push of basic investments between now and 2015 in public administrations, human capital (nutrition, health, education), and key infrastructure (roads, electricity, ports)” may offer solutions to the poverty trap (p. 19). According to Easterly (2006), MDGs initiative is imbued with ideas from Rostow’s modernization theory of the 1950s as the call for big push in donor aids by leaders across the globe has been loud; and national and centrally harmonized plans have apparently been prevailing over grassroot projects. In line with this, UNDP (2005) states that “aid provides governments with a resource for making the multiple investments in health, education and economic infrastructure needed to break cycles of deprivation;” and that “without a sustained increase in aid, the MDGs will not be achieved” (pp. 4, 76). Further showing the relevance of modernization theory to the MDGs, Sachs (2005) advises that if there was a big push in 2005, it would take countries off the poverty trap to enable them meet the targets of the MDGs through which a self sustaining growth could be achieved by 2025.

Another term associable with modernization theory that is prominent in MDGs discourse is *takeoff*. Easterly (2006, pp. 4-5) further emphasizes that “the positive outcome of escaping a poverty trap is a takeoff,” and that “judging by old and new language, a big push involves a combination of (1) a big increase in foreign aid, (2) a simultaneous increase in investment in many different sectors, (3) with the consequence that poor countries escape from a “poverty trap” and have a rapid acceleration of growth (a takeoff). It is claimed by UNDP (2003) that poverty reduction has to with critical thresholds of human and economic development suggestive of Rostow’s preconditions for takeoff being reached. The impetus to attain “takeoff to sustained

economic growth” is produced by thresholds “of health, education, infrastructure and governance” (p. 18). Further to this, in line with Rostow’s positive belief, UNDP (2003) emphasizes that takeoff is achievable “within a generation” (p. 178). Greig, Hulme and Turner (2007) write that within the framework of the MDGs, donor assistance and foreign investments act as important components of reversal of the vicious circle via the provision of the financing for takeoff in the economic sense.

There exist some links between dependency theory and the MDGs. The MDGs discourse seemingly aligns with principles of dependency theory. According to UNMP, (2005, p. 212), historical experience reveals that the global trading system did serve “the interests of developed countries” at the expense of the poorer countries. The MDGs framework is suggestive of a claim that the “history relations between the richer and the poorer countries has involved hindering development rather than assistance” with the exception that “the framework departs from more radical dependency theories in its rejection of the claim that exploitation is inherent within the process of capitalist development” (Greig, Hulme and Turner, 2007, p. 160). UNDP (2003, p. 145) states it clearer that “poor countries face constraints that can only be eased through policy changes in rich countries.” Even at a state of developing, the structural position of the poorer countries “operates against catching up with the wealthiest nations, especially as the market rewards the most efficient” (Greig, Hulme and Turner, 2007, p. 160).

There exists a link between human development and the MDGs. The MDGs embodies the idea of human development and the HDI by reckoning with a number of indicators which include adult literacy rate and life expectancy (UNDP, 2006). Corroborating this, UNDP (2003, p. 143) states that human development is emphasized by the MDGs with respect to the

“elimination of poverty, provision of employment, the reduction of inequality and the progressive realization and guarantee of human rights.”

There exist some links between neoliberalism and the MDGs. The MDGs seemingly align with neoliberalism as they are founded in the economic growth model of the neo-liberal theory, which emphasizes that the long term poverty reduction requires sustained economic growth, which in turn depends on technological advancement and capital accumulation (Oduola, 2006). In line with this, Heeks (2005) argues that the MDGs arose as a counter-blast to the perceived failure of the neoliberal agenda – the one favouring markets, the private sector, and globalization to deliver for the world poor. The MDGs appear to be a better option for poverty because while the standard formulae in neoliberal discourse is globalization which is assumed to inevitably bring huge opportunities and benefits;’ the key MDGs documents present global economic liberalization as a potentially beneficial force, having put into consideration the costs and the even distribution of the benefits of globalization (Ziai, 2011).

3.6 Progress of the MDGs’ Targets on Global Poverty Reduction

According to the World Bank (2011d, p. 15), “75 percent of countries in East Asia and Pacific, 75 percent of countries in Europe and Central Asia, 59 percent of countries in Latin America and the Caribbean are on target to achieve the MDGs’ targets on poverty reduction” by 2015; also, “19 percent of countries in South Asia and 35 percent of countries in SSA are on target to achieve the MDGs’ targets on poverty reduction” by 2015. On the basis of the recently updated projections, the overall poverty rate is still expected to decline below 15 percent by 2015, indicating that the MDGs’ targets on poverty reduction can be met. This is as a result of the fastest growth and sharpest reductions in poverty consistent in Eastern Asia, particularly in China, where the poverty rate is expected to fall to below 5 percent by 2015 and India where

poverty rates are projected to fall from 51 percent in 1990 to about 22 percent in 2015. Between 1990 and 2005 in these countries, the number of people living in extreme poverty reduced by about 455 million, and expected to join their ranks by 2015 is an additional 320 million people (World Bank, 2011d).

The first target of the MDGs on poverty reduction which has to do with halving between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than US\$1 a day; this used to be the common international poverty line in the past. Poverty line or threshold refers to the minimum level of income considered appropriate in a particular country (Ravallion, 1992). The international poverty line was adjusted to US\$1.25 at the 2005 Purchasing-Power Parity (PPP) by the World Bank in 2008 (Ravallion, Chen and Sangraula, 2009). In the developing countries, the number of people living on less than \$1.25 a day was reduced from about 1.8 billion in 1990 to 1.4 billion in 2005 courtesy of the “robust growth in the first half of the decade.” The “corresponding poverty rate” simultaneously “dropped from 46 percent to 27 percent.” The 2008 economic and financial crisis of the Global North and the World Bank projection that it was expected to push an estimated 64 million more people into extreme poverty in 2010 notwithstanding, “current trends suggest that the momentum of growth in the developing world remains strong enough to sustain the progress needed to reach the global poverty-reduction target.” As adjusted by the World Bank in 2008 however, even if these positive trends continued, in 2015, roughly 920 million people would still be living under the international poverty line of \$1.25 a day (UN, 2011a, 6-7). According to World Bank (2011d, pp. 18-19), 17 ‘lagging countries’ across the globe are close to the target of halving the number of people in extreme poverty by 2015; 67 are far from the target of halving the proportion of people in

extreme poverty by 2015; while 96 are off the target of the target of halving the number of people in extreme poverty by 2015.”

In relation to achieving the second target of the MDGs on poverty reduction which has to do with achieving full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people “the employment-to-population ratio dropped from 56.8 percent in 2007 to 55.4 percent in 2009, with a further drop to 54.8 percent in 2010” in the Global North. Without capturing the Caucasus and Central Asia and Eastern Asia in the Global South, “the estimated employment-to-population ratio in 2010 has changed little since 2007.” Based on the available data, the estimate of “the vulnerable employment rate remained roughly the same between 2008 and 2009, both in developing and developed regions;” also, the rate of vulnerable employment increased in “Sub-Saharan Africa and Western Asia.” Going by the figures captured by the International Labour Organization (ILO), “one in five workers and their families worldwide were living in extreme poverty (on less than \$1.25 per person per day) in 2009 which “represents a sharp decline in poverty from a decade earlier, but also a flattening of the slope of the working poverty incidence curve beginning in 2007.” This 2009 estimated rate represents “1.6 percentage points higher than the rate projected on the basis of the pre-crisis trend.” Though, “a crude estimate, it amounts to about 40 million more working poor at the extreme \$1.25 level in 2009 than would have been expected on the basis of pre-crisis trends” (UN, 2011a, pp. 8-10).

The last target of the MDGs on poverty reduction has to do with halving, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger. According to HTF (2003, p. 33), hunger is “a condition, in which people lack the basic food intake to provide them energy and nutrients for fully productive lives.” Food poverty refers to the inability to acquire or consume an adequate quality or sufficient quality of food in socially acceptable ways, or the uncertainty that

one will be able to do so (Riches, 1997). It has been consistently revealed by research that “nutritional status is related to income; that is, the poorer you are, the worse your diet” (Dowler, Turner and Dobson, 2001, p. 2). In other words, “those who are better off are more likely to eat healthier diets than those who are poorer, to grow better infants and young children, and to be a healthier body size when adult” (Dowler, 2008, p. 34). UN (2011b) reports that in the developing world, “the proportion of people who went hungry in 2005-2007 remained stable at 16 percent, despite significant reductions in extreme poverty.” On the basis of this trend including the economic crisis and rising food prices, “it will be difficult to meet the hunger-reduction target in many regions of the developing world;” and going by the flows noticed in South-Eastern Asia, Eastern Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean, “they are likely to meet the hunger-reduction target by 2015;” though, there exist wide disparities among countries in these regions (p. 11). As for SSA, on the basis of the current trends, it “will be unable to meet the hunger-reduction target by 2015” (p. 12). According to UN (2010, p. 1), there is decline in the proportion of people suffering from hunger; this is however at an “unsatisfactory pace;” and irrespective of the fact that the number of people globally suffering from malnutrition and hunger has reduced since the early 1990s, “progress has stalled since 2000-2002.” UN (2010) further reports that the figure captured by the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) as the estimate of the number of people who will suffer chronic hunger in 2011 is "925 million, down from 1.023 billion in 2009, but still more than the number of undernourished people in 1990 (about 815 million)." Approximately "one in four children under the age of five was underweight in the developing world, down from almost one in three in 1990" and "between 1990 and 2009, the proportion of children under age five who are underweight declined from 30 percent to 23 percent in developing regions” (p. 13). As for Eastern Asia, Latin America, the Caribbean, and

the Caucasus and Central Asia, they “have reached or nearly reached the MDGs’ target, and South-Eastern Asia and Northern Africa are on track” (p. 13). Overall, this is not sufficient to reach this MDGs’ target on poverty reduction by 2015. In developing regions, “the proportion of underweight children under five declined from 31 percent to 26 percent between 1990 and 2008;” this is with particular success in Eastern Asia, notably China (UN, 2010, p. 1). These improvements notwithstanding, progress is currently not fast enough to reach the MDGs’ target, and particular focus is required in Southern Asia, a region that accounts for almost half the world’s undernourished children. In these regions, children in rural areas are almost two times as likely to be underweight as those in urban centres. For the developing world, the figure captured as the new estimate of the average prevalence of undernourishment in 2006-2008 is 15 percent. If compared to the figure captured by the estimate for 2005-2007, it is slightly different. Going by this, it follows that the average number of people suffering from lack of adequate food over the three years remained uncomfortably high at 840 million worldwide (UN 2011a, pp. 11-13; UNDP, 2011). According to World Bank (2011d, pp. 18-19), 9 “lagging countries” across the globe are close to the target of halving the number of people suffering from hunger by 2015; 35 are far from the target of halving the proportion of people suffering from hunger by 2015; while 60 are off the target of halving the proportion of people suffering from hunger by 2015.

Coming to the overall poverty rates, the level of achievements recorded in the poverty reduction targets of the MDGs is as a result of extraordinary success in Asia, mostly East Asia. The poverty rate in East Asia fell from nearly 60 percent to under 20 percent over a 25-year period. By 2015, poverty rates are expected to fall to around 5 percent in China and 24 percent in India (UN, 2010). In SSA, little progress has been made to alleviate extreme poverty; here, the poverty rate has declined only slightly, from 58 to 51 percent between 1990 and 2005. SSA,

Western Asia and parts of Eastern Europe and Central Asia are the few regions not expected to achieve the MDGs' poverty reduction targets (UN, 2010). On the basis of the recent economic growth performance and forecasted trends, the extreme poverty rate SSA is expected to fall below 36 percent (World Bank, 2011d). Some other pieces of information suggest that very few of the MDGs will be achieved in the region within the stipulated time (Rispel and Nkibua, 2011). According to McGillivray (2008), UN (2009a), and UNECA (2005), with the current trend, SSA is not in the right position to attain the MDGs goals for the reduction of extreme poverty and hunger. Corroborating this, Beaglehole and Bonita (2008) state that, the data available as at June 2007, suggest that none of the MDGs would be achieved by SSA. The region has been argued to be a most off-track on the MDGs as it lags behind the rest of the developing world on most of the MDGs; the Millennium Project estimates that a typical country in SSA will need to significantly increase public investments to approximately US\$75-US\$80 per capita by 2006, rising to US\$125-US\$160 by 2015, in order to meet the goals. In a typical rural community, the required investments average US\$110 per capita/year over 5-10 year period (DCPP, 2007; Chovwen et al., 2009). However, Easterly (2009) sees the attainment of the MDGs by SSA from a different angle; though, he pitches his tent with other authors that SSA could not meet the MDGs targets by 2015 but he does not see the region as a complete failure as it is often presented. According to him, "a series of arbitrary choices made in defining success or failure as achieving numerical targets for the MDGs made attainment of the MDGs less likely in Africa than in other regions even when its progress was in line with or above historical or contemporary experience of other regions;" therefore, "the statement that Africa will miss all the MDGs thus has the unfortunate effect of making African successes look like failures" (p. 26).

All the preceding arguments suggesting SSA's inability of meeting the MDGs notwithstanding, UNECA (2014) confirms that over the past decades, there has been continuous decline in the number of Africans living in extreme poverty "in spite of the excruciating impact of the recent food, fuel, financial and Eurozone crises" and that the proportion of people living in extreme poverty "in Southern, East, Central and West Africa as a group decreased from 56.5 percent in 1990 to 48.5 percent in 2010, an 8 percentage point reduction" (p. 12).

3.7 Progress of the MDGs' Targets on Poverty Reduction in Nigeria

Generally, Nigeria's progress towards attaining the MDGs by 2015 is mixed; while progress towards some MDGs has been average, progress as a whole has been less satisfactory (OSSAP-MDGs, 2010a). Regarding attaining the first goal of the MDGs which is eradicating extreme poverty and hunger, its progress has been said to be slow as five out of every ten Nigerians still lived in poverty (OSSAP-MDGs, 2010a). It was reported by (OSSAP-MDGs, 2010b) that the economic growth experienced by Nigeria, particularly in the agricultural sector had been able to reduce the proportion of underweight children, from 35.7 percent in 1990 to 23.1 percent in 2008. However, the growth experienced was not able to generate enough jobs and its effect on poverty was not that clear as most of the data relied on which was from 2004 and the policy in place suggested that this goal would be difficult to meet. For this goal to be attained, relative poverty which was 60 percent in 2000 was expected to have fallen to 21.35 percent by 2015 in line with the first MDG's targets. Regrettably, as at 2007 which was the mid-point for implementation of the relevant MDGs' programmes in Nigeria, 54.4 percent of the country's population still lived in relative poverty instead of 28.78 percent it ought to have fallen to if this goal's targets were to be met. If the trend as it then was continued, by the year 2015, the poverty incidence would have fallen to 48.7 percent which would be 27.3 percent more than the expected figure indicating that the goal could simply not be attained by 2015 (OSSAP-MDGs, 2010a).

Imoudu (2012) and Oshewolo (2011), claimed that the prospects of economic revival in Nigeria in order to meet the MDGs appear dim as the progress towards the attainment of the goals was approximately at a snail's pace, hence attaining the targets of the goals remained a distant goal. In a study conducted by Alabi and Adams (2011), it was claimed that Nigeria's progress towards attaining the MDGs's targets, particularly the ones on poverty reduction is slow. To support this, they based this claim on the premise that Nigeria appropriated more than ₦340 billion (US\$ 2.27 billion) for MDGs implementation between 2007 and 2010 and that the country needed as much as over ₦24 trillion (US\$160 billion) in the following five years to attain the MDGs' targets. They inferred that Nigeria would be unable to raise such huge amount of money and that also, owing to the global financial crisis which induced a dwindling export prices (oil and cocoa prices), diminishing international remittances from developed countries, a downturn or even withdrawal of Foreign Direct Investments as well as increased inflation and taxation, Nigeria's progress of achieving the MDGs would be clogged. Further to this, they emphasized corruption in the use of MDGs fund as one other factor that would bar the progress of achieving the MDGs in Nigeria. They concluded by suggesting the diversification of economic base in Nigeria by implementing "lower interest rate for the real sectors of the economy, targeted bailout for farmers' loans, rural employment and social security programmes" (p. 24).

In a study conducted by Chete (2009), it was claimed that Nigeria was unlikely to attain the MDGs' targets in general as the progress towards meeting the targets was slow. This was attributed to the global economy that was facing crisis of monumental proportions and the financial crisis cum economic meltdown that did not only threaten the prospects of meeting the MGDs but also raised a real feasibility of back-pedaling the gain already achieved in the

pursuit of these goals. It was further claimed that this slowdown was a negative factor to the MDGs because it undermined progress by reducing per capita growth rates and causing severe budget problems. According to him, the slower growth rates in developing countries including Nigeria were expected to actively put the attainment of the MDGs in jeopardy, and further trap a larger proportion of people into poverty. He further reported that 1 percent drop in growth of third world nations including Nigeria could trap as much as 20 million people into poverty. He stated further that it was unlikely Nigeria will meet the MDGs because the slowdown decreased remittances, reduced foreign direct investment and felled the demand for goods and services. He wrote that the country's relatively developed financial market directly suffered from capital flight as a result of their direct exposure to the international financial system; its stock market indices declined by about 67 percent between March 2008 and March 2009; its currency, the Naira depreciated against the US dollar by 10 percent in 2009; and importation of food by the country which was a major component of the consumer price index cum currency depreciation was to increase domestic prices of consumer goods and reduce access to food by vulnerable groups, thereby having negative implication particularly on the attainment of the MDGs' targets on poverty reduction. He said that it was unlikely for Nigeria to achieve the MDGs because the downturn led to high rate of unemployment; also, it affected the amount of ODA that was available to the country. In a nutshell, Nigeria's progress toward achieving the MDGs's targets was slow and the country could not meet the MDGs owing to the effects of the global economic downturn as it put at risk the chances of doing so.

In a study conducted by Bello and Roslan (2010), it was scientifically proved that the MDGs in general were not achievable in Nigeria under the trends identified thereby suggesting that the progress towards achieving the goal was negative. The trends identified included lack of

adequate planning such as mapping the MDGs into short, medium and long-term development plans and lack of funding or investment to achieve the MDGs; the study reported that Nigeria required as much as ₦4 trillion on an annual basis from 2009 until 2015 to attain the MDGs. In their analysis, they forecasted Nigeria's chances of meeting the MDGs using the Trend Regression, Model Holt's Method and Box-Jenkins Method. The first, second and third methods showed that the rate of poverty in Nigeria would be 67.4 percent, 75.1 percent and 54.2 percent respectively by 2015; with the average forecast being 65.57 percent. They claimed that from the results of the three forecasting models employed, it was clear that Nigeria would not meet the MDGs' targets, particularly the ones on poverty reduction.

In a study conducted by Essien and Usenobong (2009), it was claimed that there was no significant progress made by Nigeria towards meeting the MDGs goals in general as the country recorded not up to 20 percent achievement towards the targets; and as such was unlikely to achieve them. This claim was made after they assessed the progress made in the country towards attaining these goals and examined the likely pressure the global economic crisis might exert on attaining the goals. They stressed that probable factors responsible for the sticky response included deficiencies in infrastructure, high level of illiteracy (especially in rural areas), feeble political will in programme implementation and corruption. With respect to the global economic crisis, the probable factors responsible for same were listed to include precipitous fall in oil prices, increased unemployment, high food prices, high lending rates, retrenchment, credit squeeze, and decrease in investment, and fall in aggregate demand which negatively affected all the facets of Nigeria's economy.

