ASSESSMENT OF THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE NATIONAL POVERTY ERADICATION PROGRAMME (NAPEP) IN SELECTED NORTHERN STATES OF NIGERIA

BY:

Lawal SALEH

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FEBRUARY, 2014

DECLARATION

I declare that this PhD dissertation entitled "Assessment of the Administration of the National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) in Selected Northern States of Nigeria" has been carried out by me. The information derived from the literature has been duly acknowledged in the text and a list of Bibliography provided. I therefore accept responsibility for any mistake or error in this work.

SALEH Lawal _____ Signature _____ Date

CERTIFICATION

This work entitled "Assessment of the Administration of the National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) in Selected Northern States of Nigeria" by Saleh Lawal meets the regulations governing the requirements for the award of the Doctor of Philosophy (PhD Public Administration) of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, and is approved for its contribution to knowledge and literary presentation.

_____ _____

Dr. S. B. Abdulkarim Date
Chairman, Supervisory Committee

_____ _____

Dr. Usman Abubakar Date
Member, Supervisory Committee

_____ _____

Dr. Hamza A. Yusuf Date
Member, Supervisory Committee

_____ _____

Dr. S. B. Abdulkarim Date
Head of Department

_____ _____

Prof. A. A. Joshua Date
Dean, School of Postgraduate Studies

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my father, Alhaji Saleh Adamu Dan Ibrah Babban Mutum, for his love, support and prayers.

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ABSTRACT

In response to the increasing rate of poverty in Nigeria and the inability of the existing poverty alleviation measures to alleviate poverty in the country, National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) was established in 2000 by the Federal Government to serve as the highest poverty alleviation machinery in the country. The Central problem which the research addressed was examining whether the administration of NAPEP has contributed to its success or failure to alleviate poverty among its targeted population in Kaduna and Bauchi States of Northern states of Nigeria. The research questions, objectives and hypotheses were stated in line with this. The study covered period between 2005 and 2010 and concentrated on four schemes/programmes (FEP, COPE, YES and VEDS) out of the NAPEP Schemes/programmes. The research design was basically a survey research and data were generated from both primary and secondary sources with questionnaires, interviews and personal observation as the instruments for generating the primary data. The populations of the study were two. One was the staff of NAPEP in Bauchi and Kaduna States at the Headquarters and the selected Local Government areas whose number were 43 while the second was the beneficiaries population who were 3,051. However, 39 individuals were selected to serve as the sample size for the staff while 354 were selected from the beneficiaries to represent their population. Random sampling and Cluster sampling techniques were adopted in sampling the respondents from staff and beneficiaries respectively. Data were analysed qualitatively and hypotheses were tested using Pearson Chi-square test. The study revealed that there was ineffective coordination of activities in NAPEP among its various offices, collaborating enterprises and other government poverty alleviation institutions. Monitoring of activities of the programme was also found ineffective. Other findings were that there were managerial capacity challenges in the administrative process of NAPEP. This was in addition to the environmental factors that were found to have affected the success of the programme in the selected states. It was recommended that there should be effective coordinating system or mechanism, effective monitoring, adequate funding and enhancement of environmental factors among others in the selected states for effective administration of NAPEP.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ADPS	Agricultural Development Projects
BLP	Better Life Programme
CAP	Capacity Acquisition Programme
CBN	Central Bank of Nigeria
COMESS	Community Economic Sensitization Scheme
COPE	In Care of the People
DFRRI	Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastucure
FEAP	Family Economic Advancement Programme
FEP	Farmers Empowerment Programme
FOS	Federal Office of Statistics
FSP	Family Support Programme
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GR	Green Revolution
HD	Human Development
HDI	Human Development Index
HDR	Human Development Reports
HPI	Human Poverty Index
LDCs	Less-Developed Countries
LGMCs	Local Government Monitoring Committees
MAP	Mandatory Attachement Programme
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals

NACB	Nigerian Agricultural and Cooperative Bank
NAPEC	National Poverty Eradication Council
NAPEP	National Poverty Eradication Programme
NCC	National Coordination Committee
NDE	National Directorate of Employment
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organizations
NPC	National Population Commission
NRDCS	Natural Resources Development and Conservation Scheme
OFN	Operation Feed the Nation
OPEC	Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries
PBN	People's Bank of Nigeria
PEF	Poverty Eradication Fund
PKP	Promise-Keeper Programme
RBA	River Basin Authorities
RIDS	Rural Infrastructure Development Scheme
SCCs	State Coordination Committees
SOWESS	Social Welfare Services Scheme
SPECs	State Poverty Eradication Council
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund

VEDS	Village Economic Development Solutions
YES	Youth Empowerment Scheme

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.7 Background to the Study

Poverty is one of the greatest challenges to global development and one of the top issues in the developmental agenda of most countries of the world, especially the developing ones. Available records showed that in 1990, about 1.25 billion people in the developing countries live below the poverty line. In Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), those people that lived below US$1 per day constituted about 46.8% of the entire population in 1990 although it dropped to about 45.9% in 2000 and 41.1% in 2004. The region has the highest proportion of people living in poverty with nearly half of the population living below the international poverty line of $1 per day (UNICEF and UNDP, 2002; UN, 2008).

Although the poverty level has been declining in Sub-Saharan Africa on the average rate, progress made in Nigeria has been negative as the poverty rate increased over the years. The incidence of poverty in the country using US$1 per day increased from 28.1% in 1980 to 46.3% in 1985 and declined to 42.7% in 1992. The number however increased to 66% in 1996 and to about 70% in 2000 (NAPEP, 2001). Although the report of the National Planning Commission (NPC) indicates that the poverty level has reduced to about 54.4% in 2004 (Igbuzor, 2006a), it further rose to about 69% in 2010 (NBS, 2012). In fact, the United Nation's (UN) Human Development Reports (HDR) of 2006 rated Nigeria's poverty rate between 1990 to 2005 to be 70.8% of the populace. This trend is far above

the SSA average of 41.1% in 2004. In addition, the 2009 HDR of the UN revealed that using $1.25 as poverty line, the Nigerians poverty rate between 2000 and 2007 was set at 64.4% of the entire populace. But, if put at $2, the percentage would be 83.9%. This of course, shows the severity of the incidence of poverty in the country.

However, the UN Human Poverty Index (HPI) of 2000 rated Nigeria as the 23rd poorest out of 85 developing countries in terms of human poverty. In 2005, the country was also ranked as 75th out of 103 developing countries and 114th out of 134 in 2009. This shows that, even among the developing countries, Nigeria is comparatively poor in terms of HPI (UNDP, 2000 - 2009). In fact, the report of the Fund for Peace for 2012 ranked Nigeria as the 8th failed state in Africa in 2010. In 2011, it was rated as one of the top 10 failed states in Africa and the 14th in the world (Sheriffdeen, 2012).

However, the issue of poverty and how to get out of it at the global level is the first and foremost goal among the eight goals aimed to be achieved by the world leaders at the United Nations Millennium Summit of September, 2000 which gave birth to the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) adopted by 189 countries of the world. The goals are targeted to be achieved by 2015 (UNDP and UNICEF, 2002). Nigeria is one of the countries that made such pledge in the summit and it has the highest population in Africa and rated as the third country in the world with the highest number of people in poverty after China and India (Igbuzor, 2006b).

Paradoxically, Nigeria is one of the countries of the world endowed with rich land and natural resources; the country occupied the World's thirteenth largest producer of petroleum and sixth largest in the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) as at 2002. As at the beginning of 2006, the country was rated as the eighth highest producer of petroleum in the world, producing 2.1 million barrels of petroleum per day at an average price of US$ 50-60 per barrel. The country has an estimated proven reserve of 32 million barrels – sufficient for 37 years at the then prevailing rate of production. Its gas reserve when fully exploited would place it in the world's top ten gas producers as the estimated gas reserves were 174 million cubic feet and would last for 110 years at the then prevailing rate of production(IMF, 2002; BBC World news, 16th January, 2006).

In terms of the annual percentage of growth in Gross Domestic Product (GDP), the country only recorded an average of 2.4% from 1990 – 2000. This could be regarded as very poor compared to other countries like Ghana (4.3%) and Egypt (4.6%)(Igbuzor, 2006a). In fact, the 2009 HDR of the UN expressed Nigeria's average annual growth rate from 1990 to 2007 to be 0.91%. This is unlike other developing countries like Benin with an average of 1.46% and Burkina Faso with an average of 1.82% within the same period. This is indeed a medium term growth. But for the short term, the report indicated that from 2000 to 2007, the country recorded only 1.31% average growth while Benin, Burkina Faso and Ethiopia recorded 1.37%, 2.85% and 3.13% average growth rates respectively.

In terms of the Human Development (HD), Nigeria was rated by the HDRs of the UN as 137th out of 174 countries in 1993 with a score of 0.401. In 1997 and 1998, the country was rated 28th and 23rd country with poor HDI among 174 countries of the world (UNDP, 1999 and 2000). This trend of deteriorating HD situation continued in the country as she was rated as 158th out of 177 countries in terms of HD by the HDR of 2005, 2007/2008, and 2009. The report of 2006 ranked her as 159th out of 177 with a score of 0.448 indicating that she was the 18th poorest country out of total of 177 countries in the world (UNDP, 1996 - 2009). In 2005 however, the World Bank placed the country as the second poorest nation in the world (The Guardian, 17th September 2005).

However, between 1993 and 2009, Nigeria recorded very poor in terms of Human Development (HD), manifesting in almost all areas of human endeavour. According to National Bureau of Statistics (NBS), (2005), the social indicators for Nigeria revealed that out of 1000 live births, 168 died before reaching their fifth birthday in 1999 and 201 in 2003(see appendix 13). However, it was indicated by the UN HDR that in 2001 and 2002 about 43% of the Nigerian populace lacked access to safe water and in 2006 the percentage of those with no access to safe water constituted about 52% of the populace and 53% in 2009. In 1991, life expectancy was 51 years and about 60% of the population lived without access to basic health facilities (UNDP, 1991 - 2009). All these are indicators of poverty in the country.

However, over the years, the subsequent Nigerian governments have

administered many policies and programmes and created institutions and agencies all in a quest to ensuring poverty reduction among the citizens. The institutional measures established by the past governments in the country to administer the government's poverty alleviation efforts included Nigerian Agricultural Cooperative Bank (NACB), Peoples' Bank (PB), Family Economic Empowerment and Advancement Programme (FEAP), River Basin Authorities (RBA), Operation Feed the Nation (OFN), Directorates of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures (DFRRI), National Directorate of Employment (NDE), Better Life Programme (BLP), Family Support Programme (FSP) and other similar intervention programmes.

In 1999, the Federal Government observed that poverty was on the increase in Nigeria in spite of the large number of on-going efforts and programmes that are being administered in the fight against poverty. This called for review of the existing interventions through streamlining and rationalization of the functions of core poverty alleviation institutions and agencies; reduction of overlapping functions; enhancing effective performance; improving coordination; and improvement in collaboration with State Governments, Local Governments, and International Donor Agencies. This therefore, provided a basis for the establishment of the NAPEP by the Federal government in January, 2001, reflecting the government's commitment to address poverty issue in the country (NAPEP, 2002). This research therefore, dwells on how this programme was administered in some selected states of Northern Nigeria.

1.8 Statement of the Problem

Nigeria's poverty rate (among its citizens) has over the years been on the increase. Statistical data available indicate that as at the attainment of independence in 1960, the rate stood at about 15% of the population and by 1980 it grew to 28.1%. In 1985 however, the poverty level was 46.3% and dropped to about 43% by 1992. The percentage however increased to 66% in 1996 and about 70% in 2000 (Igbuzor, 2006a, NAPEP 2001). In fact, between 1990 and 2005, the country recorded an average of about 70.8% of the populace living in poverty (UNDP, 2006).

However, there were numerous institutional and policy frameworks set up by the government to curtail such poverty situation in the country during same period of the increase in the proportion of people living in poverty in the country. These measures covered almost all sectors of the economy such as education, health, agriculture, transports, housing and financial sector (Overt, 2001). Some of these measures were in the introduction of programmes such as the Operation Feed the Nation (OFN), Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP), Directorate for Food, Roads, and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI), National Directorate of Unemployment (NDE), and Family Economic Advancement Programme (FEAP) among others.

In 1999, the Federal Government duly observed that in spite of the large number of on-going efforts and programmes in the fight against poverty, the situation was still worsening in the country indicating the failure of such measures.

In fact, the government identified that the existing poverty alleviation measures were characterized by poor coordination of activities; lack of well articulated policy for poverty eradication; lack of sustainability of programmes and projects; absence of achievable target setting; absence of monitoring, evaluation and impact assessment; absence of effective coordination and collaboration between the agencies of government and among the three tiers of governments; and duplication of functions resulting in unnecessary rivalry among institutions (NAPEP, 2004). These are in addition to the management/leadership capacity issues and environmental factors that are believed to have constitute challenge to the success of these interventions. This increased poverty rate in the country and the inability of the existing poverty alleviation measures to significantly impact on poverty reduction in the country led to the establishment of the NAPEP in January, 2001 to serve as the highest poverty alleviation body in the country. This body coordinates and monitors activities of all poverty alleviation institutions in the country.

However, in spite of the adoption of this institutional measure, poverty still persists in the country. In 2002, the HDR of the UN indicated that no fewer than 70% of the Nigerian population lived below the poverty line and the country was ranked as 148th out of 173 countries in terms of HD. In fact, in 2009, it was placed as the 19th country with poor HDI out of 177 countries and 20th out of 134 developing countries in terms of Human Poverty (UNDP, 2009). In addition, the country was expressed to have the highest number of poor people in Africa and

third in the whole world after china and India (Igbuzor, 2006a). The fundamental question is that, has the administrative process of the NAPEP contributed to its failure or success to alleviate poverty among Nigerian citizens? This is the central problem which the research intends to investigate

1.9 Research Questions

In addressing the central problem of this research, the following questions are derived and answers will be sought:

i.) What has been the effectiveness of Coordination in NAPEP?

ii.) How have management capacity issues affect the success of NAPEP?

iii.) How have the environmental factors affect the success of NAPEP?