In a study conducted by Ogunmola and Badmus (2010), it was claimed that Nigeria's yearning towards achieving the MDGs in general was very unrealistic as the Nigerian

government score sheet was unimpressive. They used descriptive approach to probe the problems that were militating against the implementation and realization of the MDGs in the country; through this, they were able to attribute impossibility of meeting the targets to the implementation of MDGs that was beclouded with deeply entrenched corruption, gross inefficiency, and wastefulness. In addition, they stressed it could be attributed to poor administration and lack of political will.

In a study by Ogege (2012), the achievement of the MDGs' targets on poverty reduction by Nigeria remained a mirage because the country had not been able to win its war against poverty from the commencement of the implementation of the MDGs. He situated his discourse within the feedback system theory also known as vicious cycle of poverty or the culture of poverty framework; maintaining that poverty bred poverty in Nigeria through time and this metamorphosed in a force of culture which was transmitted from one generation to another in a cyclical manner with no beginning and no end to the cycle. Buttressing his point, he stated that the poverty trap in the country was explicated by the poverty correlate of the occupation of household that was predominately agriculture with large household sizes. This peculiar circumstance according to him made it not only difficult for them to escape from poverty but they also bequeath it to their children. This culminated in a culture of poverty under which people, resigned to fate. He stated further that this culture of poverty is reinforced and sustained by bad governance, corruption, unemployment and impotent poverty reduction programmes thereby explaining the reasons the country was not getting positive results from the various attempts it made over the years to eradicate poverty. He recommended the formulation and implementation of policies that could overcome the institutional constraints that militated against actualization of the MDGs in Nigeria within the targeted time frame.

In a 2004 MDGs Report, NPC (2004b) asserted that it was unlikely that Nigeria would be able to meet most of the goals by 2015 especially the MDGs' targets on poverty reduction, thereby pointing to a negative progress. The report was based on available information which attributed this to a number of challenges which included corruption that was said to make the country unattractive to investors and which was said to raise the cost and risk of doing business in the country. It was also attributed to the heavy external debt which was a burden on the finances of the government and economy as a whole and to poor resource utilization. According to the report, if those challenges continued, it would be gargantuan for the country to attain the MDGs' targets. In its 2006 MDGs Report, NPC (2007) reported that it was not certain the country would attain MDGs' targets on poverty reduction and this was mainly attributed to insufficient data; and bad governance. In a 2000 to 2007 Midpoint Assessment of the MDGs, OSSAP-MDGs (2008) reported that the progress towards attaining the MDGs' targets on poverty reduction was slow and it was unlikely the targets were met in the country owing to insufficient data; poor implementation and bad governance. In its 2010 MDGs Report, OSSAP-MDGs (2010b) reported that Nigeria was making real progress towards attaining the MDGs but unfortunately, no goal was certain to be achieved; this was attributed to insufficient data; global financial economic crisis; global food crisis; and climate change.

In all these MDGs Reports, it was claimed that MDGs' targets on poverty reduction were unlikely to be attained by Nigeria. In its analysis, NPC (2007) stressed that the rate of reduction in poverty was too slow to meet the targets set for 2015 to attain the MDGs. According to the report, if the rate of poverty reduction as it was then was maintained, poverty incidence would reduce to 43 percent as opposed to 21.4 percent by 2015. In a related analysis, OSSAP-MDGs (2008) stated that for MDGs' targets on poverty reduction to be met in 2015, the proportion of

the population living in relative poverty was expected to have fallen to 28.78 percent in 2007 and since this was not the case, meeting the targets was not realistic. The report stressed that this did not happen as among every ten Nigerians in that year, five were still living in poverty. This was attributed to some challenges that were militating against effective performance of the agricultural sector which included the dominance of aged people in agriculture, lack of access to modern agricultural implements, non promotion of strong industrial processing technology and linkages, lack of encouragement for agriculture sector-market linkages, non promotion of stable costs of production and non stabilization of the constantly declining purchasing power of farmers. Corroborating this, OSSAP-MDGs (2010a; b) stated that the progress towards attaining the MDGs targets on poverty reduction was slow and the available data which was based on economic growth and the policy environment as it then was suggested that the target would be difficult to meet as the economic growth did not lead to less poverty. The reports attributed this to the low level of agricultural mechanization; the predominance of older people unfamiliar with modern technologies in agricultural production; poor industrial processing and storage technology, resulting in high post-harvest losses and weak links with markets; poor rural infrastructure, spurring migration leading to high unemployment in urban areas; huge under-investment in poverty alleviating projects, infrastructure and agricultural production in rural areas; and poor water, sanitation and hygiene, leading to recurring diarrhea and nematode infections, child malnutrition, low productivity and low incomes; loss of a national development planning culture whose effect was lack of a reliable system for collecting national planning and development data; lack of dexterity and capability to execute initiatives, and poor arrangement between different levels and arms of government.

In consonance with the claim of the different MDGs Reports, Nweke (2012) in a study claimed that Nigeria had no capacity to halve extreme poverty and hunger by the year 2015 and as such, this target of the MDGs could not be attained. He attributed “the increase in the number of people living in extreme poverty and hunger to state capitalism and class politics in the programme implementation” (p. 7). He stated that the “culture of state capitalism and capitalist accumulation” greatly rubbed-off on MDGs as it induced “the managers of the programme to turn its implementation into a means for political patronage” (p. 8). Further to this, he stated that though the practice empowered and protected the rich, and by this virtue made “the vulnerable and impoverished to get trapped in extreme poverty” (p. 8). He concluded that the “crisis of poverty reduction within the MDGs’ framework” was “a product of derailment in implementation, target and service delivery” (p. 8).

According to Alabi and Adams (2011) and NPC (2007), to achieve the MDGs in general, proper arrangement of MDGs’ projects and programmes among the three tiers of government in collaboration with the private sector, civil society organizations and the international community was a necessary condition for Nigeria to make faster progress in achieving the desirable goals. They emphasized that “all the public funds meant for MDGs should be transparently and prudently used” for their intended aims, and that “donor agencies, government, the public sector and the private sector” should engage in partnership to brighten Nigeria’s chances of meeting the MDGs (p. 1). In their analysis, Bello and Roslan (2010) recommended adjustments with respect to ODA, funding from governments, non-governmental organizations, private sector and international; and need for strategic planning and effective implementation of their recommendations. As for Essien and Usenobong (2009), they recommended that the Nigerian government should stimulate the economy by introducing implementable projects within the

short and medium terms to create new jobs; make conscious effort to diversify the economy; provide the necessary infrastructure such as good roads, steady power supply, steady water supply, good learning environment (from primary to university level), and well-equipped hospital; embark on poverty reduction strategy via promotion of rural development with emphasis on rural infrastructure and agriculture, increased human resource development, and improved access to employment opportunities especially for the vulnerable groups. Also, the leadership should be transparent and committed in order to reduce corruption. To attain the MDGs in general, there should be effective policy coordination and the political will to match rhetoric with actions which implied that it was a requirement to formulate and implement policies that would promote transparency cum accountability; overcome institutional constraints; promote pro-poor growth; bring about structural change; enhance distributive equity; and promote human development; funding gap should be filled; and efforts should be made towards having accurate and reliable data to measure and track the progress on the MDGs (Ogunmola and Badmus, 2010; Ogege, 2012; OSSAP-MDGs, 2010b).

3.8 Summary of Chapter

This chapter describes that development has meant different things over time from different perspectives. It shows that development emerged in the second half of the 20th century meaning economic growth, and was to study the determinants of poverty and underdevelopment in a more systematic and sustained way than it had been done before. This suggests that the main contours of development thinking in different periods can be mapped alongside the patterns of international hegemony and structures of explanation that were prevalent at each time, assuming that the paradigms that are available in the intellectual market at each time shape the explanatory frameworks that inform development thinking. The chapter suggests that development is

understood through an assessment of development interaction of relevant domestic and external factors and that development is a constant consideration of alternative.

This chapter discusses the commencement of the MDGs and its strengths and weaknesses. It states that the targets of the MDGs on reducing extreme poverty and hunger have made progress which is attributable to the encouraging rates of reduction in China and India. However, the targets are not attainable in all the regions of the world as SSA for example would not meet the targets by 2015. The chapter highlights the claims by authors and reports in different studies that generally, Nigeria's progress towards attaining the MDGs is mixed while the progress towards some MDGs has been average, progress as a whole has been less satisfactory; and that specifically, the progress of attaining the first goal of the MDGs (eradication extreme poverty and hunger) is slow as five out of every ten Nigerians still live in poverty as at 2010; and that Nigeria is unlikely to attain the MDGs, particularly the first goal on extreme poverty and hunger reduction. Reasons listed by authors in support of this claims include funding gap; global financial economic crisis; corruption, inadequate planning, inadequate infrastructure; poor implementation illiteracy; poor implementation, bad governance, culture of poverty, unemployment, heavy external debt, insufficient data, global food crisis, and state capitalism.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the research paradigm and methods employed by the study which are pragmatism and the mixed methods research comprising both the quantitative and qualitative methods; states the rationale for capturing two Nigerian states for the research; describes the method of collecting the primary quantitative data for the study which is by administration of questionnaires and explains the reason for the choice; describes its method of collecting the primary qualitative data for the study which is via the Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) and explains the reason for the choice. Finally, this chapter describes the data analysis of the quantitative and qualitative elements of the study and the reasons for the types of data analysis; and states the limitations to the study.

4.2 Paradigm, Ontology, Epistemology and Methods of the Research

The study employed the mixed methods research. The paradigmatic position taken by the employed mixed methods research was the single paradigm approach which involved the use of both the quantitative and qualitative methods. As stated by Diriwächter and Valsiner (2006) and Brannen (2005, p. 4), this allowed the researcher to gather and work with “different types of data.” This study’s mixed methods research was underpinned by a form of the single paradigm approach known as pragmatism. Pragmatism underpinned the study because rather than focusing on assumptions about the nature, the orientation of pragmatism is founded in “solving practical problems in the real world” (Feilzer, 2010, p. 8). Pragmatism was a good paradigm for this study because it “places high regard for the reality of and influence of the inner world of human experience in action;” views knowledge “as being both constructed and based on the reality of the world we experience and live in;” views current truth, meaning, and knowledge “as tentative

and as changing over time” and views human inquiry (i.e., what we do in our day-to-day lives as we interact with our environments) as being analogous to experimental and scientific inquiry” (Johnson and Onwuegbozie, 2004, p. 18). In support of these characteristics of pragmatism, Brannen (2005, p. 10) clearly asserts that the paradigm is “more interested in ideas and their origin, in the ideas which drive the research and the ideas upon which the research should be founded;” that its concern is “to open up the world to social enquiry and hence to be less purist in terms of methods and preconceptions (about theory and method);” and that its “rationality will more readily embrace a mix of methods if the research questions and practicalities of the research context allow it.” This supports the positions of Mertens (2005, p. 26), Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) and Somekh and Lewin (2005) which claim that “the scientific notion that social inquiry was able to access the truth about the real world solely by virtue of a single method” is rejected by pragmatism; and that the underlying philosophical framework for mixed methods research is pragmatism.

Based on the pragmatic paradigm adopted, the ontology of the study, that is, “the nature of reality” as it is referred to by Le Bon (2001, p. 11) was that there was a single reality in the study areas which was that there were levels of income and food poverty in the study areas with which the progress of attaining the MDGs’ targets on poverty reduction could be assessed in those areas. Another aspect of the ontology of this study was in an assertion that all persons had their own exclusive interpretation of this reality. The epistemology of this study, that is, “the nature of knowledge and the relation between the knower and would be known” as it is referred to by Le Bon (2001, p. 11) was that the researcher positioned himself as one who was committed to studying what was of interest and of value to the participants/respondents in the ways he deemed appropriate in order to get the results utilized in manners that could generate “positive

consequences” within their value system” as asserted by Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998, p. 30). Income and food poverty, the central focus of the study was of interest to the participants/respondents and the appropriate ways by which results were got were through focus group discussions and administration of questionnaires. The results were committed to being used to bring about positive consequences.

An alternative form of the single paradigm approach, the transformative-emancipatory approach did not underpin this study because it places “central importance on the lives and experiences of marginalized groups such as women, ethnic/racial minorities, members of the gay and lesbian communities and people with disabilities (Mertens, 2003, pp. 139-140). Also, it “analyzes how and why inequities based on gender, race or ethnicity, disability, sexual orientation, and socioeconomic classes are reflected in asymmetric power relationships;” it “examines how results of social inquiry on inequities are linked to political and social action;” and there is a need to intertwine its inquiry with “politics and political agenda” (Le Bon, 2001, p. 21; Creswell, 2003, p. 9). The transformative-emancipatory approach did not underpin this study because its principles and characteristics do not fit in well in to the objectives of the study.

The mix of the two methods by the research discharged the functions of “integrating methodologies for better measurement, sequencing information for better analysis and merging findings for better action” (Carvalho and White, 1997, p. 18). Combining both the quantitative and qualitative methods made a lot of sense to the researcher as the “desirability and usefulness” to mix both in analyzing social realities is at the moment much agreed to if compared to what obtained in the 1980s (Hentschel, 2003, p. 75). The values of methods involved in poverty assessment are likened to the merit of seeing a mountain from two perspectives (Bourguignon, 2003); therefore, the combination of the two methods has complementary strengths and non-

overlapping weaknesses; the combination of the two methods ensures corroboration which means that a researcher has a superior evidence for his/her research result (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003). While quantitative methods are good for specifying or describing relationships, qualitative methods on the other hand are good for explaining and understanding relationships values (Thomas and Johnson, 2002). In other words, quantitative research functions to prioritize “descriptive, analytical breadth of coverage” while qualitative research has the “explanatory power” and the information it generates is rich and deep; also, the data produced by quantitative method “can be aggregated and analyzed to describe and predict relationships” while qualitative method helps to “probe and explain these relationships and to explain contextual differences in their quality” (Holland and Campbell, 2005, p. 5). In summary, quantitative and qualitative methods combined by the research did “strengthen both” (White, 2002, p. 512).

In this research, the mixed method research adopted suggested links between the level and determinants of extreme poverty and hunger in the specific study areas in Nigeria. The collected quantitative data were used to identify the level of extreme poverty and hunger, and the collected qualitative data were used to explain the determinants of extreme poverty and hunger to assess the progress of the study areas towards attaining the MDGs targets on extreme poverty and hunger reduction.

Table 4.1 Research Paradigm and Methods

Research Paradigm	Research Methods
Pragmatism	Mixed Methods Research Comprising the Quantitative and the Qualitative Methods

Source: Author

4.3 Rationale for the Choice of Study Areas

This study covers two states in Nigeria namely Jigawa and Osun States (*see brief profiles of the two states in chapter one*). It was worthwhile to capture these two states as the study areas of the research because statistical figures confirmed that there existed very wide gaps among

poverty rates in the two states. While the dollar per day, food, absolute and relative poverty rates of Osun State stood at 22.66 percent, 24.67 percent, 24.67 percent, and 24.08 percent in 2004, it was 89.54 percent, 90.91 percent, 90.91 percent, and 95.07 percent in Jigawa State the same year. In 2010, while the rates stood at 30.1 percent, 19.5 percent, 37.9 percent and 47.5 percent in Osun State, it stood at 74.2 percent, 71.1 percent, 74.1 percent, and 79 percent in Jigawa State the same year (NBS, 2005; 2012a). The choice of these two states allowed for *comparison* at the analysis stage of the research. Comparison of these states made it possible to identify, analyse and explain similarities and differences across societies as argued by Gilbert (1995).

Table 4.2 Osun State Poverty Profile

Source	% of People in Dollar a Day Poverty (2004)	% of People in Dollar a Day Poverty (2010)	% of People in Food Poverty (2004)	% of People in Food Poverty (2010)	% of People in Absolute Poverty (2004)	% of People in Absolute Poverty (2010)	% of People in Relative Poverty (2004)	% of People in Relative Poverty (2010)
NBS (2005; 2012a)	22.66%	38.1%	24.67%	19.5%	24.67%	37.9%	24.08%	47.5%

Author's Compilation

Table 4.3 Jigawa State Poverty Profile

Source	% of People in Dollar a Day Poverty (2004)	% of People in Dollar a Day Poverty (2010)	% of People in Food Poverty (2004)	% of People in Food Poverty (2010)	% of People in Absolute Poverty (2004)	% of People in Absolute Poverty (2010)	% of People in Relative Poverty (2004)	% of People in Relative Poverty (2010)
NBS (2005; 2012a)	89.54%	74.2%	90.91%	71.1%	90.91%	74.1%	95.07%	79%

Author's Compilation

4.4 Data Collection

4.4.1 Primary Data Collection: Non-Survey Method - Focus Group Discussions

Generally, non-survey methods have the “ability to focus closely and in-depth on a case that has a number of features that are of interest from an analytical point of view, and has been selected for that reason” (Appleton and Booth, 2005, p. 124). As for the collection of qualitative data, the study relied primarily on focus group discussions. FGD was the very first data

collection method employed by the researcher because through its proceedings, insights were given to both what was thought by the participants and the reason for the thought as emphasized by (AEDEDC, 2004), and also because the data generated from it was capable of being integrated into the contents of questionnaires that could be used for survey purposes which further aggrandizes the reliability and validity of a research work as emphasized by (Halcomb, et al., 2007). This study chose FGD as its method of collecting the qualitative data because it is a more exertive and activating social discussion through which a cumulative understanding of the identified problem is achievable (Gillis and Jackson, 2002). Also, because it creates an atmosphere where the participants express their ideas and experiences and listen to that of others; that is, it is characterized by the group effect under which participants are engaged in what (Lindlof and Taylor, 2002, p. 182) refer to as “a kind of ‘chaining’ or ‘cascading’ effect; talk links to, or tumbles out of, the topics and expressions preceding it.” In other words, FGDs are not limited to the ambit or confine of views, ideas or perception sought as obtained in questionnaires administration (Burns and Grove, 2001). If well coordinated, FGD ensures that conversation is always on track; it affords the researcher the opportunity of knowing who have been involved; if compared to surveys, the method is reasonably low cost and it is possible for a researcher to get results almost quickly (Sherraden, 2001; Fern 2001; Krueger and Casey, 2000; Marshall and Gretchen, 1999; Creswell, 1998). For this research work, the discussion took place in February, 2011 and March, 2011 in Osun and Jigawa States respectively. In Osun State, the discussion was held at the conference room of the STEB B programme, Federal Polytechnic, Ede, Osun State, and in Jigawa State, it was held at conference room of Jigawa Hotels Limited, Dutse, Jigawa State. Both places were comfortable as they were roomy, well ventilated, well lit

up, and they had in them upholstered chairs as prescribed by Ressel, et al. (2002). In addition to this, they were affixed with slit air conditioners.