1.10 Objectives of the Study

The main objective of the research is to examine whether the administrative process of NAPEP contributed to its success or failure to alleviate poverty among its targeted population in Nigeria. In achieving this, the following secondary objectives are addressed: to;

i.) examine effectiveness of Coordination in NAPEP.

ii.) assess how the management capacity issues affect the success of NAPEP.

iii.) examine how the environmental factors affect the success of the NAPEP.

iv.) offer recommendations on possible ways to ensure effective poverty alleviation in the country.

1.11 Statement of Hypotheses

For the purpose of this research, the following hypotheses were tested in order to achieve the objectives set up for the study:

1. H_o: There is no significant relationship between Coordination in NAPEP and its success in alleviating poverty in Bauchi and Kaduna States.

   H_1: There is a significant a relationship between Coordination in NAPEP and its success in alleviating poverty in Bauchi and Kaduna States.

2. H_o: There is no significant relationship between management capacity of NAPEP and its success in alleviating poverty in Bauchi and Kaduna States.

   H_1: There is a significant relationship between management capacity of NAPEP and its success in alleviating poverty in Bauchi and Kaduna States

3. H_o: There is no significant relationship between environmental factors and success of NAPEP in Bauchi and Kaduna States.

   H_1: There is a significant relationship between environmental factors and success of NAPEP in Bauchi and Kaduna States

1.12 Significance of the Study

Conducting researches on the issue of poverty and the roles of NAPEP in its reduction in Nigeria is not an entirely new exercise. Various researches have been conducted by researchers and scholars on the issue. Researchers like Asaju (2011) conducted research on NAPEP with focus on the operational structure of

the programme and implementation strategies of its various schemes as well as the appropriateness of the programme to poverty alleviation. Nnamdi (2010) also conducted a study on the impact of NAPEP on rural populace. The variables focused by the research were the issues of contribution to agriculture, employment provisions, micro finance and social amenities provisions by NAPEP to the benefitting communities. Other scholars like Mahamadu (2008) studied the role of NAPEP on the development of the society with focus on its contribution to only Women and the factors that affect the success of the programme. Isah (2008) also conducted his research on the issue of social policy as it affects poverty reduction with attention on the issues of the effectiveness of the Social policies of the Gombe State government on poverty reduction and the various poverty alleviation measures of the government of Gombe state between 1996 and 2006. However, from the available records to the researcher, there is no research carried out on the administration of NAPEP with focus on issues of coordination of the programme with other related poverty alleviation institutions; managerial and leadership aspects of the programme; and Environmental Factors influencing the programme as well as the issue of funding of the programme. This research is therefore unique and significance as it focuses on a distinctive dimension to the understanding of problems affecting NAPEP's effectiveness to alleviating poverty in Nigeria.

The study would also be very significant to policy makers at federal, state and local governments in making policies on how to curtail the menace of poverty

among citizens. Various donor agencies or institutions interested in the issue of poverty reduction, whether national or international, would find this study relevant in contribution to fight against poverty in the country and even other countries around the globe.

The management and staff of the NAPEP as well as the beneficiaries of its schemes and programmes would also benefit from the research. This is because the study would expose the areas of strengths and weaknesses of the programme for future actions by both the staff officials and those that benefit from it.

However, the findings of this research are expected to be useful to the researchers, academicians and students, interested readers and other institutions in making further researches on the area of poverty and Development Administration in general. In addition, it would serve as a source of reference by making contribution to the knowledge and understanding of the concept, nature, and characteristics of poverty.

1.7. Scope of the Study

This research is on assessing the administration of NAPEP programme in selected Northern States of Nigeria; a region with the higher percentage of people living in poverty in the country (see Appendix 6A and 6B). It is clear that NAPEP has uniform programmes and schemes as well as structure in all the 36 states of Nigeria. But, this work focused on Kaduna and Bauchi states. Kaduna was selected based on its ranking in terms of poverty index. It is one of the states whose poverty incidence has reduced from 67.7% in 1996 to about 50.2% in 2004 (see

Appendix 7D). Bauchi state was selected based on the fact that the state has the highest poverty incidence in the North East geopolitical zone in the country with about 83.5% incidence of poverty in 1996 and 86.3% in 2004. This of course shows an increase in the poverty incidence in the state (see Appendix 7D).

The study also selected only four programmes/schemes out of the numerous NAPEP programmes. These programmes/schemes included the Youths Empowerment Scheme (YES). This was selected based on the programme's concentration on skills acquisition and development, wealth generation and poverty reduction among the youths who of course constitute part of the active population in these states. The second programme was the Farmers Empowerment Programme (FEP) and was selected based on its focus on farmers who constituted more than half of the population of the selected states. The third programme was the In Care of People (COPE) and was chosen because of its focus on poor households especially women led households while the fourth Programme was the Village Economic Development Solutions Scheme (VEDS) and was selected based on its emphasis on economic empowerment of village people. These programmes were selected and the administrative strategies for the effective implementation studied and analysed.

Also, the period of study covered between 2005 and 2010. The period was selected because it was matured enough to study a programme that came into being four years earlier. It is a second term period of the democratic era by the initiator of the programme in the country; where by the poor expected the

dividends of democracy through transformation of citizens' life in terms of projects and programmes that improve human development. However, the period incidentally witnessed incidence of poverty in the country, especially in the Northern part of the country.

1.11 Limitations of the Study

A study of this nature is bound to have some limitations. One of the main limitations to the conduct of this research was the difficulty in generating data especially the data generated from beneficiaries of the NAPEP programmes that were dispersed into towns and villages across the states and whose access by the researcher was difficult due to their locations. In addition, due to the literacy level of some of them, it was difficult for them to fill the questionnaire administered to them.

However, access to some vital documents that were important to the research was very difficult to the researcher especially those dealing with financial dealings of the NAPEP and other important publications that were vital to the research.

Other limitations to the study are those that have perennially troubled researchers in this part of the world. They include inadequate financial resources to the researcher and time constraint. It should however be noted that, this study is not a comparative study of the selected states; it is rather a generalized study of these states.

1.12 Definitions of Terms

A study of this nature makes use of certain concepts whose meanings need to be operationally defined in order to have a clear understanding of their applications within the context of the work. Thus, the concepts applied in this research and their meanings are discussed below:

1.12.1 Administration

The concept of Administration has been given different meaning by different authorities. It is said to have commenced immediately two people agree to co-operate to undertake a task, for instance, to move a stone which none of them can move alone (Simon 1950). It is viewed by Gladden (1972) viewed administration as to care for or look after people, to manage affairs. It refers to as the mobilization and proper utilization of human and material resources to achieve the desired ends (goals). Also, Onuoha (1999), explains further that administration exists whenever people cooperate to achieve the goals of their groups, and such achievements require planning, organization, command, cooperation and control. It involves the mobilization, deployment and direction of human and material resources to attain the specified objectives.

However, the concept of administration as applied in this research refers to the process of managing or running a given programme, policy or activity in terms of its planning, organizing, staffing, coordinating, funding, and other related issues with a view of achieving a given set of objectives. The process of administration requires the followings:

i. Careful planning of activities that are aimed to be achieved;

ii. Good coordination among the various components of the programme or activity in focus;

iii. Effective and proper monitoring of organizational activities or services;

iv. Very qualitative staff that are committed to the attainment of the set up objectives;

v. Adequate fund to support the programme's or institutional activities;

vi. Effective control mechanism to ensure judicious use of programme's or institution's fund;

vii. Satisfaction of the targeted population which the programme or institution aims to deliver service to; and

viii. Good support or commitment from the part of the targeted group or beneficiaries of the programme.

1.12.2 Assessment

Assessment, as used in this study refers to a careful examination, analysis or consideration of a given policy, programme or activity. The concept can however be used as synonym to "evaluation".

1.12.3 **Coordination**

This refers to the act of making various activities, programmes or policies work harmoniously and interelatedly towards achieving a given objective.

1.12.4 Environmental Factors

Environmental Factors here refers to the social, economic and political environmental factors that surround the administration of a given programme or

policy and which can affect the outcome of such programme or policy. They include issues such as infrastructures, literacy, perceptions, political system, value system, commitments and poverty level among others.

1.12.5 Management Capacity

This refers to the capacity of those involved in the administration of a given programme or policy in terms of planning, monitoring, leadership pattern, judicious use of fund, quality of staffing, credibility in selecting the target group and other related issues.

1.12.6 Impact

Impact as used in this study refers to the extent to which a given programme or policy is able to positively or negatively affect the people which it targets. It is a kind of intended or unintended effect which comes as a result of the administration of a given policy or programme.

1.12.7 Effectiveness

Effectiveness here refers to the level of results from the actions of a given individual. It can be viewed as doing the right thing and getting the right results.

1.12.8 Efficiency

Efficiency in this study implies the process or situation when an output unit has a satisfactory relationship with the resources expended to produce that output. Such resources may include men, material, time, money etc. This is to say that, where the output of an organization does not reflect the resources invested in it, such organization is perceived to be inefficient.

1.12.9 Poverty

Conceptually, poverty has been viewed differently as there seems to be a general agreement that poverty is a difficult concept to handle, and that it is more easily recognised than defined. Johnson (1966), defined poverty as "a situation when the resources of individuals or families are inadequate to provide a socially acceptable standard of living." However, Iyayi (2005), sees poverty as a state of deprivation in the means needed to sustain life at some level of human dignity. Also, FOS (1992), defined poverty as "not having enough to eat, a high rate of infant mortality, a low life expectancy, low educational opportunities, poor water, inadequate healthcare, unfit housing and a lack of active participation in the decision making processes.

Operationally, we perceived poverty here to refers to a condition of unavailability or inadequacy of means for an individual to take care of his basic needs such as food, health, clothing, and shelter. Poverty however reflects the followings:

i. Lack of clean and safe water;
ii. Lack of employment opportunities;
iii. Inadequacy of good clothing;
iv. Low level of income for those employed;
v. Unavailability of welfare incentives for those unemployed;
vi. Lack of good shelter or poor housing;
vii. Inaccessible health care service;

viii. High mortality rate;

ix. Crude methods of farming;

x. High rates of crimes especially among youths; and

xi. Absence of other factors that make life comfortable

1.12.10 Poverty Reduction

Poverty reduction refers to the decrease in the incidence of poverty on a given population usually after certain intervention. Poverty in a particular society is said to have reduced if there is improvement on the factors mentioned under the definition of poverty discussed above.

1.12.11 Quality of Staff

Quality of staff reflects the efforts put by staff of an organization in carrying out his responsibilities. An organization whose staff performs effectively and efficiently with a full commitment towards attaining its goals and objectives is said to have a qualitative staff. Thus, attainment of an efficient output is a reflection of high quality of staff.

1.12.12 Success of a Programme

Success of a programme refers to the ability of a given programme to achieve the goals and objectives that it is set up to achieve. A programme whose gains or benefits exceed its cost, it implies a success.

1.13 Organization of the Study

This research work is divided into six chapters. Chapter one is an introductory chapter providing background to the study, statement of the problem objectives of

the study, hypotheses to be tested, scope and limitations of the study, significance of the study as well as operational definition of key concepts.

Chapter two contains review of related literature focusing on the concept of poverty, its causes, measurements, incidence and other issues related. The chapter also contains review of empirical work on related area. The chapter also provides theoretical framework for the study, using System Theory while the third Chapter dwells on research methodology focusing on research design, sources and instruments of data collection, population/sample size, sampling technique and method of data analysis.

The fourth Chapter deals with the programme of study and the areas of study. The chapter focuses on the overview of some past government poverty alleviation efforts as well as historical and structural overview of the NAPEP. It touches issues as the programmes and schemes under the NAPEP, Internal structure, funding and other issues related. The fifth chapter contains presentation and analysis of the data collected including interpretation, testing of hypotheses and summary of major findings. The sixth chapter is the concluding chapter which is based on the research findings. It includes summary, conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.4 Introduction

The issue of poverty and how to tackle it has become increasingly one of the top issues of discussion when it comes to human development. Various organizations and individuals have made a lot of researches on the issue under different dimensions and indeed a lot of literatures have been documented in the area. This section therefore intends to review the available literature on the subject matter as well as discussing the Theoretical Frameworks that guide the research.

2.5 Literature Review

In this study, effort was made on critical review of the concept of Administration; the concept of poverty; causes of poverty; measurement of poverty; incidence of poverty and review of some empirical works. Issues raised, arguments advanced and points of views stated by various scholars also are critically reviewed.

2.5.1 The concept of Administration

Administration is a universal concept and is also of universal importance. It is viewed differently by different people. However, the word "administer" is derived from a combination of two (2) Latin words 'ad' and 'ministrare' which means to serve, to direct, to control and to manage affairs. In its literal sense administration simply means management of affairs – public or private affairs.

According to Simon (1950), it is said to commence immediately two people agree to co-operate to undertake a task, for instance, to move a stone which none of them can move alone.

Gladden (1972) viewed administration as a long and slightly pompous word, but it has a humble meaning, for it means to care for or look after people, to manage affairs. It refers to as the mobilization and proper utilization of human and material resources to achieve the desired ends (goals). Also Nwosu (1985:3), noted that

> *Administration is inevitable in any given situation where a piece of work has to be done, and this piece of work requires the effort of more than one person to accomplish it. We are involved in administrative behavior when we co-operate with other people to accomplish such objectives as erecting a community town hall, constructing and managing schools, churches, hospitals, vehicles, assembly plants.*

Onuoha (1999) explains further that administration exists whenever people cooperate to achieve the goals of their groups, and such achievements require planning, organization, command, cooperation and control. It involves the mobilization, deployment and direction of human and material resources to attain the specified objectives. When viewed from this perspective, certainly administration is rightly considered a very old and global phenomenon, which exists, even in the most basic human group. We may therefore define administration as a capacity to coordinate and execute many and often conflicting social demands in a single organism so perfectly that they should all operate as a unit (Fayol, 1949).