4.4.1.1 Focus Group Discussions' Sampling Strategy and Recruitment

The researcher constituted an 8-member focus group in each of the two states captured by the study, that is, Osun and Jigawa States using purposive sampling method. The reason for the choice of a purposive sampling method was that the FGDs were not aimed at producing a statistically representative sample or aimed at drawing statistical inference. The characteristics of individuals were used as the basis of selection. In line with the discourse of (Burns and Grove, 2001), the researcher did carefully address the issue of the focus group composition to heighten the level of interaction among the participants so as to generate data that were valid and reliable from the exercise. The homogeneous focus group discussion was employed in the composition of the participants in both states captured by the research under which the discussions consisted of eight (8) Family Household Heads. Homogeneous focus group was employed because such groups “share common identity relevant to discussion” as they are with common threads being the issues for discussion as emphasized by Goldmans, (1962, p. 62) and Vaughn, Schumm and Sinagub (1996); and because they are “generally more comfortable and open with one another” as claimed by Keown, (1983, p. 66). The statuses/occupations of these household heads were however heterogenous; their statuses/occupations included farming, trading, clergy, civil servant, public servant, teaching, lectureship, social worker, community leadership, and studentship; the household heads were also of male and female genders. The focus groups were characterized by such diverse profiles because “it is usually helpful to provide for both homogeneity and contrast within specific groups” as argued by Wells (1974, p. 4). Through this kind of composition, the groups in both states did achieve an expansive magnitude of views in line with the submission of

(Ressel et al., 2002). The decision to limit the number of participants involved in the FGDs to eight (8) per state was in line with the position of Barbour and Kitinger (1999) which emphasize that it is cumbersome to guarantee contribution from all participants if they are more than fifteen (15) in number; it is equally in line with the position of Morgan (1997) which emphasizes that the chances of adequately covering the themes of a FGD is limited where there are less than four (4) participants. Eight (8) participants chosen in both states were adequate as the size was neither too large nor too small (McLafferty, 2004).

4.4.1.2 Focus Group Discussions' Strategy

In both Osun and Jigawa States, the researcher was the moderator of the FGDs and he did appoint an assistant moderator who was a professional colleague and an established researcher in the field of marketing. The mean time for conducting the discussions was one hundred and twenty (120) minutes. Luckily, there were no time wasters as all the participants kept to time. As the moderator, the researcher functioned to guide the participants through the process, particularly, where conversations went off track; the participants had more control of the discussions though. In other words, the researcher's involvement in the discussions was low as he asked questions and allowed the participants to converse; this was in line with the submission of (Burns and Grove, 2001). The moderator added no comments in the conversation but occasionally asked follow-up questions and changed the subjects when discussions dragged, and he indicated no specific information he wanted about the topics/themes as this might have effect on the discussions and create biased findings. The moderator, that is, the researcher was seated in a vantage position which enabled him have easy and smooth communication with all the participants. Each participant was seated around the table and had a clear view of the rest of the group.

Before undertaking the FGDs proper in both states, the moderator briefly introduced himself; specified the objectives and information needs of the focus group discussion; broke down the major topics into discussion themes; prepared probe question; reviewed the guide and eliminated irrelevant questions. In undertaking the discussions in both states, the moderator (the researcher) collected the demographic information of participants and discussions were based on a list of relevant key themes drawn up by the researcher (*see appendix 2 for the discussion questions/themes of the FDGs*).

The focus groups were moderately structured using a deductive approach. Going by Kendall and Kendall (2005, pp. 4-18) the discussions followed a ‘funnel structure’ format under which the moderator began with generalized, open-ended questions (broad and less structured questions) and concluded by narrowing the responses using closed questions (specific and more structured questions); this did provide an easy, nonthreatening way to begin an interview. In short, the “analogy is to a discussion that moves from broader to narrower topics” (Morgan, 1997, p. 53). The funnel design helped the moderator to hear the participants’ general perspectives; led him into covering the topics of most interest; and helped him obtain answers to his specific needs assessment questions. Also, the funnel design was useful when participants felt emotional about a topic as they were at liberty to express themselves Kendall and Kendall (2005). The researcher used brainstorming as a strategy of engaging the discussants in both Osun and Jigawa States. This encouraged each group member as it gave each of them chance to speak and this helped in casting a broad net across all the participants to ensure they were all involved.

In both states, the proceedings of the discussions exercise were recorded to ensure adequate analysis. The assistant moderator did audiotape the focus groups using a ‘Clarity USB Cassette Recorder.’ Before the recording of the proceedings commenced, each participant was

requested to endorse an informed consent; the contents of this document was written in plain English language, and they clearly stated the following: that the information would be collected and used to look at a particular research topic; that participants could choose to stop at any time without penalty; that participation was anonymous except for listed persons; and it did state who would have access to the recording tapes (*see appendix 1*). This audiotape recording saved the moderator from having to write plenteous notes during the discussions. During the discussions, participants were served light refreshments by the assistant moderator which served the purpose of creating a social cum friendly environment for discussion; it was ensured that this did not disorganize the flow of discussions as non-noisy edible snacks were served. The functions performed by the assistant moderator apart from recording the session and arranging refreshments included taking some notes and creating a conducive environment for discussants; this is in line with (Krueger and Casey, 2000).

In summary, the FGD exercise provided rich data via direct interaction between researcher and participants. This was necessitated by the very fact that participants in the focus group discussions frequently voiced views that they otherwise might not express in other settings, or if individually interviewed. Thus, it was easy to make participants fully engaged during discussion and non-discussion time. It allowed for social interaction within the group that did yield a more gratuitous and more complicated responses as there did exist interactive synergy, spontaneity and security of participants within the group.

4.4.1.3 Brief Discussion on the Cultural Context with Respect to the FGDs

All the discussants in Osun State were Yorubas. Culturally, the Yorubas are gregarious and sociable. According to Fadipe (1970), the Yorubas are more of an extrovert than an introvert. They are self-contained and self-reliant people that capable of keeping their mental and physical

suffering to themselves so that others may not express their sympathy for them. They look upon expressions of sympathy offered to a man who is experiencing temporary or permanent injury as helping to lighten the pain (pp. 301-303). The thoughts of the Yorubas are mainly narrative and they hold the belief that any lore that widens people's horizons and presents food for thought is the beginning of a philosophy. The Yorubas are very religious people professing Christianity, Islam and traditional religions and they tolerant about their religious differences (Karade, 1994). As for all the discussants in Jigawa State, they were all Hausas. Regardless of ethnic affiliation, most Hausas are Muslims as there is a strong connection between Hausa and Islam. Culturally, the Hausas value personal qualities which include consistent geniality, cheeriness and pleasant manners. This has the connotation of a calm stoical pleasantness no matter the level of stress or provocation. They admit their needs in public and they have the ability to endure severe pain without complaint (LeVine, 2007).

It is important to state that in the assessment of the researcher, the cultural characteristics of the discussants in both states seemed not to present them as people that might not be factual in their contributions to the themes of the FGDs. Also, the extrovert characteristic of the Yorubas and the admission of needs characteristic of the Hausas gave the researcher a bit of more confidence in their discussions.

Table 4.4 Periods, Venues, and Duration of FGDs in Study Areas

State	Month and Year of FGD	Venue	Duration
Osun State	February, 2011	Federal Polytechnic, Ede, Osun State	120 Minutes
Jigawa State	March, 2011	Jigawa Hotels Limited, Dutse, Jigawa State	120 Minutes

Source: Author

Table 4.5 Composition of Focus Groups in Study Areas

ID	Profile 1 - Status	Profile 2 - Gender	Profile 3 - Occupation	Number	Location
FGD 1:1	Family Household Head	Male	Trading	1	Ede (Osun State)
FGD 1:2	Family Household Head	Male	Public Servant	1	Ede (Osun State)
FGD 1:3	Family	Male	Community	1	Ede (Osun State)

	Household Head		Leadership/Farming		
FGD 1:4	Family Household Head	Male	Lectureship	1	Ede (Osun State)
FGD 1:5	Family Household Head	Male	Clergyman (Pastor)	1	Ede (Osun State)
FGD 1:6	Family Household Head	Female	Social Worker	1	Ede (Osun State)
FGD 1:7	Family Household Head	Female	Trading	1	Ede (Osun State)
FGD 1:8	Family Household Head	Female	Student/Trading	1	Ede (Osun State)
FGD 2:1	Family Household Head	Male	Farming/Trading	1	Dutse (Jigawa State)
FDG 2:2	Family Household Head	Male	Community Leadership	1	Dutse (Jigawa State)
FGD 2:3	Family Household Head	Male	Civil Servant	1	Dutse (Jigawa State)
FGD 2:4	Family Household Head	Male	Teaching	1	Dutse (Jigawa State)
FGD 2:5	Family Household Head	Male	Clergyman (Sheikh)	1	Dutse (Jigawa State)
FGD 2:6	Family Household Head	Male	Social Worker	1	Dutse (Jigawa State)
FGD 2:7	Family Household Head	Female	Trading	1	Dutse (Jigawa State)
FGD 2:8	Family Household Head	Female	Student/Nursing	1	Dutse (Jigawa State)

Source: Author

Table 4.6 FGD Design and Mode of Recording in Study Areas

FGD Design	Mode of Recording
Funnel Structure	1. Audiotape Recording
	2. Hand Note Recording of Verbal Behaviours and Body Movements

Source: Author

4.4.2 Primary Data Collection: Survey Method-Household Questionnaire Administration

The primary data for this study were collected primarily relying on household survey which represented the quantitative data for the research. Survey was employed for the research because it generally aims at “standardization,” makes aggregation possible, provides results whose reliability is measurable, and allows simulation of effects of different policy options (Appleton and Booth, 2005, p. 121; Carvalho and White, 1997). Specifically, the research employed the questionnaire administration as its type of survey. The reasons for the choice of administration of questionnaires are that it allows for information to be gathered in large amounts and in a standardized way thereby making data compilation simple and making the exercise cost

effective; results from the questionnaires administered can usually be briskly and dexterously quantified by either a researcher or through the use of a computer software package; and its analysis is more scientific and objective than other forms of research (Popper, 2004; Milne, 1999; Oppenheim, 1992; Ackroyd and Hughes, 1981). The mode of questionnaire administration adopted by the research is the face-to-face questionnaire administration and the reason for its choice for this research is that it allows for items to be presented orally by the researcher in form of interview (Mellenbergh, 2008b). Another reason for employing it for the research is that it has high potentials for more complete population coverage for sampling, survey response, item response/completion of questionnaire, length of verbal response/amount of information and respondent's preferences for mode of administration (Bowling, 2005). In their own assessment, Tolonen (2005), Czaja and Blair (2005), and Franklin and Walker (2005) state that the high cost and lengthy time frame of the face-to-face method notwithstanding, the method has got a number of advantages which include the followings: the control of question order is very good, language version is very good, control of response situation is good, the use of visual aids is very good, the response rate is high, verifying the respondent's identity is high, and the item non-response and needed literacy level are low. In line with the submission of Shaughnessy, Zechmeister and Jeanne (2011), the survey method employed by this study assessed thoughts, opinions, and feelings and consisted of a predetermined set of questions administered on a sample.

Table 4.7 Survey Data Collection Method and Mode of Questionnaire Administration

Data Collection Method	Survey Method	Mode of Questionnaire Administration
Survey	Household Questionnaire Administration	Face-to-Face Interview Method

Source: Author

For this research the study population for Osun State consisted of 730,313 regular households by housing units consisting of 3,416,959 people of the state, and for Jigawa State, the study population consisted of 810,310 regular households by housing units consisting of

4,361,002 people of the state as reported by Nigeria's National Population Commission in its 2006 Population and Housing Census of Nigeria (NpoC, 2006, p. 315). This research did not fail to realize that the figures reported by NpoC (2006) in both Osun and Jigawa States might not have exclusively captured only households that were characterized by the family element which was one of the unit of analysis of this research, but the research work did stick to these figures as its populations for the states because it was the only available most recent document that reported the numbers of households by housing units and the total numbers of people in each state of the federation and Nigeria as a whole. Thus, the research did assume that this document was representative of the populations or of the family households in the two states.

For this research, the samples included 54 family households consisting of 353 adult members occupying 54 housing units in Osun State and 60 family households consisting of 696 adult members occupying 60 housing units in Jigawa State. The variation in the numbers of samples from each state was as a result of the difference in the number of housing units in each state. From each state, the sample captured 0.0074% of its housing units consisting of households of people. To arrive at these figures, the researcher computed the percentage of 60 housing units randomly selected in Jigawa State from a total of 810,310 housing units, and gave a result of 0.0074%. The same percentage of 0.0074% was used to get the sample from Osun State which gave a result of 54 housing units which was eventually randomly selected from a total of 730,313 housing units of the state (NpoC, 2006). To get the percentage of the 60 housing units randomly selected in Jigawa State, the percentage was thus calculated:

If 810,310 housing units represented 100%, in Jigawa State, then 60 housing units represented: $60 \times 100 \div 810,310 = 0.0074\%$

If 0.0074 represented 60 housing units in Jigawa State, then, in Osun State, it represented:

$$0.0074 \times 730,313 \div 100 = 54$$

This simple mathematical calculation ensured comparison of the two states captured by this study. The size of the sample of the study is in line with the practicalities of how long the researcher was on the field and what was realistic for him to achieve within that period.

This research captured three locations each in both study areas. From Jigawa State, Dutse, Kadume, and Gada were selected from Dutse, Hadejia, and Kazaure LGAs; and from Osun State, Osogbo, Ikirun, and Akoda were selected from Osogbo, Ifelodun and Ede South LGAs. The three locations from each state were chosen to capture the urban, semi-urban, and rural patterns of dwelling in Nigeria.

Table 4.8 Population, Sample Size and Percentage of Sample Size of the Research

Population	Sample Size	% of Sample Size
Osun State: 730,313 Regular Households by Housing Units consisting of 3,416,959 People	Osun State: 54 Family Households consisting of 353 Adult Members Occupying 54 Housing Units	Osun State: 0.0074%
Jigawa State: 810,310 Regular Households by Housing Units consisting of 4,361,002 People	Jigawa State: 60 Family Households consisting of 696 Adult Members Occupying 60 Housing Units	Jigawa State: 0.0074%

Source: NpoC (2006) and Author

For this research, a non-random sampling in form of a pseudo-random sampling method was used. At the sampling point of this research, there was an awareness that the sample got by sampling method employed may or may not represent the entire population accurately and may not be used in generalizations pertaining to the entire population, but the research had to stick to this sampling method because as emphasized by Explorable (2009), compared to the random sampling which is an alternative to the non-random sampling, it is lower in cost, saves time, and requires less number of fieldworkers to conduct a research. Therefore, the choice of the sampling method employed by this research was in tune with the money and time available to the

researcher during the period the survey was being conducted. Also, the choice of the sampling method was in order for this research because basically, random sampling is best employed for studies that are large-scale and which have representativeness as their main aim (Marshall 1996; Small 2009). Also, achieving true random sampling is always very difficult in any form of research and also, randomness does not represent the only desirable property of sample selection (Calandrino, Halderman and Felten, n.d). Therefore, the choice of the sampling method employed by this research was in order because the research is not a large-scale study like the 2010 Harmonized Nigerian Living Standard Survey (HNLSS) which involved the use of the “Enumeration Areas (EAs) demarcated by the National Population Commission for the 2006 Housing and Population Census in the country’s entire 774 LGAs (NBS, 2014, p. 9).

Table 4.9 Sampling Method for the Household Questionnaire Administration

Sampling	Form of Non-Random Sampling
Non-Random Sampling	Pseudo-Random Sampling Method

Source: Author

Before the administration of the household questionnaires proper, the researcher did engage in a pilot study. The reason for this was to tap into the main merit of a pilot study is that “it might give advance warning about where the main research project could fail, where research protocols may not be followed, or whether proposed methods or instruments are inappropriate or too complicated;” that is, it “can reveal deficiencies in the design of a proposed experiment or procedure and this can then be addressed before time and resources are expended on large scale studies” (Van-Teilingen and Hundley, 2001, p. 1; NC3Rs, 2006, p. 1). For this research, its pilot study took the form of household questionnaires administration; this was carried out in August, 2011 at Ibadan, Eruwa, and Ejioku Village all in Oyo State of Nigeria where five (5) household questionnaires were administered each to cover the urban, semi-urban, and rural areas. This

exercise was smooth and the researcher was quite happy about it; the success of this exercise propelled the researcher to proceed to the major survey.

Also, before the administration of the household questionnaires proper, the researcher made visits to the traditional heads or representatives of the traditional heads of all the locations captured by the study to inform them about the questionnaire administration exercise about to take place in their respective communities and the reason for it. This is in line with Lofland and Lofland (1984) that advise that a researcher should obtain permission to access an area of study. They were quite happy about this and upon request, they all made one to two people available with whom the researcher made visits to the housing units of family household to have discussions with the family household heads to sensitize them on what the questionnaires were all about and to confirm from them the best day to administer the questionnaires which was requested to be a day that all or virtually all members of their family households would be at home; they were given time frame though. This request was made because the researcher verily believed that where the family household head could not provide a specific answer about an adult member of his or her household, the person in question would be available to help out; this really worked out as expected. While the researcher made these visits only with people made available by the traditional heads or their representatives in Osun State, he made the visits with a friend who understood Hausa Language along with people made available by the traditional heads or their representatives in Jigawa State. The mobile numbers of the family household heads who had mobile phones were collected with which they were followed up to avoid any form of disappointments; while the researcher followed up the family household heads in Osun State, his friend who accompanied him to Jigawa State followed up the family household heads in that State.

For this research work, fieldworkers/research assistants were selected, trained and later employed to facilitate the collection of primary data in the locations captured by the research namely: Osogbo, Ikirun, and Akoda from Osogbo, Ifelodun and Ede South LGAs of Osun State, and Dutse, Kadume, and Gada from Dutse, Hadejia, and Kazaure LGAs of Jigawa State. The selected fieldworkers/research assistants for the research are graduate students from Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Osun State, and Bayero University, Kano, Kano State both in Nigeria. The main reason for the choice of these universities was proximity; they were closer to the locations of the study areas. In Osun States, 8 (eight) fieldworkers/research assistants were selected and trained while in Jigawa State, 9 (nine) fieldworkers/research assistants were selected and trained. One other reason was that the selected fieldworkers/research assistants were excellently fluent in English Language and both Yoruba and Hausa Languages widely spoken in Osun and Jigawa States respectively; this was necessary because while the researcher could demonstrate proficiency in English and Yoruba Language widely spoken in Osun State, he could neither speak nor understand the Hausa Language widely spoken in Jigawa State. Therefore, the choice of the fieldworkers/research assistants for this research work paved way for quicker administration of the questionnaires and prevented both the researcher and his fieldworkers/research assistants from any form of communication barriers. The researcher engaged the services of Dapdoy Consultants, Magazine Road, Dugbe, Ibadan, Nigeria to train the fieldworkers/research assistants. The researcher instructed the consultants to give training to the fieldworkers/research assistants on: specific qualities, such as communication skills, teamwork and honesty, the enrolment and consent processes, administering structured questionnaires on a face-to-face basis, the completion of forms, motivation, and the possible difficulties they may face in the field. The training took a day each at both Osun and Jigawa

States, and the researcher was quite happy about level of training given to the fieldworkers/research assistants.

Before the questionnaire administration exercise, some amendments were made to the contents of the questionnaires with the use of black pens. The fieldworkers/research assistants were duly carried along with the amendments made and were trained and instructed along this line to ensure the questionnaires they administered were in tune with the amendments made. They were also trained and given some specific instructions on some questionnaire questions. Amendments made included Question 2 where the age brackets were amended to capture the target of the research and where the exact ages of respondents were requested; Question 5 where the exact numbers of adult members of family households were requested; Question 6 and Question 1 in the continuation sheet that paired the secondary and technical levels of education and added master and doctorate levels of education; Question 8 and Question 2 in the continuation sheet where full time employment was paired with self employment; and Question 9 and Question 3 in the continuation sheet where the exact figures of earnings of family household heads and household members were requested. The specific instructions/trainings given to the fieldworkers/research assistants included the followings: that they should bear in mind that in the questionnaire, Question 17 was to get information about the cost of food of all household members, that is, the food bought for joint intake of the family and therefore, they should explain further if they suspected that the question was unclear to the respondent; that Questions 18 and 19 were extensions to Question 17 and they were to get further information on the cost of additional food available to all the members of a family household which included food not bought like food given to the family or food got from the family farm; that Questions 20-23 were to get the cost of food of individual member of a family household; that Questions

21-22 were to get information about the cost of family household head's food intake outside his/her household regular food intake; that Questions 22-23 were to get same for other members of the household; and that information related to household members apart from the family household head should be recorded in the continuation sheet (*see appendix 4 for the questionnaire*).

On the field, the researcher joined fieldworkers/research assistants to administer the questionnaires in both Osun and Jigawa States. He also doubled as a supervisor with another colleague who had a doctorate degree from Durham University, United Kingdom and had a wide experience in research surveys. In Osun State, a total of 54 structured household questionnaires were administered on 54 family households consisting of 353 adult members occupying 54 housing units in January, 2012, and in Jigawa State, a total of 60 structured household questionnaires were administered on 60 family households consisting of 696 adult members occupying 60 housing units in February, 2012. In each of the three (3) locations of Osun State, 18 structured household questionnaires were administered while in each of the three (3) locations of Jigawa State, 20 structured household questionnaires were administered. The structured household questionnaires administered by the researcher and his fieldworkers/research assistants was prepared in English Language and contained closed questions followed by predefined answers. The researcher anticipated all possible answers with pre-coded responses. The researcher did stick to structured questionnaires administration because of its inherent advantages. Such advantages according to Bryant (n.d), are that: it affords the researcher the opportunity of contacting large numbers of people quickly, easily and efficiently; the creation, coding and interpretation of questionnaires are faster; questionnaires are easy to standardized and are reliable because everyone in the sample answers exactly the same questions; and

questionnaires have the ability to delve into areas that are of mental discomfort like criminal and sexual matters.

The structured household questionnaires were administered on the family household heads but captured only the adult members of each family household in both Osun and Jigawa States. Where the family heads could not give answers to some questions about the adult members of their households, the adult members available were on ground to help such family heads out. The reason for capturing only adult members of family households was that the investigation of the research work revolves around earnings of the members of family households and the cost of feeding, and since the minor members of family households were not expected to be working and earning pay, the research work did stick to only adult members of family households. Adult members of family households captured by the research work were aged between 15 and above 64. This age bracket was captured as the adult members of family households because they are classified as adults of working age, and also because “increased proportion of people aged over 65 have strong negative effect on welfare, as does the proportion of children aged 5-15 years of age” (Appleton, Mckay and Alayande, 2008, p. 351).

Table 4.11 Pilot Study

State	Locations	Form of Pilot Study	No. Of Household Questionnaires Administered	Person Who Carried Out the Exercise
Oyo State	1. Ibadan	Administration of Household Questionnaires	15 (5 at Each Location)	The Researcher
	2. Eruwa			
	3. Ejioku			

Source: Author

Table 4.12 Survey Summary

State	Locations	No. of Research Assistants Recruited and Trained	Main Characteristics of Trained Research Assistants	No. of Household Questionnaires Administered
Osun State	1. Osogbo	8	1. Graduate Students	54 Questionnaires administered to 54 Family Households consisting of 353 Adult Members
	2. Ikirun		2. Fluent in English and Yoruba Languages	
	3. Akoda			
Jigawa State	1. Dutse	9	1. Graduate	60 Questionnaires

	2. Kadume		Students	administered to 60 Family Households consisting of 696 Adult Members
	3. Gada		2. Fluent in English and Hausa Languages	

Source: Author

Table 4.13 Survey Summary

Persons Whom Questionnaires were Administered on	Family Members Captured by the Questionnaires
Family Heads	Adult Members (Aged 15-64)

Source: Author

4.4.3 Secondary Data Collection

The research sources of secondary data collection included books, journals, administrative data and other relevant international and national official documents and materials. Prominent were the documents sourced from the World Bank, United Nations (UN) and its agencies such as the World Health Organization (WHO), United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF). In the United Kingdom, secondary data were gathered from the libraries of the Nottingham Trent University, University of Glasgow and Strathclyde University; secondary data were further sourced from the Overseas Development Institute, London, Institute of Development Studies, Sussex University, Centre for Development Studies, University of Glasgow, Chronic Poverty Research Centre, University of Manchester, Institute for Development Policy and Management, University of Manchester, Development Initiative, Bristol and the Department for International Development (Dfid), London. In Nigeria, secondary data were sourced from the official documents of such bodies as the Office of the Senior Special Assistant to the President on MDGs, MDGs Offices in the two states captured by the study, Osun and Jigawa States, National Bureau of Statistic, Ministries, Agencies and Parastatals and from the libraries of the University of Ibadan, University of Lagos, University of Abuja and Obafemi Awolowo University.

The secondary materials used by this research met at least one of the criteria listed by Abdullahi (2005) cited in Alaye-Ogan (2008) which are the followings: secondary materials

must be a written one; must have been brought about on the inventiveness of the author; and must focus on the authors personal experiences.

4.5 Data Analysis Techniques

4.5.1 Analysis of the Qualitative Data - Focus Group Discussions

The FGDs data were analyzed using the tape-based and note-based analyses under which the researcher carefully listened to the tapes of the discussion, and read through notes taken by the assistant moderator and consequently initiated shortened transcripts. The choice of the tape-based analysis was good for this research because as emphasized by Onwuegbuzie, et al. (2009, p. 4), it was “much shorter than is the full transcript in a transcript-based analysis” and allowed the researcher to “focus on the research question and only transcribe the portions that assist in better understanding of the phenomenon of interest” The note-based analysis was good to the research because it included “analysis of notes from the focus group, the debriefing session, and any summary comments from the moderator or assistant moderator” which the researcher found useful at the point of analysis (Onwuegbuzie, et al., 2009, p. 4). With respect to analysing the tape recordings of the FGDs, the researcher listened carefully to the recordings and read the transcript carefully. The researcher avoided being selective by keeping an open mind, remaining neutral and striving for objectivity as best as he could. This helped to avoid biases in the analysis.

The transcripts generated were coded by grouping the answers into key points or codes; searching the text for particular phrases or words; and colour-coding the words and phrases that matched the key points or codes by computer highlighting until each answer was accounted for. This process partly took a form of the scissor-and-sort technique with the addition of the computer knowledge of the researcher which produced results for analysis. The fact that the

process of the coding partly took a form of the scissor-and-sort technique was advantageous to the research because as emphasized by Stewart and Shamdasani (2006, p. 116), the technique was “a quick and cost-effective method for analyzing a transcript of a focus group discussion” of the research.

The final results of the analysis presented discussants’ ideas that prominently featured in the discussions. In other words, it presented the frequencies at which discussants’ ideas featured in the exercise. The qualitative data generated and analyzed were reliable because the ideas emerged from the discussions; none of the ideas was formulated in advance (*see appendix 3 for the FDGs’ coding*).

Table 4.14 FDGs Data Analysis

Type of Analysis
1. Tape-Based Analysis
2. Note-Based Analysis

Source: Author

4.5.2 Analysis of the Quantitative Data – Household Questionnaires Administration

The research used the Descriptive Statistics and the General Linear Model Multivariate Analysis Tools of a quantitative software programme known as the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 16 for analysis. The software programme analyzed the quantitative data collected by using descriptive statistics to present percentages and frequency tables of the socio-economic characteristics of family households and the levels of income and food poverty at the family household level. At the analysis level, the age, family size and the income from employment/self employment factors were adjusted to fewer columns to make the analyses on them as concise as possible. The SPSS further analyzed the quantitative data collected by using inferential statistics (General Linear Model Multivariate Analysis) to present the likely associations between variables through tested hypotheses. The reason for the choice of

this software programme is to guarantee accuracy of figures which it did. SPSS has been extensively used for analyzing data statistically in the social sciences and in other fields of study; it has also been broadly used by various governments and organizations. To corroborate this, the initial SPSS Manual by Nie, Brent and Hull (1970) was construed to be one of Sociology's most influential books (Wellman, 1998).

The reason for the choice of descriptive statistics was that it described the main feature of a collection of data and summarized the sample in place of using the data to acquire information about the population which a sample is assumed or conceived to represent. In this research, as expressed by (Texas State Auditor's Office, 1995, p. 11), descriptive statistics was "essential for arranging and displaying data," formed "the basis for rigorous data analysis," was "much easier to work with, interpreted and discussed than raw data," helped "examine the tendencies, spread, normality, and reliability of the data set," and was "rendered both graphically and numerically." As for the inferential statistics, the reason for its choice was that as stated by Coolidge (2006, p. 120), it is "concerned with making conclusion about populations from smaller samples drawn from the population" which aligned with the objectives of this research. Another reason for its choice as emphasized by Texas State Auditor's Office (1995, p. 1) was that by themselves, inferential statistics do "not prove causality" because "their use is little more than a fishing expedition." This equally aligned with the objectives of this research (*see chapter five and appendices 5 and 6 for the results of tested hypotheses, test of hypotheses coding and the multivariate analysis tables*).

The collected quantitative data was further analyzed by using the poverty headcount ratio calculation (FGT) developed by Foster, Greer and Thorbecke (1984). FGT was used to arrive at the figures of the proportion of people who were income and food poor at the individual level in

the study areas. It was employed because it had always been the simplest and commonest measure of poverty (Fields, 1997); and because its different dimensions of calculations had been widely used in scholarly studies such as Appleton (1996); Appleton, et al. (1999); Appleton, Mckay and Alayande (2008); Omonona (2009); Oluwatayo (2009); Anyanwu (2010); Adetunji (2012); and Asogwa, Okwoche and Umeh (2012).

The standard used to measure income/extreme poverty was family household adult members' earnings of less than US\$1.25 a day which is the international poverty line defined by the World Bank (Ravallion, Chen and Sangraula, 2009). Investigation was based on both the international market and PPP exchange rates to allow for comparison of the two states captured by the study.

Based on ₦155.92 (which was the international market exchange rate of US Dollar to Nigerian Naira for December 31, 2012 according to Exchange Rates UK (2012)); US\$1.25 a day per person was calculated thus: 155.92×1.25

This equalled to ₦194.90 (US\$1.25) a day per person. In a month, it equalled to ₦5,928.21 (US\$38.02) per person, and in a year, it equalled to ₦71,138.50 (US\$456.25) per person. Therefore, based on the international market exchange rate, the study analysis classified any family household adult member whose income was less than ₦194.90 (US\$1.25) a day as income poor.

To determine the daily US\$1.25 per day poverty line based on the PPP exchange rate, the figures arrived at through the international market rate exchange change was cross-multiplied by US\$0.60 which was the equivalent of US\$1 in Nigeria as at the time of this research (World Bank, 2012). At the PPP exchange rate, US\$1.25 a day per person was calculated thus:

If 1 = 0.60, then, 1.25 would be: 1.25×0.60

This equalled to US\$0.75 which meant that US\$1.25 was equivalent US\$0.75 (₦116.94) a day per person at the PPP exchange rate. In a month, it equalled to ₦3,556.93 (US\$22.81) per person, and in a year, it equalled to ₦42,683.10 (US\$273.75) per person. Therefore, at the PPP exchange rate, the study analysis classified any family household adult member whose income was less than ₦116.94 (US\$0.75) a day as income poor.

The calculations of comparison between the study areas were done using a simple mathematical calculation known as the percentages of increase and decrease through nCalculator, Mathgoodies and Casio FX-83GT Plus Scientific Calculator.

Table 4.15 Household Questionnaires Administration Analysis

Mode of Analysis	Analyses Done
Computer-Based Analysis – SPSS Version 16	1. Descriptive Statistics (Percentages and Frequency Tables) 2. Inferential Statistics (Multivariate Analysis - Test of Hypotheses)
FGT	Headcount Ratio of those in Poverty
Calculator-Based – nCalculator, Mathgoodies, and Casio FX-83GT Plus Scientific Calculator	Percentages of Increase and Decrease (Comparison)

Source: Author

4.6 Adoptions and Assumptions the for Purpose of the Research

For the purpose of this study, there exist a number of adoptions and assumptions. Firstly, Osun and Jigawa States' family household adult members were assumed to represent the entire members of the household. Also, *earning below US\$1.25 a day* was adopted to mean *living below US\$1.25 a day, being income poor, or living in extreme poverty*; while *consuming below 2,900 calories a day* was adopted to mean *not being food secure, or being in food poverty*. Also, *2,900 and 3,000 calories* were assumed to be the same in the Nigerian context having found out that same amount of money could buy 2,900 to 3,000 calories worth of Nigerian foods.

4.7 Limitations to the Research

The qualiatative element of this research could not be generalized. This is in line with Vicsek (2010); Krueger, and Casey (2000) and Khan, et al. (1991). This is in order because the

central idea behind FGDs is not for generalization creation (Fern, 2001). This is the case because samples of the FGDs “are small and purposively selected and therefore do not allow generalization to larger populations;” and also because “the method of asking questions is not standardized and thus it might differ according to the individual situation (Khan, et al. 1991, p. 2; Vicsek, 2010, p. 123). However, this limitation did not adversely affect the findings generated from the FGDs because the researcher did not make a choice of the FGDs because he wanted to generalize the findings but because he wanted to use the FGDs to get in-depth insights into the factors that had possible association with income and food poverty in the two study areas; and to know the discussants’ positions as to whether or not the level of Nigeria’s progress towards meeting the MDGs’ targets on extreme poverty and hunger was promising. In short, the objective for which the choice of FGDs was employed by the researcher was achieved.

The quantitative element of this research had the non-generalizable stance as the non-survey aspect. Generalization of the survey aspect of the data collection was not possible because a non-random sampling in form of a pseudo-random sampling method which may not represent the entire population accurately was used. This limitation did not adversely affect the findings generated from questionnaire administration because the researcher did not make a choice of the questionnaire administration because he was bent on proving causality between variables and generalizing the findings from the exercise but rather, he wanted to use the questionnaire administration for research expedition which was achieved.

This study made no adjustments with reference to the difference in the caloric requirements for a man and a woman. It assumed the same caloric requirements for both sexes in line with the position of Nigeria’s National Bureau of Statistics which set a food poverty line of ₦39,759.49, an amount that could feed an average Nigerian up to a minimum calorific intake of

3000 per day. Though, this is a limitation to this research but it did flow well with it because it adopted the same methodology used by the NBS whose poverty line was used as yardstick for the measurement of food poverty in the study areas.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

As a follow up to the previous chapter which gave a full account of the research methodology (including the data analysis techniques used and the rationale for using them), this chapter presents the findings of this research. This chapter presents the findings of the Focus Group Discussions based on the themes captured by the exercise across the groups. The presentation of the FGDs' findings includes some direct quotations from the texts generated from the exercise. The chapter presents the results of the socio-economic characteristics of family households in the study areas and the level of income poverty at the individual level. Finally, the chapter presents the results of six hypotheses which test the relationships between the independent and dependent variables. The results of the levels of income poverty at the individual level and the tested hypotheses are based on both the international market and the Purchasing-Power Parity (PPP) exchange rates and are compared. All the presented results are based on the samples of the research and are followed with interpretations. The author/researcher is the source of all tables and figures contained in this chapter.

5.2 Analysis of the Qualitative Element of the Research

5.2.1 Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) Analysis

This analysis contains findings that are based on the FGDs conducted in the study areas of the research, that is, Nigeria's States of Osun and Jigawa. Focus groups discussions explored discussants' people's knowledge, experiences, beliefs, and opinions to arrive at the findings. In all, two FGDs were conducted in the two states, that is, one per state with groups that were homogenous. This FGDs analysis reveals four themes across the two FGDs. The themes revolve

around the the meaning of poverty, levels of income and food poverty, likely factors associated with income and food poverty and the progress towards the attainment of the MDGs targets on poverty reduction. For these themes, the coding process that produced these findings relied on frequencies of the some words and phrases in the texts of the two FGDs.

5.2.1.1 Theme 1: The Meaning of Poverty

In both focus groups, discussants were asked to describe in their own words what poverty meant to them. They were instructed to reflect upon how poverty was best understood and characterized. Following brainstorming sessions, majority of discussants in the two focus groups provided answers that aligned poverty to the income and basic needs approaches (*see chapter 2*). Vast majority of the discussants across the groups defined poverty in absolute/extreme terms itemizing the main traits or characteristics of poverty to include lack of income/low income, lack of food/lack of adequate feeding, lack of shelter/inadequate shelter, lack of clothing/lack of sufficient clothing, unemployment/underemployment, and lack/limited access to education.

In Osun State, all the discussants believed that poverty involved hunger/lack of adequate feeding, lack of income/low income, and homelessness/inadequate housing; vast majority of them believed that poverty involved lack of clothing/sufficient clothing and unemployment/underemployment, lack/limited access to education; half of them believed that poverty involved lack/limited access to health; and few of them believed that poverty involved lack of assets. In this state, a discussant tagged **FGD 1:1** stated that “to me, somebody is in poverty if he or she does not have enough money to take care of his or her basic needs and that of his or her family such as food, shelter and clothing. Also, somebody is in poverty when he or she is unemployed or underemployed which results in such a person not having enough money to take care of basic needs of life.” Another discussant tagged **FGD 1:2** stated that “a person is

also poor when he or she lacks access to education and good healthcare due to lack of enough money and when a person struggles to get education and good health for his or her family members” In Jigawa State, all the discussants believed that poverty involved hunger/lack of adequate feeding, lack of income/low income, unemployment/underemployment, and homelessness/inadequate housing; vast majority of them believed that poverty involved lack of clothing/sufficient clothing and lack/limited access to health; majority of them believed that poverty involved lack/limited access to health was a trait; and few of them believed that poverty involved lack/limited access to education. One of the discussants in the state tagged **FGD 2:1** stated that “poverty is when there is no food at home or when there is little food and a person is often hungry; it is when the employable people within a household have no jobs, that is, when they are unemployed and there is no money at all or no enough money for a household to spend,; it is when there is no shelter or when the available shelter is inadequate; it is when there is no clothing at all or no adequate clothing as in when a person cannot afford to provide for himself clothes that march different climates, like not being able to get for oneself thick clothes during the harmattan season. That is what poverty is, no more, no less.” Out of all the discussants in both states, there was only one dissenting voice that defined poverty in relative terms (*see chapter 2*). The discussant from Jigawa State tagged **FGD 2:8** described poverty as not being able to afford what others could afford for themselves and their families. She said that “poverty to me means a condition under which one cannot afford what others can. Like for example if my neighbour can send his son to a standard private school and I can only send mine to a public school or when my neighbour is eating chicken and rice everyday and I cannot do the same; that is poverty as far as I am concerned.”