Veig (1989) defined administration as a determined action taken in pursuit of conscious objectives. He further stated that administration is a systematic ordering of affairs and calculated use of resources aimed at making those things happen and at the same time preventing the occurrence of those event that failed to meet the objectives. Accordingly, three (3) key elements constitute what administration is all about. First, it is a determined activity taken in pursuit of conscious objectives. Second, it is a systematic ordering of affairs and calculated task of managing resources aimed at achieving some goals. Finally, it is an act of preventing occurrence of events that may hinder the actualization of predetermined goals.

It should be brought to the fore that, the concept of administration is as old as organized social life. It is universal process which is carried on in a variety of public and private organization. it occurs in such diverse institutional settings as a business firm, labour unions, church, charitable organizations, educational institutions and governmental units. But, its nature is affected according to the sphere with which it is concerned.

Therefore, administration is goal oriented a purposive and cooperative activity undertaken by a group of people in order to realize some common goal or goals. It excludes non-purposive and non-cooperative group activities such as tow men fighting with each other and the like. Also, one man moving a stone, if possible, is not an administration, or administrative activity as it lacks cooperative effort by two or more people.

However, those definitions and explanations, among others, point to the fact that administration is both public and private. Gulick (1937) looked at administration (public) as that part of science of administration which has to do with government, and thus concerns itself primarily with the executive branch where the work of government is done, though there are obviously administrative problems also in connection with the legislative and judicial branches.

From the foregoing, effort is now extended to identifying some qualities depicting and describing the techniques, scope and processes involved in administration. Thus, Onuoha (1999) explains further that administration (public and private) exists whenever people cooperate to achieve the goals of their groups and such achievement requires planning, organization command, cooperation and control. It involves the mobilization, deployment and direction of human and material resources to attain the specified objectives.

However, Gulick (1937) sums up the entire administrative process or roles and functions of administration in an acronym as 'POSDCORB'. This implies Planning, Organizing, Staffing, Directing, Coordinating, Reporting And Budgeting.

i. Planning

This involves working out in broad outline what is to be done by the organization and deciding the method to be employed in order to accomplish the purpose set by the organization.

In other words, it involves deciding on a course of action n needed to achieve some desired results in the future.

ii. Organizing

This is the setting out of the formal structural authority and flow of work in such a way that the work in the various sub-divisions and branches is carefully arranged. It also involves bringing together resources- capital, men and equipment in the most effective way to accomplish goal.

iii. Staffing

This is the concern with the Personnel functions involving recruitment, training, compensation, and discipline and employing various measures to improve staff welfare and conditions of work.

iv. Direction

It is the continuous task of making decision, embodying them in specific and general instructions, and setting the pace as the leader of the organization. In other words, it involves leading and motivating the members of the organization in such a way that the overall goals of the organization can be achieved.

v. Coordinating

This is the harmonization and synchronization of individual and group effort for the purpose of attaining efficiency. That is, by ensuring that the various branches of the organization are working smoothly and the interrelated task being performed in the various sub-division and section are harmoniously integrated. It also involves the exchange of information with people in the organization in order to relate and adjust programmes.

vi. Reporting

This involves keeping to those to whom the administrator is responsible informed of what is going on, while at the same time the administrator or chief executive keeps himself and his subordinates informed through reporting, records, research and inspection.

vii. Budgeting

This is the statement or projected expenditure as against the expected revenue; for every administrative action has financial implication.

Therefore, the POSDCORB formula is a useful and necessary in the processes involved in administration particularly in public organizations such as NAPEP.

2.5.2 The Concept of Poverty

Poverty, like many other concepts, is very difficult to define. It is indeed a multidimensional social phenomenon whose definition varies by gender, age, culture, status, location and other social and economic contexts. Aboyade (1987) held the view that there seems to be a general agreement that poverty is a difficult concept to handle, and that it is more easily recognised than defined. Many writers have pointed the difficulties involved in defining poverty Some of the difficulties are associated with the fact that those defining poverty are usually not the poor themselves, (Iyayi, 2005). The same view was expressed by Magaji (2004) who noted that poverty could never be defined unless one passed through

it. This is due to the fact that one can only define it well, when he felt it and not when he sees it.

Despite the difficulty of defining the concept, various scholars and researchers have attempted its definition under different perspectives. Rein (1970: 48-49) perceived poverty in three broad concepts; as subsistence, inequality or externality. Poverty as subsistence is concerned with the minimum of provision needed to maintain health and working capacity i.e. capacity to survive and to maintain physical efficiency. Inequality is concerned with the relative position of income group to each other; because poverty can only be understood by studying the society in general rather than isolating the poor and treating them as a special group from the series of stratified income layers in the society. The externally concept is concerned with the social consequences of poverty for the rest of society rather than in terms of the needs of the poor. He further explains the concept of poverty as subsistence as he sees it as the lack of the basic income needed to acquire the minimum necessities of life. In this case, those that lack these necessities to sustain their life are by definition poor.

Townsend (1970:42-43) explained poverty in terms of relative deprivation that can be identified by assessing exactly how resources are distributed among a population and by what different ranking systems; and assessing what diets, activities, and living conditions are customary in society as a whole from which the poor tend to be excluded. In his analysis of the concept, he argued first of all that poverty of deprived nations can be attributed to the system of international social

stratification arising from hierarchy of societies with vastly different resources in which the wealth of some is linked historically and contemporaneously to the poverty of others.

Secondly, poverty of individuals and of families is related to the form of social stratification within nations that tends to be based on the distribution of resources which is understood in a much broader sense than income – cash income, capital assets, employment benefits, public social service benefit and private benefits. Thirdly, he argued that the possession by individuals and families of relatively low resources does not automatically mean they are in poverty unless they are unable to have the types of diets, participate in the activities and have the living conditions and amenities that are customary in that society. Thus, according to him, poverty can be seen as inequities in the distribution of resources including income, capital assets, occupational fringe benefits, current public services and current private services.

However, Jegga et al (2002) defines poverty as the totality of a state of being where individuals, households or communities are unable to fulfil the basic necessities of life such as food, including water, clothing and shelter as well as other economic and social obligations. Similarly, Johnson (1966) defined poverty as "a situation when the resources of individuals or families are inadequate to provide a socially acceptable standard of living." In other words, the individuals live below the conventional poverty line demarcating the poor from the non-poor. From the definitions of poverty we observed that most of the perceptions of the

concept concentrate on the economic/financial aspect of individuals' lives that indicate their ability to maintain a given standard of living. This is to say that, their perceptions are narrow as other indicators such as health and education which form part of living standard are not adequately taken care of.

However, Iyayi (2005:51), sees poverty as a state of deprivation in the means needed to sustain life at some level of human dignity. According to Alubo (2005:22), Poverty refers to life experience/existence in which people lack food (either because they have none at all or they eat whatever they can to keep alive), shelter (as defined by standard in the community), clothing as well as opportunity to respond to challenges. In line with this, FOS (1992), defined poverty as "not having enough to eat, a high rate of infant mortality, a low life expectancy, low educational opportunities, poor water, inadequate healthcare, unfit housing and a lack of active participation in the decision making processes. These definitions are of course broader in scope as they embrace other issues apart of the economic aspects of poverty such as issues of participation in decision making and educational issues.