5.2.1.2 Theme 2: Levels of Income and Food Poverty

Discussants in the two focus groups were asked to assess what the levels of income and food poverty were in their communities/societies. There was a widespread agreement by the focus groups that the rates of income and food poverty were high in their communities as most discussants stated this and backed up the agreement with beliefs and stories of experiences that better explained the high rates of income and food poverty in their communities. A discussant from Osun State tagged **FGD 1:5** stated that “I do not agree that the levels of income and food poverty within this community are low or moderate. People trek long distances to churches to worship because they cannot afford to pay for their transportation. It is very rare not to see scores of people waiting after church services to have discussions with their pastors or having them pray for them, and the prayer request of more than 95 percent of this set of people is always about provision from God to help them meet the basic needs of life which are shelter, food, and clothing. In short, within this community, the levels of income and food poverty are very high and it is only prayers to God that can help people out poverty in general.” From Jigawa State, a discussant tagged **FGD 2:5** stated that “embarrassing high numbers of beggars on our streets is enough to tell anybody that the levels of income and food poverty are high in our community. Majority of the members of my congregation complain of hunger day in, day out. We have scores of them who sleep in the mosque because they are homeless, these set of people have nothing. Things are very tight for people to the extent that they cannot keep their heads above water, they cannot meet the basic needs of common living in all aspects. And that is why we would not stop praying to Allah to rescue us from poverty.” However, there were very few dissenting voices that did not agree that the levels of income and food poverty were high in their communities, rather, they in their assessments believed that the levels of income and food

poverty in their communities were moderate. Accounts of two of the discussants are given hereunder: A discussant from Osun State tagged **FGD 1:4** stated that “in my own assessment, people in this community are not as poor as people think. I am a researcher and most of my academic investigations involve the levels of poverty in relation to Agriculture in this state. I am confirming to you that none of the results of my findings confirmed up to 50 percent poverty incidence in the state which to me is not as bad as people paint it to be. But to answer your question, I will say the levels of income and food poverty in this state are not high and not low, rather, they are moderate.” From Jigawa State, a discussant tagged **FGD 2:8** stated that “of course, there are income and food poverty in our society but I strongly believe that their levels are moderate. Personal observations of a number of families within this society has revealed to me that it is not extremely difficult for them to have a level of income, though, it may not be enough but it is not total lack of money in the family. My personal observation also reveals to me that families are housed, they feed and wear clothes, though, all these may not be adequate, but it is not total lack of these basic needs.”

5.2.1.3 Theme 3: Factors with Probable Association Income and Food Poverty

Question that revolved around factors that had likely associations with income and food poverty at the household level and in general terms was posed to the discussants. There was considerable debate as to what such factors were; this debate captured the experiences, opinions, and beliefs of the discussants. The discussants listed a number of factors with varying levels of agreement. Listed factors included corruption, unemployment, form of employment, lack of income, overpopulation, global inequality, individual deficiencies/laziness, culture of poverty, inadequate education/poor educational system, educational attainment, family/household size,

age composition of the family/household, gender/sex composition of the family/household, and geographical disparities/ location variables.

In Osun State, all the discussants believed that factors that had probable association with income and food poverty included corruption, unemployment, wages/income, and educational; vast majority of them believed that the factors included family/household size and inadequate education/poor educational system; majority of them believed that the factors included culture of poverty; few of them believed that the factors included form of employment, individual deficiencies/laziness, overpopulation, age composition of the family/household, and geographical disparities/ location variables; and very few of them believed that the factors included global inequality and sex composition of the family/household. In Jigawa State, all the discussants believed that the factors included corruption, wages/income, educational attainment, and family/household size; vast majority of them believed that the factors included unemployment; majority of them believed that the factors included form of employment; half of them believed that the factors included individual deficiencies/laziness and geographical disparities/location variables; few of them believed that the factors included age composition of the family/household, inadequate education/poor educational system and sex composition of the family/household; and very few of them believed that the factors included overpopulation, global inequality and culture of poverty. A discussant from Osun State tagged **FGD 1:4** stated that “inadequate education or poor educational system as we have in Nigeria may be used to explain poverty of any kind and at any level. I am a lecturer and I can confirm to you that since the 1990s, there have been disruptions in academic calendars at the primary, secondary, and tertiary levels of education due to incessant strikes following government insensitivity. With this, there is no way these schools can 50 percent roll out productive individuals that can secure income

generating jobs. With bad quality of schools and teachers, there is a high rate of illiteracy and a corresponding high rate of poverty. That is what obtains in Nigeria.” Another discussant from the same state tagged **FGD 1:6** stated that “unemployment is key to how poor one is. My life is a good example. I lost my father at a very tender age and as at this time, my mother was unemployed and she had to take up responsibilities over four children, myself and three others. It was struggle, we were poor, and we went to bed without food on a number of occasions. We had to practically beg for money and food. We would have been homeless if not for the fact that my father left a small uncompleted building where we moved to after his demise. I was lucky to be assisted by an uncle who was responsible for my education. My other siblings were not that lucky because none of them was able to complete primary school. That is what unemployment can do to people.” From Jigawa State, a discussant tagged **FGD 2:2** stated that “corruption is everywhere particularly among the political class. Just last week, a member of the state house of assembly came to my village to commission a 10 million naira constituency project which was a water bore-hole. Shortly after the commissioning, the whole structure collapsed. This is corruption of the highest order because the cost of the project itself should not be more than half a million naira. Another bad thing is that the project did not serve the purpose for which it was done. Corruption breeds poverty because money meant for the welfare of the masses is stolen by the political class in this country.” One other discussant from the same state tagged **FGD 2:6** “stated that “from time immemorial, there have been global inequalities across the world under which there has always been unequal distribution of resources between the rich and the poor countries of the world. This is a factor that may explain poverty of any form, be it income, food, material and so on. The unfair trade regime between these countries is disadvantageous to third world nations such as Nigeria as they have always been dependent on the first world nations.

This high level of dependency has created a gap that has been very difficult to fill by the third world nations. With this kind of scenario, the third world nations including Nigeria will always have a high rate of poverty of any kind.”

5.2.1.4 Theme 4: Progress towards Attaining the MDGs’ Targets on Poverty Reduction

Before proceeding to the main question which was on the progress towards attaining the MDGs’ targets on poverty reduction, the discussants in the two focus groups were first asked if they had the knowledge of the existence of the United Nations and if they knew that halving extreme poverty and hunger was the main focus of the MDGs of the UN. Vast majority of the discussants claimed to have the knowledge of the existence of the UN and having the knowledge that halving extreme poverty and hunger was the main focus of the MDGs. This majority of discussants did not believe that the level of Nigeria’s progress could make the MDGs’ targets on poverty reduction attainable for the country and their communities. They attributed this to a number of factors with varying levels of agreement. Listed factors included corruption, unemployment, illiteracy, bad governance, culture of poverty, and heavy external debt.

In Osun State, vast majority of the discussants attributed the country’s progress towards attaining MDGs’ targets on poverty reduction to corruption, bad governance and unemployment; majority of them attributed it to illiteracy and culture of poverty; and very few of them attributed it to heavy external debt. In Jigawa State, majority of the discussants attributed it to corruption, unemployment and bad governance; few of them attributed it to culture of poverty; and very few of them of them attributed it to illiteracy. A discussant from Osun State tagged **FGD 1:2** stated that “that is absolutely impossible. With the level of corruption in Nigeria at all tiers of government, poverty cannot be reduced; it will rather go up and up. The point is that those who constitute government at all levels in Nigeria are concerned about themselves and their families

alone, so the poor masses stand no chance of getting off the poverty trap. As I am talking to you, Nigeria is yet to fix the electricity problem we have been facing for decades despite the fact that millions have been spent to do this as they have claimed but no result. If there is no corruption and they truly spent millions, we should have uninterrupted electricity in Nigeria by now. Can a country that cannot fix ordinary electricity problem take its citizens out of poverty? No! No!! No!!!” From the same state, another discussant tagged **FGD 1:4** said that “Nigeria cannot halve the rate of poverty by 2015. Unemployment is everywhere. Parents struggle to send their children to different tertiary institutions so that they can have a better future but what do you get? No jobs for them to do after graduation. Without employment, there is no income, and without income, there is poverty. I do not see this condition is changing in years to come. Therefore, high rate of poverty will persist in Nigeria beyond 2015.” From Jigawa State, a discussant tagged **FGD 2:3** stated that “I do not agree that level of poverty in Nigeria can be halved by 2015. An illiterate community is a doomed community and that is what a community like ours is. Here, too many people are uneducated and very many others did not go beyond primary education. With the low educational attainments our community is characterized by, there is no enough income for people because their educational qualifications more often than not provides them with no jobs or with jobs with very low pay or profit. This lack of enough income surely breeds poverty in this community. And in as much as the government is not ready to provide qualitative education for the old and young and since a lot of people are not ready to go to school in their present form out of their lackadaisical attitudes, then poverty will be with us in this community for a very long time.” Another discussant from the same state tagged **FGD 2:8** stated that “poverty is an inheritance in our community in most cases; it flows from generations to

generations and just few people can escape poverty if it is inherited. If poverty is an inheritance and our government is insensitive to the plights of the poor, poverty will persist beyond 2015.”

5.3. Analysis of the Quantitative Elements of the Research Based on Administered Questionnaires

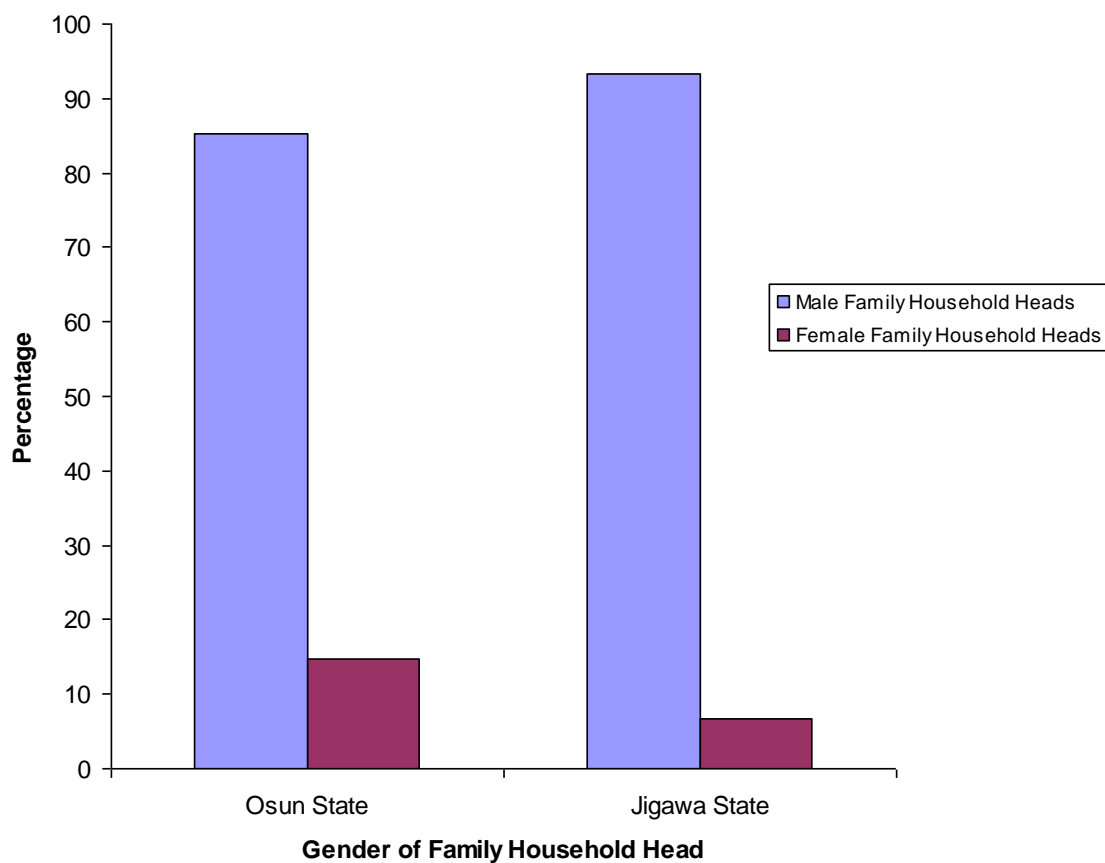
5.3.1 Socio-Economic Characteristics of the Family Households in the Research Study Areas

5.3.1.1 Gender of the Family Household Head

Table 5.1 Osun and Jigawa States - Gender of Family Household Head

Gender of Family Household Head	Osun State		Jigawa State	
	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Male Family Household Heads	46	85.2	56	93.3
Female Family Household Heads	8	14.8	4	6.7
Total	54	100	60	100

Fig 5.1 Osun and Jigawa States - Gender of Family Household Head



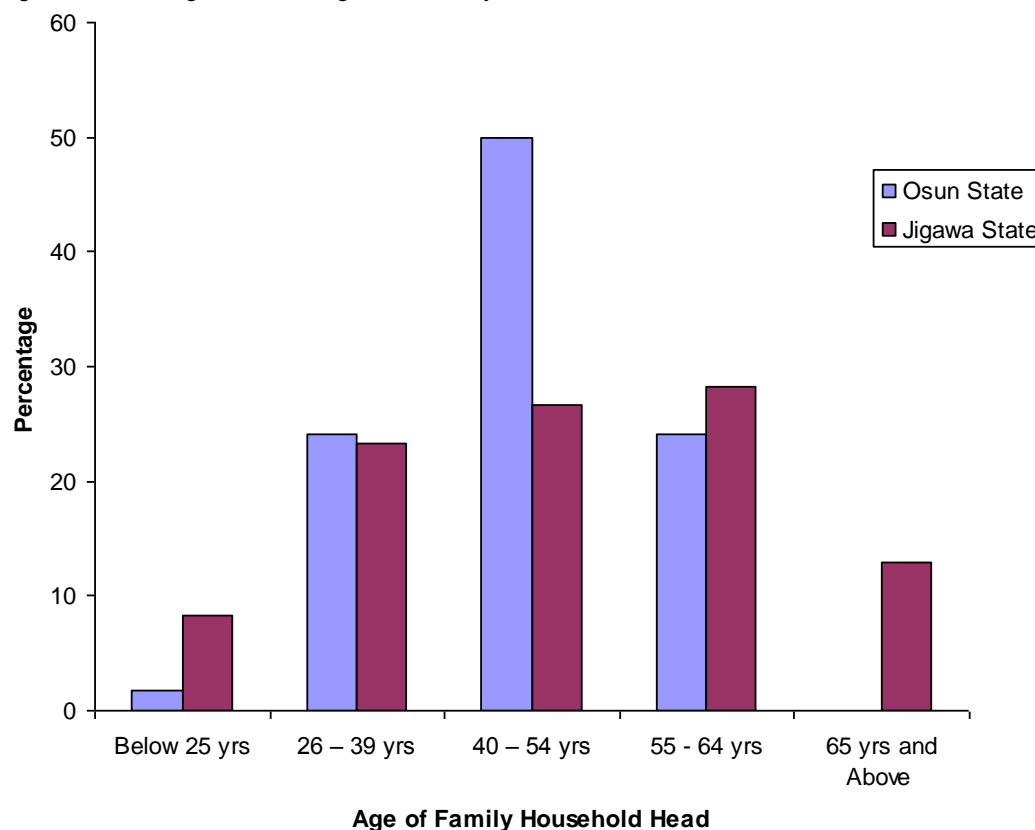
Comparison between the two states with respect to the gender of the family household head reveals that the proportion of male-headed family households in Jigawa State is 9.5% higher than that of Osun State while the proportion of female-headed family households in Jigawa State is 54.7% lesser than that of Osun State.

5.3.1.2 Age of the Family Household Head

Table 5.2 Osun and Jigawa States - Age of Family Household Head

Age of Family Household Head	Osun State		Jigawa State	
	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Below 25 yrs	1	1.8	5	8.3
26 – 39 yrs	13	24.1	14	23.3
40 – 54 yrs	27	50.0	16	26.7
55 - 64 yrs	13	24.1	25	28.3
65 yrs and Above	0	0.0	0	13
Total	54	100	60	100

Fig 5.2 Osun and Jigawa States - Age of the Family Household Head



Comparison between the two states with respect to the age of the family household head reveals that the proportion of family household heads who are below 25 years, 26 – 39 years, 40

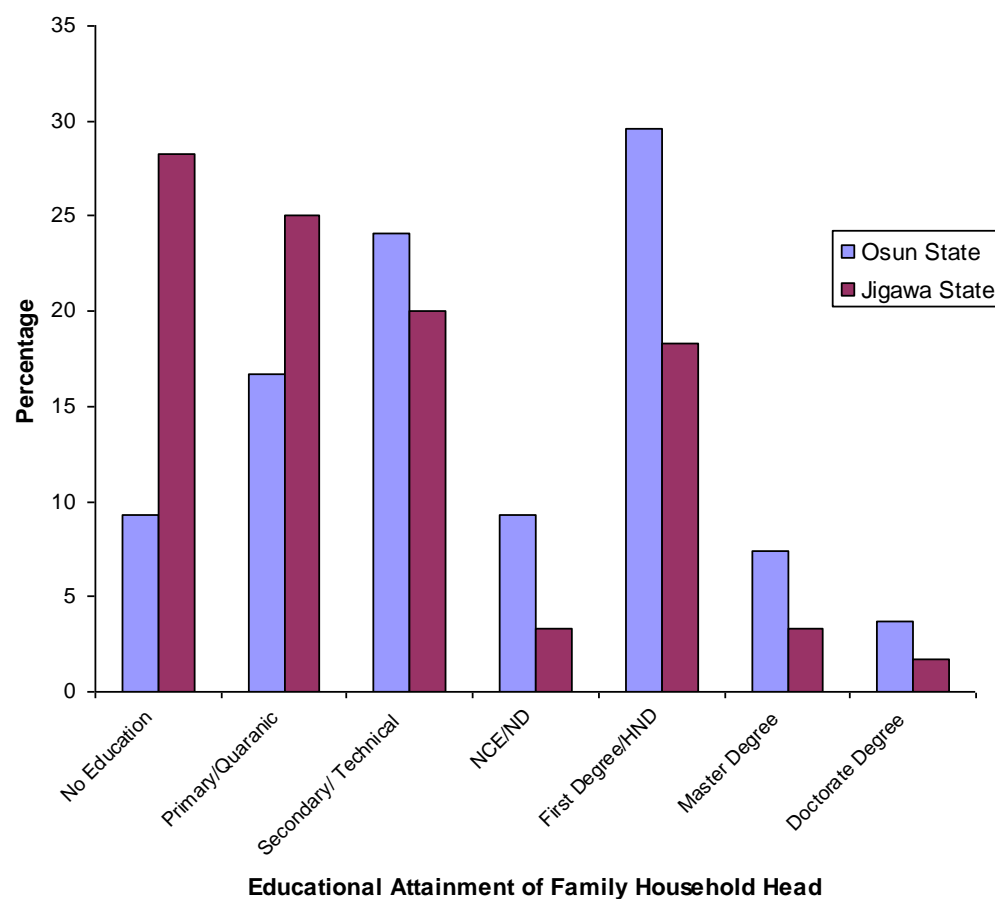
– 54 years, 55 - 64 years and 65 yrs and above in Jigawa State are 361.1% higher than, 3.3%, 46.6% lesser than, and 14.8% higher than that of Osun State.

5.3.1.3 Educational Attainment of the Family Household Head

Table 5.3 Osun and Jigawa States - Educational Attainment of Family Household Head

Educational Attainment of Family Household Head	Osun State		Jigawa State	
	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
No Education	5	9.3	17	28.3
Primary/Quaranic	9	16.7	15	25.0
Secondary/ Technical	13	24.1	12	20.0
NCE/ND	5	9.3	2	3.3
First Degree/HND	16	29.6	11	18.3
Master Degree	4	7.4	2	3.3
Doctorate Degree	2	3.7	1	1.7
Total	54	100	60	100

Fig 5.3 Osun and Jigawa States - Educational Attainment of the Family Household Head



Comparison between the two states with respect to family household head educational attainment reveals that the family household heads in Osun State are more educated than those in

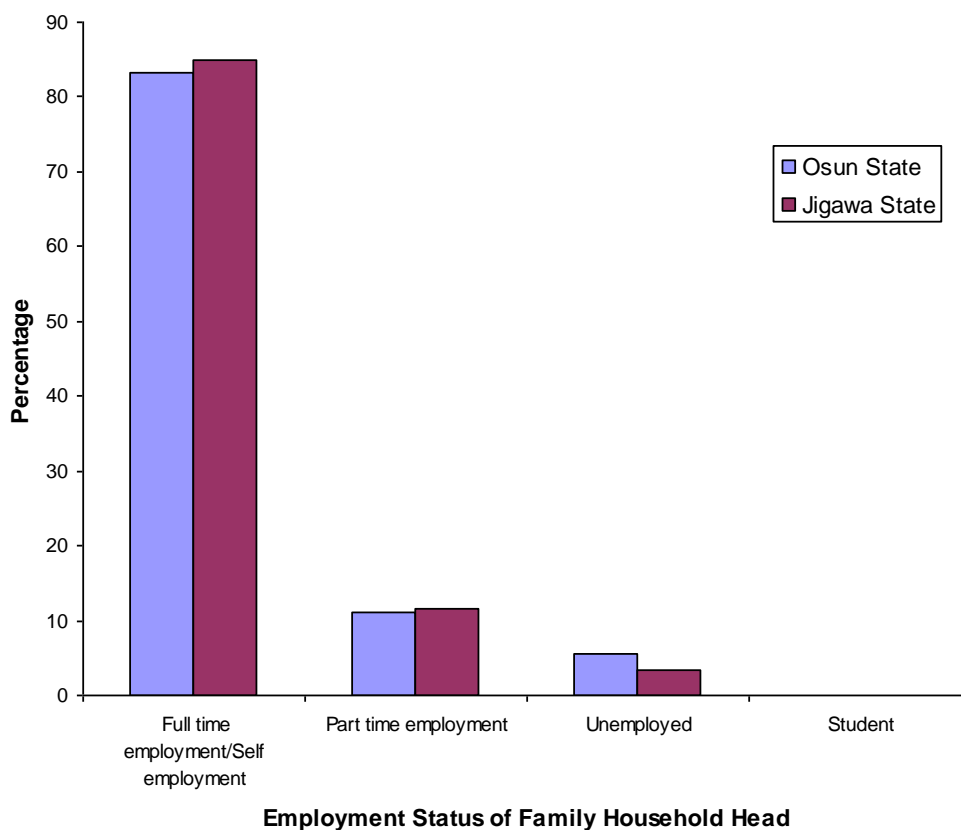
Jigawa State. While the proportion of family household heads who attained doctoral, master, first degree, college and secondary levels of education in Osun State are 54.1%, 55.4%, 38.8%, 64.5%, and 17.0% higher than that of Jigawa State; the proportion of those who attained primary level of education and those with no education in Osun State are 49.7% and 67.1% lower than that of Jigawa State.

5.3.1.4 Employment Status of the Family Household Head

Table 5.4 Osun and Jigawa States - Employment Status of Family Household Head

Employment Status of Family Household Head	Osun State		Jigawa State	
	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Full time employment/Self employment	40	74.1	41	68.3
Part time employment	6	11.1	7	11.7
Unemployed	8	14.8	12	20.0
Student	0	0.0	0	0.0
Total	54	100	60	100

Fig 5.4 Osun and Jigawa States - Employment Status of the Family Household Head



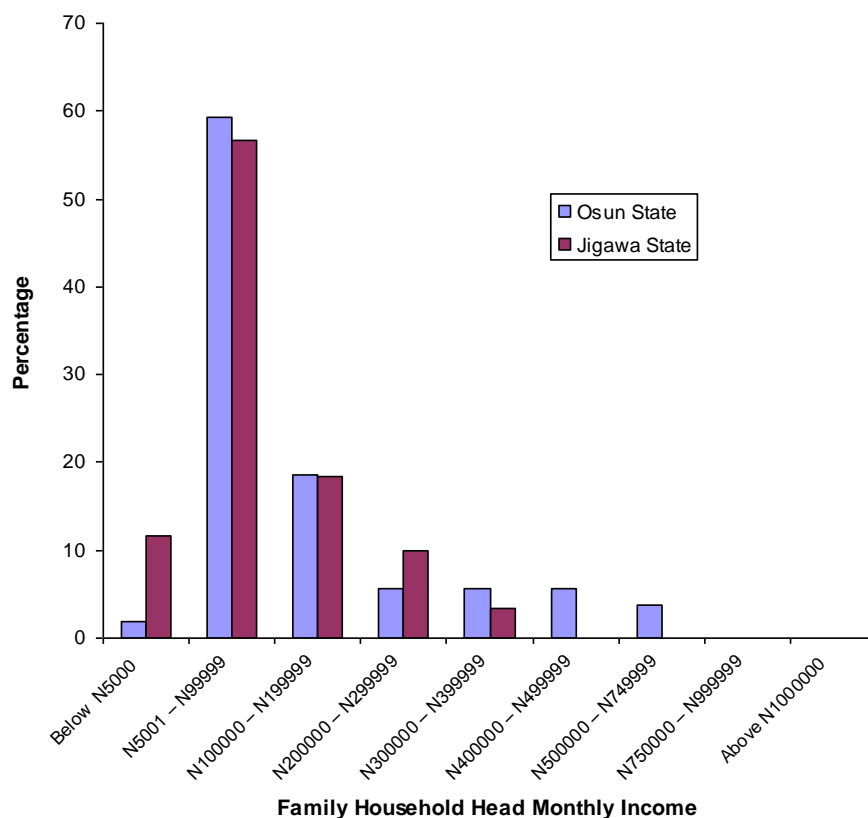
Comparison between the two states with respect to the employment status of the family household head reveals that the family household with full time employment/self employment, with part time employment and those that are unemployed in Osun State are 7.8% higher than, 5.4% and 35.1% lesser than the proportion of those in Jigawa State.

5.3.1.5 Family Household Head Monthly Income

Table 5.5 Osun and Jigawa States - Family Household Head Monthly Income from Employment/Self Employment

Family Household Head Monthly Income	Osun State		Jigawa State	
	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Below ₦5000	1	1.9	7	11.7
₦5001 – ₦99999	32	59.3	34	56.7
₦100000 – ₦199999	10	18.5	11	18.3
₦200000 – ₦299999	3	5.6	6	10.0
₦300000 – ₦399999	3	5.6	2	3.3
₦400000 – ₦499999	3	5.6	0	0.0
₦500000 – ₦749999	2	3.7	0	0.0
₦750000 – ₦999999	0	0.0	0	0.0
Above ₦1000000	0	0.0	0	0.0
Total	54	100	60	100

Fig 5.5 Osun and Jigawa - Family Household Head Monthly Income from Employment/Self Employment



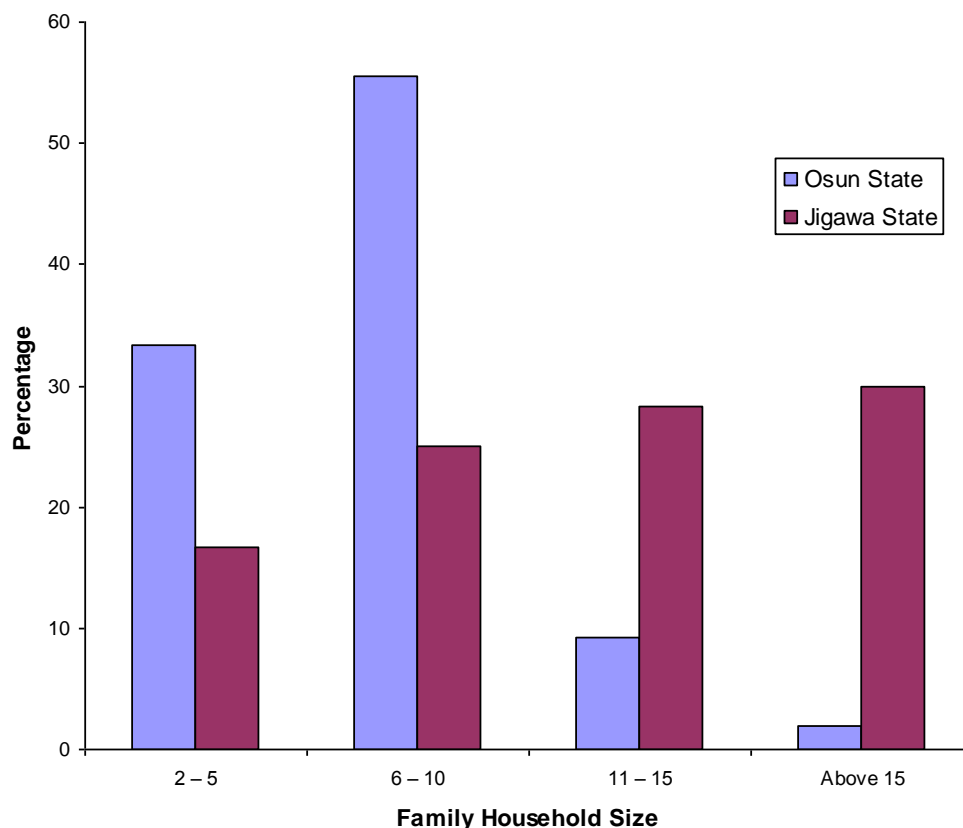
Comparison between the two states with respect to the family household head monthly income from employment/self-employment reveals that the proportion of family household heads whose monthly earnings are below ₦5000, at the range of ₦100000 – ₦199999, ₦200000 – ₦299999, ₦300000 – ₦399999, ₦400000 – ₦499999, and ₦500000 – ₦749999 in Osun State are 515.8%, 1.08% lesser than, 78.6% higher than, 41.1 lesser than, 100% lesser than, and 100% lesser than that of those in Jigawa State.

5.3.1.6 Family Household Size

Table 5.6 Osun and Jigawa States - Family Household Size

Family Household Size	Osun State		Jigawa State	
	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
2 – 5	18	33.3	10	16.7
6 – 10	30	55.6	15	25.0
11 – 15	5	9.3	17	28.3
Above 15	1	1.9	18	30.0
Total	54	100	60	100

Fig 5.6 Osun and Jigawa States - Family Household Size



Comparison between the two states with respect to family household size reveals that the family households in Osun State, Family Household numbered 2 – 5, family household numbered 6 – 10, family household numbered 11 – 15, and family household numbered above 15 are 49.8% higher than, 55.0% higher than, 204.3% lesser than and 1478% lesser than those in Jigawa State.

5.3.2 Levels of Income Poverty: Foster, Greer and Thorbecke (FGT) Headcount Calculations Based on the International Market Exchange Rate

Based on the samples of this research, the proportion of people in income poverty was calculated using the FGT formula for calculating poverty headcount ratio. Foster, Greer and Thorbecke (1984) give the formula for calculating proportion of people in poverty (headcount ratio) thus:

$$P_0 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N I(y_i \leq z) = \frac{N_p}{N}$$

P_0 is the proportion of people living below US\$1.25 a day (people in income poverty) in the study areas; N is the total number of people contained in the samples of the study areas for the research; and N_p is the total number of people contained in the samples of the study areas of the research living below US\$1.25 a day (people in income poverty).

5.3.2.1 Osun State: FGT Calculation of the Proportion of People in Income Poverty

Using the formula above, the proportion of people living below US\$1.25 in Osun State is calculated thus: $N = 353$ and $N_p = 221$. Therefore, $P_0 = \frac{221}{353} = 0.6261$

Conversion of P_0 above from a decimal to percentage is calculated thus: $0.6260 \times 100 = 62.6\%$.

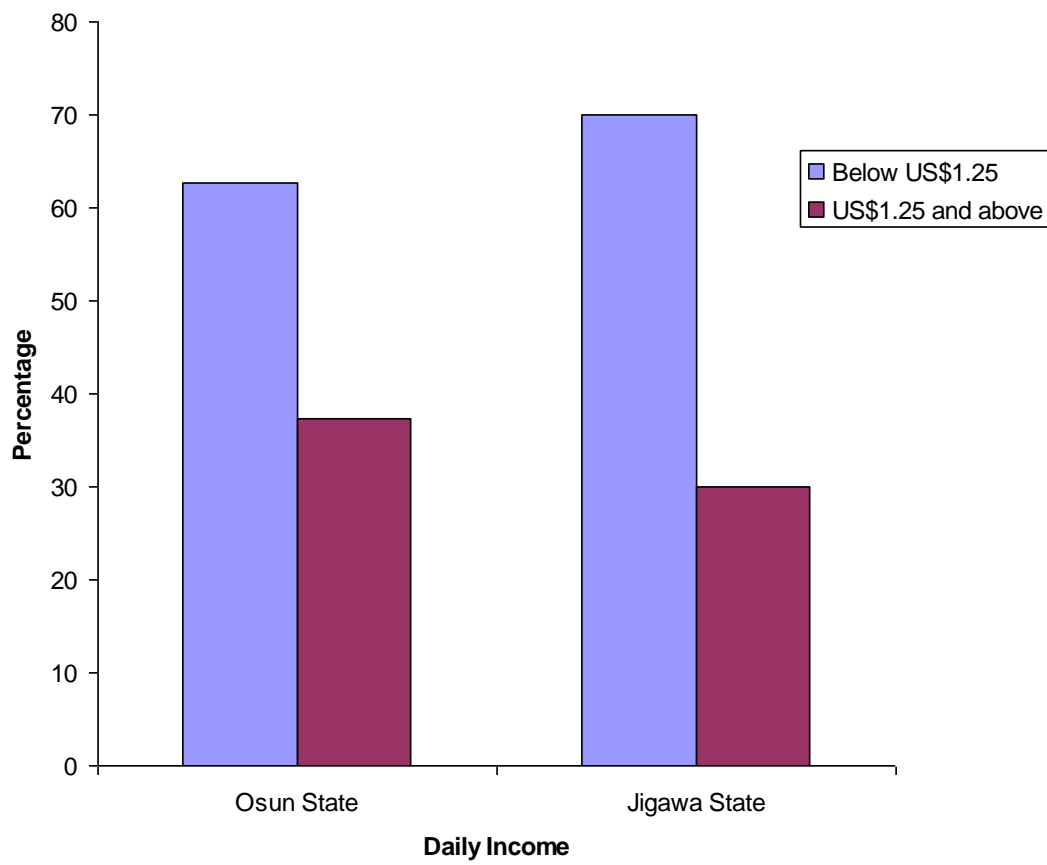
Therefore, the proportion of people living below US\$1.25 a day in Osun State is 62.6% while the proportion of people living on US\$1.25 or above a day in the state is 37.4%.

5.3.2.2 Jigawa State: FGT Calculation of the Proportion of People in Income Poverty

Using the formula above, the proportion of people living below US\$1.25 Jigawa State is calculated thus: $N = 696$ and $N_p = 487$. Therefore, $P_0 = \frac{487}{696} = 0.69971$

Conversion of P_0 above from a decimal to percentage is calculated thus: $0.69971 \times 100 = 69.97\%$
Therefore, the proportion of people living below US\$1.25 a day in Jigawa State is 70% while the proportion of people living on US\$1.25 or above a day in the state is 30% approximately.

Fig 5.7 Osun and Jigawa States – Proportion of Income Poor People at International Market Exchange Rate



5.3.3 Levels of Income Poverty: Foster, Greer and Thorbecke (FGT) Headcount Calculations Based on the Purchasing-Power-Parity Exchange Rate

5.3.3.1 Osun State: FGT Calculation of the Proportion of People in Income Poverty

Based on the samples of this research, the proportion of people in income was calculated by adjusting the income poverty line from international market exchange rates of US\$1.25 (~~₦~~194.90) to PPP exchange rates of US\$0.75 (~~₦~~116.94).

Using the formula above, the proportion of people living below US\$1.25 in Osun State is calculated thus: $N = 353$ and $N_p = 133$. Therefore, $P_0 = \frac{133}{353}$

Converting P_0 above from a decimal to percentage is calculated thus: $0.3767 \times 100 = 37.7\%$

Therefore, the proportion of people living below US\$1.25 a day in Osun State is 37.7% while the proportion of people living on US\$1.25 or above a day in the state is 62.3%.

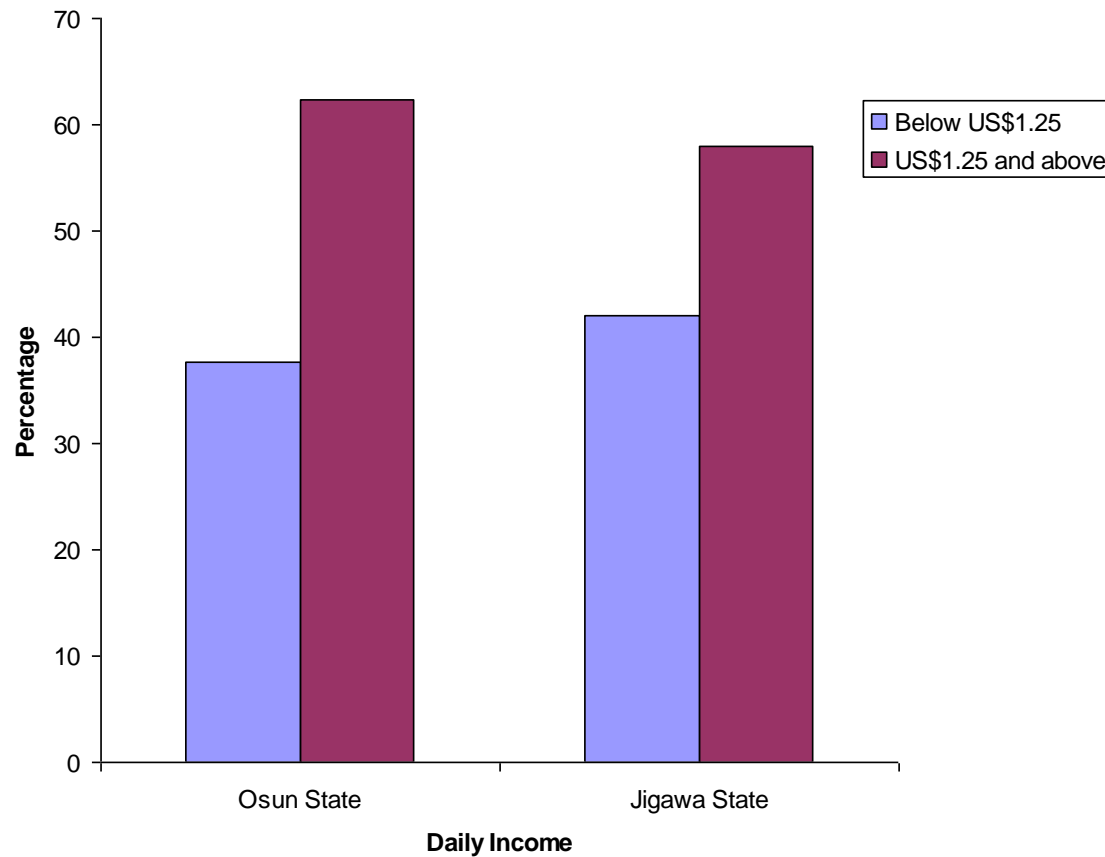
5.3.3.2 Jigawa State: FGT Calculation of the Proportion of People in Income Poverty

Using the formula above, the proportion of people living below US\$1.25 Jigawa State is calculated thus: $N = 696$ and $N_p = 292$. Therefore, $P_0 = \frac{292}{696} = 0.4195$

Converting P_0 above from a decimal to percentage is calculated thus: $0.4195 \times 100 = 41.95\%$.