The Encyclopaedia Britannica sees poverty as "the condition that is said to exist when people lack the means to satisfy their basic needs." In this context, the identification of poor people then first requires a determination of what constitutes basic needs. These may be defined as narrowly as "those prevailing standard of living in the community." The first criterion will cover only those people near the border line of starvation or death from exposure; the second will

extend to people whose nutrition, housing and clothing though adequate to preserve life, do not measure up to those of the population as a whole.

However, Imam (2001), observed that poverty denotes more than a condition of material scarcity and is characterized by unemployment, low per-capital income, low calorie intake, high incidence of child labour, high level of infant and maternal mortality and low life expectancy. This perception captures some of the visible variables in the definition of poverty. Ramon, (2002) defines Poverty as a phenomenon which makes a substantial number of people uncomfortable, absence of opportunities, accompanied by high levels of undernourishment, hunger, illiteracy, lack of education, physical and mental ailment, emotional and social instability, unhappiness sorrow and hopelessness of future. Also, the African Development Bank (ADB) (1995) sees poverty as the state of deprivation of fundamental needs and expectations. Among these are the shelter, good health, long life, knowledge and the capacity to provide materially for oneself and family through productive endeavour. Poverty therefore is far more than lack of income, although that is the most typical measure. Poverty can thus be said to be a state of deprivation, in terms of both economic and social indicators, such as income, education, healthcare, and access to food, social status, self esteem and self-actualization.

Rowntree in 1899, according to Atkinson (1975) remarked that a family was considered to be poor if its total earnings were insufficient to obtain the minimum necessities for the maintenance of merely physical needs efficiently. Most

definitions of poverty fall within these perceptions, with the unit of analysis being the family or household. Also Johnson (1996) sees poverty as "existing when resources of families or individuals are inadequate to provide a socially acceptable standard of living" (see also FOS, 1997, CBN, 1999 and World Bank, 2000). Poverty from this definition entails a situation of inadequacy of income or resources needed to support a minimum standard of living. However, this position lives a doubt as what specific factors are required for a socially acceptable standard of living. It also raised some key issues; how do we measure standard of living what is the minimum standard of living? How do we express severity of poverty in a single index? (Olusi, 2001:175). The Human Development Index used by the United Nations Development Programmes (UNDP) in preparing its reports has helped in a large way to address these issues.

There are however, three broad categories of poverty, absolute poverty, relative poverty and subjective poverty. Subjective poverty which is the most recent category is less widely used.

(i) **Absolute Poverty**: It means lack of resources to buy a bundle of goods and services, such a bundle of goods and services may contain what could be considered as an objective minimum which includes basic necessities such as food, shelter, clothing etc. Tow basic questions arise from this objective definition first what do we included in this objective minimum? Second how do we set minimum standard for basic necessities like clothing and transportation etc. which may depend on individual taste and the

prevailing socio-economic conditions within a given society? Even if they agree on a certain minimum bundle of goods and services such a minimum may not be relevant over time even when we adjust for price change. Absolute poverty also has been defined by the appropriate maximum which refers to the maximum proportion of income that a family spends on certain subsistence goods (Watts, 1947), for example, if a family or household spends more than the specified maximum share of their income on basic needs such as foods, housing, health care etc, then they are considered poor. Obadan (2003:57).

(ii) **Relative Poverty**: Relative definition of poverty compare the welfare of those with the lowest amount of resources with others in the society – for example a level of income below say 40, 50 or 60 percent of the average or medium income of the population. Other researchers define relative poverty in relation to the bottom 10, 15 or 20 percent of the income distribution. Other studies have used relative shares of expenditure/ consumption instead of income. Although a relative measure of poverty takes into consideration changes in living standards, it also poses serious problems, particularly in policy implementation. Relative measures of poverty have been criticized for being too much of moving target. Not only is it difficult to reduce relative poverty, it is also almost impossible to assess the effectiveness of transfer programmes. In addition, establishing the cut-off income/expenditure is quite arbitrary, Obadan (2003:57)

(iii) **Subjective Poverty:** This definition of poverty requires individuals (including the poor) to define what they consider to be decent or minimally adequate standard of living. Such definitions are complex to apply because of the divergence in responses given the difference in individual utility functions and circumstance. Obadan (2003:57).

As extracted from Mato (2008), the prevalence of both relative and absolute poverty is duly recognized and even mentioned in various National Developments Plans (1975, 1980). Concern for poverty scourge received a further boost during the 1975 Annual Conference of the Nigerian Economic Society (NES) and during the 1997 Annual Conference of the same NES. The 1975 NES conference was devoted entirely to sensitizing the nation to the poverty menace view that poverty existed when incomes or disposable resources were inadequate to support a minimum standard of decent living. Some of the components of living were specified in the individual papers and more importantly the urban poverty was well enlightened. While the 1997 Annual Conference was devoted to impact of Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) on poverty in Nigeria and different methods of alleviating poverty in Nigeria. It was agreed that majority of those who are poor are not producers themselves. This group of people forms part of dependent population because they have no direct earnings of the type typically evaluated in distribution studies. And partly there is no guarantee that an increased income would be spent on essential services. Therefore, it was agreed upon that improvement is basic needs such as medical, housing, education;

regular access to nutritional food and so on remains the best option. Dudley (1975) sees poverty largely in the light of the need for personal growth in Nigeria. According to him, the basic needs, which any society should provide for its members should include such things as food, clothing, shelter, education, health, work and mobility. He provided some basic indicators of the state basic services especially in relation to the poor in Nigeria. Most of the discussion was at a national aggregate level. Other than showing the general adverse situation in the rural and urban areas, inequality, potable water supply, he also refers to issues of nutrition, for instance, it was stated that 30 percent of the households in Oyo State are malnourished. He also stated that in Lagos State more than 72 percent of the households live in one-room houses.

Sometimes, attention is drawn to the relative of poverty and a clear distinction is drawn between the poor and non-poor. To demonstrate the practical aspect of the concept of poverty, three sets of ratios based on the level of consumption were constructed by the World Bank in 1997. These are the so-called P – alpha ratios, showing (i) the head – count ratio, the proportion of the population for whom consumption falls below the poverty line, (ii) the depth of poverty, which is obtained by multiplying head count ratio by the proportion of the population deemed to be poor; and (iii) the severity of poverty, obtained by squaring gap between the incomes of the poor; and the poverty line, and also taking into account income distribution.

Based on these concepts, Anyanwu, (1997) categorised the following as poor, especially within the Nigerian context:

(a) households or individuals below the poverty line and whose incomes are insufficient to provide for their basic needs;

(b) households or individuals lacking access to basic services, political contracts and other forms of support;

(c) people in isolated rural areas who lack essential infrastructures;

(d) female headed households whose nutritional needs are not being met adequately;

(e) persons who have lost their jobs and those who are unable to find employment as a result of economic reform under Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAP) and those who are in danger of becoming the 'new poor', and

(f) Ethnic minorities who are marginalized, deprived and persecuted economically, socially, cultural and politically.