Therefore, the proportion of people living below US\$1.25 a day in Jigawa State is 42% while the proportion of people living on US\$1.25 or above a day in the state is 58% approximately.

Fig 5.8 Osun and Jigawa States – Proportion of Income Poor People at PPP Exchange Rate



Comparison between the two states with respect to the level of income poverty based on the international market exchange rate reveals that the level of income poverty in Jigawa State is 11.8% higher than that of Osun State; and based on the PPP exchange rate, the level in Jigawa State is 11.4% higher than that of Osun State. Within Jigawa State, the level of income poverty based on the international market exchange rate is 66.7% higher than the level being based on the on the PPP exchange rate; and in Osun State, the former is 66% higher than the latter.

5.3.4 Test of Research Hypotheses Based on the International Market and the Purchasing-Power-Parity Exchange Rates

The data is a categorical data, Categorical Regression (CATREG) analysis was used to analyze the data. The decision rule shall be 0.05. If the p value of the analysis is less 0.05, the

null hypothesis (H_0) will be accepted and the alternative hypothesis (H_1) will be rejected but if otherwise, then, the H_1 will be accepted and the H_0 will be rejected. Income poverty serve as the dependent variable while the household head's gender, age, educational attainment, employment, family size and geographical location of the household serve as the independent variables.

In Osun State, the p-values of using the daily income poverty line at the international market exchange rate to test the relationship between the household head's gender, age, educational attainment, employment, family size and geographical location of the household and income poverty 0.454, 0.217, 0.492, 0.451, 0.210, and 0.129 respectively. This means that the null hypotheses are rejected while the alternative hypotheses are accepted in all. This suggests that there are significant relationships between the household head's gender, age, educational attainment, employment, family size and geographical location of the household gender of a family household head and income poverty in the state. In Jigawa State, the p-values of using the daily income poverty line at the international market exchange rate to test the relationship between the household head's gender, age, educational attainment, employment, family size and geographical location of the household and income poverty 0.541, 0.262, 0.511, 0.475, 0.253, and 0.152 respectively. This means that the null hypotheses are rejected while the alternative hypotheses are accepted in all. This suggests that there are significant relationships between the household head's gender, age, educational attainment, employment, family size and geographical location of the household gender of a family household head and income poverty in the state.

In Osun State, the p-values of using the daily income poverty line at the PPP exchange rate to test the relationship between the household head's gender, age, educational attainment, employment, family size and geographical location of the household and income poverty 0.599, 0.129, 0.308, 0.401, 0.109, and 0.115 respectively. This means that the null hypotheses are rejected while the alternative hypotheses are accepted in all. This suggests that there are significant relationships between the household head's gender, age, educational attainment, employment, family size and geographical location of the household gender of a family household head and income poverty in the state. In Jigawa State, the p-values of using the daily income poverty line at the PPP exchange rate to test the relationship between the household head's gender, age, educational attainment, employment, family size and geographical location of the household and income poverty 0.521, 0.100, 0.311, 0.455, 0.202, and 0.253 respectively. This means that the null hypotheses are rejected while the alternative hypotheses are accepted in all. This suggests that there are significant relationships between the household head's gender, age, educational attainment, employment, family size and geographical location of the household gender of a family household head and income poverty in the state.

5.4 Discussion of Research Findings

This section highlights the relationships between the findings of both the qualitative and quantitative elements of this research and the rates at which the research findings of this study align with the positions and claims of authors and reports in both chapters two and three.

5.4.1 Levels of Income and Food Poverty in the Study Areas

The findings of the qualitative element of this research with respect to the levels of income and food poverty in the study areas are in two folds. Much of the findings reveal that in general, the levels of income and food poverty in the study areas are high. These findings of the

qualitative element of this research are confirmed by the results of the quantitative elements of the research. At the individual level, the results reveal that based on the international market exchange rate in both Osun and Jigawa States, the level of income poverty is high with income poverty rates of 62.6% and 70% respectively. However, based on the PPP exchange rate, the results reveal that the level of income poverty at the individual level is moderate in Osun States at 37.7% and a bit higher in Jigawa State at 42%. The aspect of the two findings that suggests that the levels of income and food poverty are high in the study areas aligns with the positions of NBS (2012a) which reveals that levels of income and food poverty are high in Jigawa State based on the international market exchange rate. This aspect of the findings does not align with the position of the same report which reveals that levels of income and food poverty are moderate/low in Osun State based on the same exchange rate (*see chapters one and four*).

5.4.2 Probable Determinants of Poverty in the Study Areas

The findings of the qualitative element of this research with respect to the likely determinants of income and food poverty in the study areas suggest a number of factors as having likely association with income and food poverty. These factors include corruption, unemployment, educational attainment, family/household size, form of employment, inadequate education/poor educational system, and individual deficiencies/laziness, culture of poverty, geographical location of family/household, and both age and gender factors within the family/household. Some of these findings of the qualitative element of this research that revolve around the individual and the family household which are this research units of analysis are confirmed by the results of the quantitative elements of the research. The results reveal that based on the international market and the PPP exchange rates in both Osun and Jigawa States, factors such as the gender of the family household head, age of the family household head,

educational attainment of the family household head, employment status of the family household head, family household size, and family household geographical location have some levels of association with income poverty and food poverty (*see chapter five*).

Likely association of employment/unemployment with income and food poverty by the findings of this research aligns with the positions of Ucha (2010) and Englama (2001) which clarify unemployment as a dominant factor responsible for poverty in Nigeria (*see chapter two*). It aligns with the position of Osinubi (2005) which states that the most very poor in the country, in most cases, are the ones with no regular employment or those in unstable part-time employment (*see chapter two*). Again, it aligns with the position of Aiyedogbon and Ohwofasa (2012) which confirms that unemployment impacts on the level of poverty in Nigeria; and whose findings further confirm that a unit increase in employment was responsible for 0.02 percent increase in poverty between 1987 and 2011 in Nigeria (*see chapter two*). Likely association of the form of employment with income and food poverty by the findings of this research aligns with the positions of Appleton, Mckay and Alayande (2008) and Anyanwu (2012) which confirm form of employment/sector of employment as a determinant of the level of poverty (*see chapter two*).

Probable association of educational attainment with income and food poverty by the findings of this research aligns with the positions of OSSAP-MDGs (2010a; b) and Ojowu et al. (2004) which state that household with heads that have got little or no education experience the highest poverty incidence, depth and severity (*see chapter two*). It further aligns with the findings of Appleton, Mckay and Alayande (2008) where it is confirmed that a household where all members completed their schooling has welfare of up to 24% higher than a household of comparable measure whose members are all unschooled (*see chapter two*). Finally, it aligns

with the positions of UNFPA (2002), Akerele and Adewuyi (2011), Bastos, et al. (2009), Canagarajah, Ngwafon and Thomas (1997), Anyanwu (2012), UNDP (2009), Ucha (2010) and Ijaiya and Nuhu (2011) which all confirm that there exists wealth differences owing to the level of school attainment; that low educational attainment leads to high level of poverty, and that lack of education has an overwhelming characteristic among the extreme poor in Nigeria (*see chapters two and three*).

Likely association of family/household size with income and food poverty by the findings of this research aligns with the position of Lanjouw and Ravallion (1994) which confirms that the level of poverty is higher in large families (*see chapter two*). It aligns with the position of UNDP (2009) which confirms that the incidence of poverty is high in large households and that poverty incidence increases with household size (*see chapter two*). It aligns with the positions of Anyanwu (2005) and Omonona (2010) which confirm that household size is the most important factor determining poverty and that there exists a significant reduction in the welfare of large family in Nigeria (*see chapter three*). It further aligns with the positions of Akerele and Adewuyi (2011); Etim and Ukoha (2010); and Ijaiya and Nuhu (2011) which all establish a link between poverty and family/household size (*see chapter two*).

Probable association of geographical location of a family household and the age and gender factors with income and food poverty by the findings of this research aligns with the position of Appleton, Mckay and Alayande (2008) and Anyanwu (2010; 2012) which analyze that where one lives raises and lowers one's welfare, which impliedly points to a notion that location variables are connected to the level of poverty; and which analyze that the age and gender of the family/household head and the age composition of the family/household determine the levels of poverty within families/households (*see chapter two*).

Other factors with likely association to income and food poverty are exclusive to the findings of the qualitative element of this research. These factors include corruption which aligns with the position of Chetwynd, Chetwynd and Spector (2003) which states that there exists an indirect correlation between poverty and corruption thereby qualifying corruption as a determinant of poverty in general (*see chapter two*); Ucha (2010) which states that corruption is hugely perpetrated in Nigeria by politicians and government officials who are in constant habit of stealing public funds at the expense of the populace thereby multiplying poverty (*see chapter two*); and Transparency International (2008) and Ogboru (2007) which state that a relationship exists between corruption and poverty in Nigeria as funds meant for poverty reduction are often diverted into private pockets thereby having a negative effect on economic growth and investments in human capital, the result of which is the multiplication of poverty (*see chapter two*). The factors further include inadequate education/poor educational system which aligns with the positions of Gueye and Gauci (2003), UNFPA (2002) and Ucha (2010) which clarify that poor quality of schools begets inadequate education which makes getting income-generating jobs difficult, thereby heightening the level of poverty (*see chapters two and three*); individual deficiencies/laziness which aligns with the positions of Bradshaw (2006), Jordan (2004), Loewen (2009), Andy (2011), and Ucha (2010) which state that individual inefficiency/laziness is a determinant of poverty in that poverty is well connected to characteristics that are deep-rooted in individuals such as a person's habit and abilities like intelligence and overdependence on family fortunes (*see chapters two and three*); and culture of poverty which aligns with the positions of Bradshaw (2006), Lewis and La Farge (1959), Lewis (1964; 1966), Rodgers (2000), and Shulman (1990) which state that culture of poverty is a determinant of poverty on the premise that that poverty is generational, that is, it is passed from one generation to the other (*see chapter*

three). Lastly, the factors include overpopulation which aligns to the positions of Malthus (1798) which sees overpopulation as a determinant of poverty under which it is said that poverty is one of the effects of a situation where supply of food is lower than the human population; and UN (2005b) which states that global inequality is a cause/determinant of poverty based on an assertion that inequality is evident in health, education, employment, gender and opportunities for social and political participation between the Global North and Global South which precipitate poverty (*see chapter three*).

5.4.3 Progress towards Attaining the MDGs' Targets on Poverty Reduction

The findings of the qualitative element of this research with respect to the progress towards the attainment of the MDGs' targets on poverty reduction in both Osun and Jigawa States reveal that the progress is negative suggesting that it is unlikely these targets of the MDGs are met. The links between the findings of the qualitative and the quantitative elements of this research with respect to the progress of the MDGs are in two folds. Firstly, the findings of the qualitative element of this research are confirmed by the results of the quantitative elements of the research. As the revelation of findings of the qualitative element of this research, the findings of the quantitative elements of this research reveal that the levels of income and food poverty are high in the two states based on the international market exchange rate in both states suggesting that the progress towards the attainment of the MDGs' targets on poverty reduction in the two states is slow and thereby negative. Also, the findings of the qualitative element of this research are confirmed by the results of the quantitative elements of the research in Jigawa State. The findings reveal that based on the PPP exchange rate in this state, the level of food poverty is high suggesting that the progress towards the attainment of the MDGs' targets on poverty reduction with respect to food poverty in this state is slow and thereby negative. Secondly, the findings of

the qualitative element of this research are refuted by the results of the quantitative elements of the research. Contrary to the findings of the qualitative element of this research, the findings of the quantitative elements of this research based on the PPP exchange rate in both states reveal that the level of income poverty is moderate in the two states suggesting that the progress towards the attainment of the MDGs' targets on poverty reduction in the two states is fine and thereby positive. The findings further reveal that in Osun State, the level of food poverty is moderate suggesting that the progress towards the attainment of the MDGs' targets on poverty reduction with respect to food poverty in this state is fine and thereby positive (*see chapter five*). The aspect of the findings of the research that reveals that the levels of income and food poverty are high in the two states suggesting that the progress towards the attainment of the MDGs' targets on poverty reduction in the two states is slow and thereby negative aligns with the positions of Alabi and Adams (2011), Chete (2009), Bello and Rosland (2010), Essien and Usenobong (2009), Ogunmola and Badmus (2010); Ogege (2012), NPC (2004b), NPC (2007), and OSSAP-MDGs (2008; 2010a) which all state that it is unlikely Nigeria will meet the MDGs' targets on poverty reduction (*see chapter two*).

The negative progress towards the attainment of the MDGs' targets on poverty reduction in the two states is attributed to some factors which are exclusive to the findings of the qualitative element of this research. These factors include corruption which aligns with the positions of Alabi and Adams (2011) which emphasize corruption in the use of MDGs fund; Essien and Usenobong (2009) which list corruption as a clog in the wheel of progress of Nigeria's attainment of the MDGs by 2015; Ogunmola and Badmus (2010) which attribute the impossibility of meeting the 2015 targets to the implementation of MDGs that is beclouded with deeply entrenched corruption; Ogege (2012) which states that the uncertainty of meeting the

MDGs is attributable to corruption which reinforces and sustains the culture of poverty; and NPC (2004b) which states that corruption is key to the reason Nigeria cannot meet the MDGs by 2015 (*see chapter two*).

The negative progress is also attributed to bad governance which aligns with the position of Ogunmola and Badmus (2010) which attribute Nigeria's uncertainty of meeting the MDGs' targets to bad governance generated from gross inefficiency, wastefulness poor administration and lack of political will; with Ogege (2012) which attributes Nigeria's uncertainty of being able to meet the MDGs' targets to bad governance which reinforces and sustains the culture of poverty; and NPC (2007) and OSSAP-MDGs (2008) which both attribute Nigeria's uncertainty of meeting the MDGs' targets to bad governance (*see chapter two*). The negative progress is further attributed to unemployment which aligns with the position of Ogege (2012) which states that the uncertainty of meeting the MDGs is attributable to unemployment which reinforces and sustains the culture of poverty (*see chapter two*).

Culture of poverty is claimed to be one of the attributes responsible for Nigeria's uncertainty of meeting the MDGs' targets by the findings; this aligns with the position of Ogege (2012) which maintains that poverty breeds poverty in Nigeria through time which metamorphoses in a force of culture which is transmitted from one generation to another in a cyclical manner with no beginning and no end to the cycle (*see chapter two*). Illiteracy and heavy external debt are further claimed to be attributes responsible for Nigeria's uncertainty of meeting the MDGs' targets, this aligns with the position of Essien and Usenobong (2009) which attribute Nigeria's uncertainty of being able to meet the MDGs by 2015 to illiteracy particularly in the rural areas. Finally, the negative progress is attributed to heavy external debt which aligns with the position of NPC (2004b) which attributes Nigeria's uncertainty of being able to meet the

MDGs by 2015 to heavy external debt which is expressed to be a burden on the finances of the government and economy as a whole, and to poor resource utilization.

The findings do not align with the positions of Alabi and Adams (2011), Chete (2009), Essien and Usenobong (2009), and OSSAP-MDGs (2010b) which all claim that global crisis/climate change is an attribute to Nigeria's uncertainty of being able to meet the MDGs' targets; NPC (2007) and OSSAP-MDGs (2008; 2010b) which all state that insufficient data is one of the reasons Nigeria will not meet the MDGs' targets; and finally, Nweke (2012) which attributes Nigeria's uncertainty of being able to meet the MDGs' targets to culture of state capitalism and capitalist accumulation which greatly impact on MDGs by inducing the managers of the programme to turn its implementation into a means for political patronage.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION AND AGENDA FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

6.1 Introduction

The objective of this chapter is to give a summary of this study, including an overview of the findings of the study, and establish the links between the research findings and the positions/claims of authors/reports on the levels of income and food poverty in the study areas to suggest the progress towards attaining the MDGs' targets on the reduction of extreme poverty and hunger in the study areas. It further highlights the major contributions of the study to knowledge in the area of the United Nations MDGs targets on alleviating extreme poverty and hunger within the context of Nigeria's States of Osun and Jigawa.

6.2 Summary and Conclusion

The aims of this research work were to explore the literature on the MDGs, concept of poverty, poverty in Nigeria, and the progress of the MDGs in Nigeria with respect to poverty reduction; describe the idea of development and the general causes and consequences of poverty across the globe; investigate and analyze the levels of income and food poverty in the study areas to assess the progress of the MDGs' targets on extreme poverty reduction in the areas; test the relationships among variables in the study areas to suggest the determinants of income and food poverty in the areas; compare the socio-economic characteristics of the family households in the study areas; and suggest measures the study areas and Nigeria as a whole could take to further reduce the level of poverty to make further progress towards the attainment of MDGs' targets on extreme poverty reduction. This study also gave a brief overview of the study areas, Osun and Jigawa States.

This research explored the literature on the characteristics of the MDGs by giving its brief description, enumerating its goals, targets and indicators, and giving an account of its global progress on poverty reduction. The research further explored the literature on the description of poverty and the poor, different approaches to poverty; poverty in Nigeria; percentages of the income poor; the food poor and the population living in poverty in Nigeria; major determinants of poverty in Nigeria; progress of the MDGs' targets on poverty reduction in Nigeria; and the poverty reduction strategies in Nigeria. Also, it presented a description of development by looking at it from the historical background and from what the concept has meant over the years from different perspectives, and their links to the MDGs. The chapter also gives theoretical explanations of the causes of poverty and gives a description of the major causes and consequences of poverty across the globe.

This study stated the individual and the family household as its units of analysis. It itemized the research independent variables which included the gender, age, educational attainment, and employment status of the family household head, family household size and family household geographical location income; and the research dependent variables which included income and food poverty; listed the hypotheses tested by the study; described the research method employed by the study which was the mixed methods research, comprising both the quantitative and qualitative methods; described the method of collecting the primary quantitative data for the study which was by administration of questionnaires; described its method of collecting the primary qualitative data for the study which was via the FGDs. The study described data analysis techniques of the study which involved the use of descriptive statistics and multivariate analysis; and the software package used in the analysis of the quantitative data of the research which was the SPSS, and the methods used in the analysis of the

qualitative data of the research which involved a process that took a form of the scissor-and-sort technique with the addition of the computer knowledge of the researcher.

The research investigated and analyzed the levels of income and food poverty to verify existing claims on the levels of income and food poverty in Nigeria's States of Osun and Jigawa. This was done by collecting its primary qualitative data of the research through the FGDs in the study areas and the quantitative data for the research via the administration of questionnaires on family households in the study areas. Analysis of the qualitative data was purely in a non-numerical form; while the analysis of the quantitative data was presented via descriptive statistics and multivariate analysis with frequency tables and bar charts. Furthermore, the quantitative analysis of the levels of income and food poverty in the study areas were presented via the results of the FGT calculations which revealed the proportion of family adult members who were income poor, and the proportion of family adult members who were food poor. The yardstick used to measure income poverty was 'living below US \$1.25 per day' based on the daily earnings or income of family adult members at both the international market and the PPP exchange rates; while the yardstick used to measure food poverty was 'consuming below 2,900 calories per day' based on the daily cost of these number calories for family adult members at both the international market and the PPP exchange rates.