However, poverty of a household can be considered on the basis of its consumption. Hence, a poor household is that where total consumption is below a minimum specified level. Hence, the World Bank (2000) used monetary income as a proxy to consumption to identify poverty. Glewwe and Hall (1998) specifically viewed poverty on the vulnerability of households to declining consumption following economic shock. The elegance of Glewwe and Hall's view is the vulnerability factor identified as a good determinant of poverty. Sen (1999)

focused on the psychological aspect of poverty by describing poor people as those who live without fundamental freedoms of action and choices that the better off take for granted. Filmer (1999) related poverty to social factors such as bearing children on the streets, lack of privacy, dignity, and seeming lack of opportunity to participate in the decisions that attracts the life of the poor. In line with this, UNDP (1997) say poverty as a situation where there is a denial of choice and opportunities to take along, healthy and creative life, and to enjoy a decent standard of living , freedom, dignity, self esteem and the respect of others. Hence, the World Bank (2000) saw poverty as lack of resources, insecurity and vulnerability, powerlessness and low esteem and exclusion.

Expressing poverty from the gender dimensions, the World Bank (1999:12) states that "in some instances the gender dimensions of powerlessness were articulated, with implications for women and men, boys and girls, it went further to illustrate with one Ayakale Odogun in Nigeria where "poor households were seen to be characterized by the inability of men to fulfil their role as provider". According to OECD (2000:32), the "processes causing poverty affect men and women in different ways and degree. Female poverty is more prevalent and typical more severe than male poverty". It stated that women 'suffer violence by men on a large scale. They are more likely to be illiterate as well as politically and socially excluded in their communities. Hence, abilities of women to overcome poverty are generally different from those of men". There is also gender-related 'time poverty'. According to OECD (2000:32), this refers to the lack of time for all

tasks imposed on women, for rest and for economic, social and political activities. Hence, poverty is symbolic feature of the state of disempowerment of women the world over (World Bank, 1999: OECD 2000). Women are more vulnerable than men to extremes of poverty and its consequences. To the extent that poverty is being described as having feminine face with severe consequences for infant mortality and mobility (Bardhan 1996, Moshen, 1991: Todaro 1991). It is an important additional burden, which in many societies is due to structural gender inequality – a disparity that has different means for women and men. It is necessary to view poverty from all-inclusive to enable adequate and effective polices to be formulated and implemented. In this vein, the World Bank Report of 1990 adopted a view of poverty that covered various aspects of deprivation as "encompassing not only material deprivation (measured by an appropriate concept of income or consumption) but also low achievements in education and health".

Ajakaye and Adeyeye (2001:6) noted that social science is replete with many attempts to conceptualise poverty but four basic ways have come out as:

I. Lack of access to basic needs/goods such as nutrition, shelter/housing, water, health care, access to productive resources including education, working skills and tools, political and civil rights to participate in decisions concerning socio-economic conditions.

II. Lack of or impaired access to productive resources like agricultural land and financial assets are precursors to low income, unemployment among

others. Impaired access to resources curtails the capabilities of individuals to convert available productive resources to a higher quality of life.

III. Poverty could also be a result of inadequate infrastructure, low access to credit and availability technology, weak policy environment among several others.

IV. Poverty could also be due to certain powerful people within the system using certain criteria to exclude certain groups from participating in economic development.

Therefore, based on the analysis of the definition of poverty put forward by different authorities we should see that most of the contributions tend to define poverty in terms of total income rather than consumption. The use of this index in understanding poverty is more applicable to the advanced economy/countries. This is because income which is taken as a proxy for the standard of living is seen as intrinsically preferable as an indicator of sources in the measurement of poverty. It is important to realize that neither household income nor consumption captures other dimensions of welfare needs of the poor such as wealth, life expectancy and access to public goods. Thus, using money income alone ignores other essential aspects of deprivation such as poor quality, housing, schools, health care and other environmental inequalities. Thus, Poverty conception should embrace both material and non-material aspects of human life.

2.2.3: Causes of Poverty

Like its definition, the causes of poverty also varies according to Perception by gender, age, culture, status, location and other social and economic contexts. According to Narayan (2000), person's status and location affect his perception of the causes of poverty. In Madagascar for example, farmers link poverty to drought while the urban poor linked it to the rising prices and fewer employment opportunities. The rich however linked it to be caused by deterioration in domestic and international terms of trade, neglect of Malagasy traditions and norms, lack of motivation among certain classes and groups of people, price liberalization and devaluation, lack of education and absence of government.

The understanding of the causes of poverty is very important to its alleviation, just like the diagnosis of an ailment is to the treatment of a disease. However, in most cases writers tend to discuss causes of poverty mostly from the view point of their areas of profession, region, culture or gender.

Many causes of poverty identified by the poor ranged from unemployment to lack of social services and infrastructures and to issues of weak social capital. Lack of water, unemployment, limited access to education, health facilities and productive inputs and markets are the major problems of other urban and rural poor. The poor recognizes their vulnerability to shocks – the death of a bread winner, harvest problems, weather changes, divorce, widowhood and even changes in government policy (such as the devaluation of naira) as well as their lack of access to justice and vulnerability to corruption, violence and crime. They

therefore invest in ownership of assets – houses, farms and farms input or insurance – savings, investments, children and membership of local organisations (See World Bank Voices of the Poor, Narayan et al, 2000).

According to Igbuzor (2008), poverty in Nigeria is caused by the factors as: unstable political history; lack of accountability; mismanagement and corruption; poor administration of Justice, poor policy formulation, implementation and evaluation; lack of involvement of the poor; dependence of the economy on oil; poor economic policies and management; poor revenue allocation and distribution; ethnic and religious conflict and poor infrastructure.

However, Johnson (1974) came up with two conceptual causes of poverty, namely:

(a) the factors which make the number of individuals in the consuming unit (individual or family/household) large relative to the amount of productive services the unit is able to supply, and

(b) Those which make the value of the productive services the household can supply low relative to the household's need.

Under the first category of factors, Johnson mentioned excessive family size in relation to income as an example. While the second category he listed factors including chronic obsolescence of acquired human skills, mental or physical incapacity and discrimination in terms of age, colour, race or sex.

Galbraich (1971) made a cursory observation on the causes of poverty in the three regions of the developing world, the sub-Saharan Africa, Latin America

and Asia. For sub-Sahara Africa, he ascribes poverty to the absence of opportunity rather than absence of aptitude as the countries of this region have had only a few years of independence to face the task of economic development. He observed that in this region, people with requisite education, training, and honesty for performing public tasks are unavailable. Consequently, taxes are collected in haphazard or arbitrary fashion and public funds are spent inefficiently or for no particular purpose except the reward of the recipients. He sees this situation as a potential source of instability, as those who do not have access to public income will have a strong incentive to seek out those who do. Furthermore, he noted that law enforcement in sub-Saharan Africa was unreliable and essential public services, which exist, could only make primitive local trade flourish with the attendant handicaps. But modern large, technically advanced corporate enterprises, which require more, demanding environment for the protection of their personnel and property cannot operate, because their business cannot be transacted in the absence of (efficient) postal services, telephones, security and common carrier transportation.