This study investigated and analyzed the likely determinants of poverty in the study areas to verify existing claims on the determinants of poverty in Nigeria by making an enquiry into the determinants of poverty in these areas. This was done through qualitative and quantitative data collected via the administered questionnaires and FGDs in the study areas which were subsequently analyzed. The findings of the study suggested negative progress towards the attainment of the MDGs' targets on poverty reduction based on the international market

exchange rate, while it suggested a positive progress towards the attainment of the MDGs' targets on poverty reduction based on the PPP market exchange rate.

Finally, the results from the entire analysis of both the quantitative and qualitative data of this research were linked to establish the levels of confirmation and refutation. They were further used to verify the level and determinants of income and food poverty in study areas by highlighting the rates at which the research findings of the study align to the positions and claims of authors and reports that existed prior this study.

This study found the rates of income and food poverty in the study areas which suggested the level of progress towards attaining the MDGs' targets on the reduction of extreme poverty and hunger with attributes associated with the progress level; and it revealed the factors with possible association with income and food poverty. The study further found out the relationships between independent and dependent variables of the research

The aforementioned achievements of this study thus suggests links to the position of NBS (2012a) on the levels of income and food poverty in Nigeria's States of Osun and Jigawa (*see chapters one, three and six*). The achievements of the study through its findings on the determinants of income and food poverty suggests links to Chetwynd, Chetwynd and Spector (2003); Ucha (2010), Transparency International (2008); Ogboru (2007); Englama (2001); Osinubi (2005); Aiyedogbon and Ohwofasa (2012); OSSAP-MDGs (2010a; b); Ojowu et al. (2004); Appleton, Mckay and Alayande (2008); UNFPA (2002); Akerele and Adewuyi (2011); Bastos, et al., 2009); Canagarajah, Ngwafon and Thomas (1997); Anyanwu (2010; 2012); UNDP (2009); Ijaiya and Nuhu (2011); Lanjouw and Ravallion (1994); UNDP (2009); Anyanwu (2005); Omonona (2010); Etim and Ukoha (2010); Gueye and Gauci (2003); UNFPA (2002); Bradshaw (2006); Jordan (2004); Loewen (2009); Andy (2011); Lewis and La Farge (1959);

Lewis (1964; 1966); Rodgers (2000); Shulman (1990); and UN (2005) (see *chapters one, two, three, and six*).

Also, the achievements of this study through its findings on the progress towards attaining the MDGs' targets on the reduction of extreme poverty and hunger and the factors attributed to the level of progress suggests links to NBS (2005); Alabi and Adams (2011); Chete (2009); Bello and Rosland (2010); Essien and Usenobong (2009); Ogunmola and Badmus (2010); Ogege (2012); NPC (2004b); NPC (2007); and OSSAP-MDGs (2008, 2010a) (see chapters one, two, three, and six). Finally, the achievements of the study through its findings on the relationships between income poverty and educational attainment on one hand, and between food poverty and family household size on the other establish links to Appleton (2001); UNDP (2009); (Bastos, et al. (2009); Ucha (2010); Canagarajah, Ngwafon, and Thomas (1997); Ojowu et al. (2004); OSSAP-MDGs (2010a; b) Akerele and Adewuyi (2011); and Anyanwu (2005; 2012); Appleton, Mckay and Alayande (2008); Lanjouw and Ravallion (1994); Omonona (2010); UNDP (2009); Etim and Ukoha 2010; and Ijaiya and Nuhu (2011) (*see chapters one, two, three, and six*).

The précis of this conclusion section is that based on the international market exchange rate, the levels of income and food poverty in the study areas are high suggesting that the progress towards attaining the MDGs' targets on the reduction of extreme poverty and hunger in the study areas is negative. But based on the PPP exchange rate, the levels of income and food poverty are moderate suggesting that the progress towards attaining the MDGs' targets on the reduction of extreme poverty and hunger in the study areas is positive. Thus, what the states captured by the research and Nigeria as a whole can do is to take some measures to alleviate poverty in general is to increase the prospect of meeting the MDGs' targets on the reduction of extreme poverty and hunger.

6.3 Agenda for Further Research

The study has some limitations. One of them is that the findings of its quantitative element could not be generalized to the entire population of Nigeria's States of Osun and Jigawa because a non-random sampling in form of a pseudo-random sampling method was used in collecting the primary quantitative data through questionnaire administration. Though, this limitation did not adversely affect the findings generated from questionnaire administration because the study did not make a choice of the questionnaire administration because it was hell bent on proving causality between variables and generalizing the findings from the exercise but rather, it used the questionnaire administration for research expedition which was achieved.

In view of this limitation, it is suggested that a further large-scale research on the levels of income and food poverty in the study areas that uses a random sampling method which involves the use of the *Enumeration Areas (EAs)* demarcated by the National Population Commission for the 2006 Housing and Population Census in the country's entire 774 LGAs should be carried out in the study areas so that the findings from such a large-scale study will be generalizable to the entire population of the study areas to an extent possible.

Another limitation of the research is that it made no adjustments with reference to the difference in the caloric requirements for both sexes in its calculation of food poverty in the study areas. It assumed the same caloric requirements for both sexes in line with the position of Nigeria's National Bureau of Statistics which set a food poverty line of ₦39,759.49, an amount that could feed an average Nigerian up to a minimum calorific intake of 2900/3000 per day. Though, this flowed well with the study because it adopted the same methodology used by the NBS whose poverty line was used as yardstick for the measurement of food poverty in the study areas.

In view of this limitation, it is suggested that a further research on food poverty based on daily minimum caloric requirement in the study areas should involve multiple adjustments based on factors such as age, body weight, physical activity, pregnancy, lactation, infection and rehabilitation so that the findings from such a research will reduce the level of bias.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1

THE CONSENT FORM AND ATTACHED INFORMATION

The Thesis Title: Progress towards Achieving the United Nations First Millennium Development Goal: An Analysis of Income and Food Poverty in Nigeria's States of Osun and Jigawa

I have read and understood the information sheet and this consent form. I have had an opportunity to ask questions about my participation.

I understand that I am under no obligation to take part in this study.

I agree to participate in this study.

Name of participant:

Signature of participant:

Signature of researcher:

Date:

Ponnle Solomon Lawson

Email: papaoosha@yahoo.com

Mobile: +447576102893; +2348033264154

INFORMATION

- This Focus Group Discussion exercise is to collect information from the participants.

- The collected information will be used for research purposes (*see consent form for research topic*)

- Participants can choose to stop at any time without penalty

- Participation is anonymous and confidential except for person(s) involved in the research work.

- Access to the recording tapes is exclusive to the researcher.

Appendix 2

FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION THEMES AND QUESTIONS

Theme 1: The Meaning of Poverty

Question: What does poverty mean to you?

Theme 2: Levels of Income and Food Poverty

Question: What are the levels of income and food poverty in your community?

Theme 3: Factors with Probable Association with Income and Food Poverty

Question: Which factors have probable association with income and food poverty within your community?

Theme 4: Progress towards Attaining the MDGs' Targets on Poverty Reduction

Question: In your assessment, is the level of progress by the government towards reducing poverty in your community positive or negative? Give reasons for your answer.

Appendix 3**QUESTIONNAIRE**

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am currently a research student of International Relations at the Nottingham Trent University, United Kingdom. I am conducting a research on the Nigeria's Prospects of attaining the Millennium Development Goals' (MDGs) targets on poverty reduction by 2015. Specifically, I would be looking at the level and causes of poverty as it relates income and food poverty in Nigeria and the country's prospects of attaining of the MDGs targets on poverty reduction by 2015.

It would be much appreciated if you could help complete this questionnaire. The information obtained would be used for the purpose for which it is meant stated above. Information gathered from you would be treated as confidential; results would be collated and presented anonymously. Thank you in advance for taking time and effort to complete this questionnaire.

Yours sincerely,

Ponnle Solomon Lawson

Nottingham Trent University, U.K

Questionnaire Questions

NOTE: Please mark X where applicable

1. Please confirm your gender

- Male-----
- Female-----

2. How old are you?

- Below 25-----
- 26 - 40-----
- 41 – 55-----
- 56 - 70 -----
- Above 70-----

3. What is responsible for your being the head of your household?

- Father/Husband -----
- Widow-----
- Single Mother -----

4. How many people do you have in your household including you?

- 2 - 5-----
- 6 - 10-----
- 11 – 15-----
- 16 - 20 -----
- 21 - 30-----

5. How many adult people (aged 15-64) do you have in your household including you?

6. What is your level of academic attainment?

- No Schooling-----
- Primary/Quaranic-----
- Secondary-----
- Technical-----
- NCE/ND-----
- HND/University-----
- Apprenticeship
- Others-----

7. What are levels of academic attainment of the other adult members of your household? Please complete this on the continuation form.

8. What is your employment status?

- Full time employment -----
- Part time employment
- Unemployed-----
- Student-----

9. How much do you earn monthly from employment?

- Below ₦5000 (US\$32) -----
- ₦5001 (US\$32) – ₦9999 (US\$64) -----
- ₦10000 (US\$65) – ₦19999 (US\$129) -----
- ₦20000 (US\$130) – ₦29999 (US\$194) -----
- ₦30000 (US\$195) – ₦39999 (US\$258) -----
- ₦40000 (US\$259) – ₦49999 (US\$323) -----
- ₦50000 (US\$324) – ₦74999 (US\$483) -----
- ₦75000 (US\$484) – ₦99999 (US\$645) -----
- ₦100000 (US\$646) – ₦149999 (US\$968) -----
- ₦150000 (US\$131) – ₦199999 (US\$1290) -----
- ₦200000 (US\$1291) – ₦299999 (US\$1935) -----
- ₦300000 (US\$1936) – ₦399999 (US\$2581) -----
- ₦400000 (US\$324) – ₦499999 (US\$3226) -----
- ₦500000 (US\$3227) – ₦749999 (US\$4839) -----
- ₦750000 (US\$4840) – ₦999999 (US\$6452) -----
- Above ₦1000000 (US\$6453) -----

10. Do you get money from any other sources apart from employment on monthly basis?

11. If YES, how much do you get from other sources apart from employment?

- Please state amount -----

12. What is the employment status of other adult members of your household? Please complete this on the continuation form.

13. How much do the other adult members of your household earn from employment? Please complete this on the continuation form.

14. Do the adult members of your household get money from any other sources apart from employment on monthly basis? Please complete this on the continuation form.

15. If YES, how much do the adult members of your household get from other sources apart from employment? Please complete this on the continuation form.

- Please state amount -----

16. How many times does your household feed in a day?

- Once-----
- Twice
- Thrice-----
- More than Thrice-----

17. What is the cost of feeding the members of your household daily?

- Please state amount -----

18. Do your household get food from any other sources on daily or monthly basis apart from purchase from the market?

- Yes -----
- No -----

19. If YES, what is the cost of such food from any other sources on monthly basis?

- Please state amount -----

20. Do you eat outside your household cooking?

21. If YES, how much does out of household feeding cost you daily?

- Please state amount -----

22. Do the adult members of your household eat outside your household cooking?

23. If YES, how much does out of household feeding cost the adult members of your household daily? Please complete this on the continuation form

- Please state amount -----

24. Do you consider your household poor?

Questionnaire Questions Continuation Sheet

One Continuation sheet per Adult Member of a Family Household

1. What is the level of academic attainment of the adult member of your household?

- No Schooling-----
- Primary/Quaranic-----
- Secondary-----
- Technical-----
- NCE/ND-----
- HND/University-----
- Apprenticeship
- Others-----

2. What is the employment status of the adult member of your household?

- Full time employment -----
- Part time employment
- Unemployed-----
- Student-----

3. How much do the the adult member earn from employment?

- Below ₦5000 (US\$32) -----
- ₦5001 (US\$32) – ₦9999 (US\$64) -----
- ₦10000 (US\$65) – ₦19999 (US\$129) -----
- ₦20000 (US\$130) – ₦29999 (US\$194) -----
- ₦30000 (US\$195) – ₦39999 (US\$258) -----
- ₦40000 (US\$259) – ₦49999 (US\$323) -----
- ₦50000 (US\$324) – ₦74999 (US\$483) -----
- ₦75000 (US\$484) – ₦99999 (US\$645) -----
- ₦100000 (US\$646) – ₦149999 (US\$968) -----
- ₦150000 (US\$131) – ₦199999 (US\$1290) -----
- ₦200000 (US\$1291) – ₦299999 (US\$1935) -----
- ₦300000 (US\$1936) – ₦399999 (US\$2581) -----
- ₦400000 (US\$324) – ₦499999 (US\$3226) -----
- ₦500000 (US\$3227) – ₦749999 (US\$4839) -----
- ₦750000 (US\$4840) – ₦999999 (US\$6452) -----

○ Above ₦1000000 (US\$6453) -----

4. Does the adult member of your household get money from any other sources apart from employment on monthly basis?

5. 5. If YES, how much does he/she get from other sources apart from employment?

○ Please state amount -----

6. Does the adult member of your household eat outside your household cooking?

7. If YES, how much does out of household feeding cost he/she daily?

○ Please state amount -----

Appendix 4

OFFICIAL LIST OF MDGs' TARGETS AND INDICATORS

Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)	
Goals and Targets (from the Millennium Declaration)	Indicators for monitoring progress
Goal 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger	
Target 1.A: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than one dollar a day	(i) Proportion of population below \$1 (PPP) per day ⁱ (ii) Poverty gap ratio (iii) Share of poorest quintile in national consumption
Target 1.B: Achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people	(iv) Growth rate of GDP per person employed (v) Employment-to-population ratio (vi) Proportion of employed people living below \$1 (PPP) per day (vii) Proportion of own-account and contributing family workers in total employment
Target 1.C: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger	(viii) Prevalence of underweight children under-five years of age (ix) Proportion of population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption
Goal 2: Achieve universal primary education	
Target 2.A: Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling	2.1 Net enrolment ratio in primary education 2.2 Proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who reach last grade of primary 2.3 Literacy rate of 15-24 year-olds, women and men
Goal 3: Promote gender equality and empower women	
Target 3.A: Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education no later than 2015	3.1 Ratios of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education 3.2 Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector 3.3 Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament
Goal 4: Reduce child mortality	
Target 4.A: Reduce by two-thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate	4.1 Under-five mortality rate 4.2 Infant mortality rate 4.3 Proportion of 1 year-old children immunised against measles
Goal 5: Improve maternal health	
Target 5.A: Reduce by three quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio	5.1 Maternal mortality ratio 5.2 Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel
Target 5.B: Achieve, by 2015, universal access to reproductive health	5.3 Contraceptive prevalence rate 5.4 Adolescent birth rate 5.5 Antenatal care coverage (at least one visit and at least four visits) 5.6 Unmet need for family planning
Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases	
Target 6.A: Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS	6.1 HIV prevalence among population aged 15-24 years 6.2 Condom use at last high-risk sex 6.3 Proportion of population aged 15-24 years with comprehensive correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS 6.4 Ratio of school attendance of orphans to school attendance of non-orphans aged 10-14 years
Target 6.B: Achieve, by 2010, universal access to treatment for HIV/AIDS for all those who need it	6.5 Proportion of population with advanced HIV infection with access to antiretroviral drugs
Target 6.C: Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases	6.6 Incidence and death rates associated with malaria 6.7 Proportion of children under 5 sleeping under insecticide-treated bednets 6.8 Proportion of children under 5 with fever who are treated with

	<p>appropriate anti-malarial drugs</p> <p>6.9 Incidence, prevalence and death rates associated with tuberculosis</p> <p>6.10 Proportion of tuberculosis cases detected and cured under directly observed treatment short course</p>
Goal 7: Ensure environmental sustainability	
Target 7.A: Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse the loss of environmental resources	<p>7.1 Proportion of land area covered by forest</p> <p>7.2 CO2 emissions, total, per capita and per \$1 GDP (PPP)</p> <p>7.3 Consumption of ozone-depleting substances</p> <p>7.4 Proportion of fish stocks within safe biological limits</p>
Target 7.B: Reduce biodiversity loss, achieving, by 2010, a significant reduction in the rate of loss	<p>7.5 Proportion of total water resources used</p> <p>7.6 Proportion of terrestrial and marine areas protected</p> <p>7.7 Proportion of species threatened with extinction</p>
Target 7.C: Halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation	<p>7.8 Proportion of population using an improved drinking water source</p> <p>7.9 Proportion of population using an improved sanitation facility</p>
Target 7.D: By 2020, to have achieved a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers	7.10 Proportion of urban population living in slums ⁱⁱ
Goal 8: Develop a global partnership for development	
Target 8.A: Develop further an open, rule-based, predictable, non-discriminatory trading and financial system	<p><i>Some of the indicators listed below are monitored separately for the least developed countries (LDCs), Africa, landlocked developing countries and small island developing States.</i></p> <p>Official development assistance (ODA)</p>
Includes a commitment to good governance, development and poverty reduction – both nationally and internationally	8.1 Net ODA, total and to the least developed countries, as percentage of OECD/DAC donors' gross national income
Target 8.B: Address the special needs of the least developed countries	8.2 Proportion of total bilateral, sector-allocable ODA of OECD/DAC donors to basic social services (basic education, primary health care, nutrition, safe water and sanitation)
Includes: tariff and quota free access for the least developed countries' exports; enhanced programme of debt relief for heavily indebted poor countries (HIPC) and cancellation of official bilateral debt; and more generous ODA for countries committed to poverty reduction	8.3 Proportion of bilateral official development assistance of OECD/DAC donors that is untied
	8.4 ODA received in landlocked developing countries as a proportion of their gross national incomes
Target 8.C: Address the special needs of landlocked developing countries and small island developing States (through the Programme of Action for the Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing States and the outcome of the twenty-second special session of the General Assembly)	8.5 ODA received in small island developing States as a proportion of their gross national incomes
	Market access
	8.6 Proportion of total developed country imports (by value and excluding arms) from developing countries and least developed countries, admitted free of duty
	8.7 Average tariffs imposed by developed countries on agricultural products and textiles and clothing from developing countries
Target 8.D: Deal comprehensively with the debt problems of developing countries through national and international measures in order to make debt sustainable in the long term	8.8 Agricultural support estimate for OECD countries as a percentage of their gross domestic product
	8.9 Proportion of ODA provided to help build trade capacity
	Debt sustainability
	8.10 Total number of countries that have reached their HIPC decision points and number that have reached their HIPC completion points (cumulative)
	8.11 Debt relief committed under HIPC and MDRI Initiatives
	8.12 Debt service as a percentage of exports of goods and services
Target 8.E: In cooperation with pharmaceutical companies, provide access to affordable essential drugs in developing countries	8.13 Proportion of population with access to affordable essential drugs on a sustainable basis
Target 8.F: In cooperation with the private sector, make available the benefits of new technologies, especially information and communications	<p>8.14 Fixed-telephone subscriptions per 100 inhabitants</p> <p>8.15 Mobile-cellular subscriptions per 100 inhabitants</p> <p>8.16 Internet users per 100 inhabitants</p>

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