Babalola (2007); and Ekpo and Uwatt (2005), argued that causes of poverty in Nigeria are many including inadequate growth rate of the GDP, volatility of the oil sector, high unemployment rate, limited growth of infrastructure and technological innovations, low labour absorptions capacity, heavy dependence on imports, low saving propensity, growing income inequality, decline in the living

standard of pensioners, governance problems limited effectiveness of past poverty alleviation measures, and internal conflicts.

World Bank (1996) also argued that low human capacity endowment, destruction of natural resources resulting in environmental degradation, poor maintenance culture, corruption and political instability. Others are inadequate access to employment, physical assets, market, means of supporting assistant to those living at the margin and those victimized by transitory poverty.

Poverty is also caused by lack of income and assets to attain basic necessities; a sense of voicelessness and powerlessness in the institutions of state society, and vulnerability to adverse shocks linked to an inability to cope with them (Bassey, Umobong and Usoro, 2008).

Poverty is, at its roots, bred by unequal power relations, the structural and systematic allocation of resources among different group in the society and their differential access to power and the political process (Salihu, 2005).

In explaining the causes or root of poverty however, Iyayi (2005;55) expressed that the core variables that explain the root of poverty can be seen as natural and social context. The natural context describes the extent to which nature endows people with the means for meeting their needs. In this case, poverty arise when the land is barren and hold no material that have value for exchange indicating that apart of the people endowed to the land there is virtually no resources. The social context of the roots of poverty describes those conditions that are created in the course of human interaction in society. The conditions

include the relationship that people have to the means of production, distribution and exchanges; the role that they play in the production system as a result of that relationship and their share of the joint product as an outcome of that role.

Shehu, (2005) sees the causes of poverty to have covered wide spectrum of factors including environmental causes, poor performance of institution, gender` and age, past history of Nigeria that sowed the seeds of inequality, laziness of some poor to exploit some opportunities. According to Nnamdi (2006), what is regarded as cause of poverty in a certain situation may just be a manifestation of it or an aggregation of an already inherent poverty. It is useful to consider the major factors that generate and sustain poverty within two broad groupings.

(i) Those that can be attributed to the level and rate of economic growth and the distribution of material income; and

(ii) Those that form market imperfections in all its ramifications.

Factors in the first group include:

a) Low national savings and hence investment;

b) Sustenance orientation of production;

c) Static technology

d) Limited infrastructure, especially for human capital development;

e) Unchecked population growth; and

f) Unequal distribution of wealth and other productive assets.

Factors in the second group include;

a) Resource misallocation;

b) Factor immobility;

c) Certain cultural practices;

d) Institutional rigidities;

e) Environmental degradation; and

f) Attitudes.

Furthermore, Ohale (1998), summarised the causes of povery into two categories as follows:

i. Instability of certain key people in the family to get or hold steady well-paying job. This may be due to lack of expansion of productive activities in the economy and under capacity utilisation due to excessive dependence on foreign inputs. Allied to the above is the lack of relevant education, skills or talents needed by the existing jobs; and

ii. Economic forces and changes in labour requirement. For example, inflation reduces the quantity of goods and services a given income can purchase and leads to poverty intensification. The structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) and the fiscal and monetary policies of the government including the exchange rate measures, had served to fuel inflation and worsen poverty situation in the country.

In a study carried out by the Central Bank of Nigeria in collaboration with the World Bank (1999), tagged "Nigeria's Development Prospects: Poverty Assessment and Alleviation Study ". The causes of poverty was summarised as

follows; the stage of economic and social development; low productivity, market imperfections, physical or environmental degradation; structural shift in the economy; inadequate commitment to programme implementation; political instability; and corruption.

The various causes of poverty highlighted above are prevalent in Nigeria; hence the problem is very serious, in spite of the country's vast resources. The causes are complex and the consequences often reinforce the causes, leading to further impoverishment.

Several factors acting alone or in combination have accounted for poverty in the Less – Developed Countries (LDCs) which include Nigeria and other sub-Saharan African SSA countries. These factors included: Low savings and investments; Weak institutions of government; Poor infrastructure and structural weaknesses in the economy; High population growth outstripping low income; High external dependence; Political and social instability which manifest in social strife; Lack of technological capacity to deal with environmental challenges like disease epidemics, floods, drought, pest outbreaks etc.; adverse effects of globalization in terms of capital flight vis-a-vis inflow of capital. Capital flight stock in Nigeria estimated at US$100bn more than twice the size of Nigeria GDP.

The CBN (1999:13) provided a summary of the causative factors of poverty as: Low productivity; Market imperfection; Physical imperfection; Structural shift in the economy; Inadequate Commitment to Programme Implementation; Political instability; and Corruption. These causative factors are usually crisscrossed or

intertwined. For instance, most of the causes could be linked to or stemmed from corruption. Aliyu (2003), linked political instability in Africa to corruption when he stated that, "IN Africa illegal take over of government through military coup, embezzlement, nepotism, looting, bribery, vote buying and abuse of office are very common." In fact, Nigeria has, in the recent times, assumed an unenviable position of the most corrupt country in the world. Corruption has not only been institutionalised but also assumed a national dimension. This has eaten deep into the fabrics of the society and accounts for the reason why efforts so far made for alleviating or reducing poverty has not yielded much results why efforts so far made for alleviating or reducing poverty has not yielded much results as through it, the bulk of the nation's wealth have been distributed in favour of the few privileged to the detriment of the majority of Nigerian's who continually wallow in abject poverty.

In a study conducted by NBS (2005), the poor rated what they perceived as the causes of poverty among them. The major factor that causes poverty in Nigeria according to the report is high cost of agricultural inputs. Other factors included lack of capital to expand own business; lack of credit facilities; lack of employment opportunities and lack of adequate land among others (see appendix 16)

However, the World Bank (2001:34) argued that "one route of investigating the causes of poverty is to examine the dimensions highlighted by poor people". These are put as follows:

i. Lack of income and assets to attain basic necessities – food, shelter, clothing and acceptable levels of health and education;

ii. Sense of voicelessness and powerlessness in the institutions of state and society; and

iii. Vulnerability to adverse shocks, linked to an inability to cope with them."

iv. On the other hand, Federal Office of Statistics in its publications; Socio Economic Profile of Nigeria (1996:109) was definite in categorizing the causes of poverty in Nigeria into problems of access and endowments such as:

v. Inadequate access to employment oppor4tunites for the poor. This often caused by the stunted growth of economic activities or growth with labour saving devices;

vi. Lack or inadequate access to assets such as land capital by the poor; this is often attributed to the absence of land reform and minimal opportunities for small-credit;

vii. Inadequate access to the means of fostering rural development in poor regions; the preference for high potential areas and the strong urban bias in the design of development programmes is often assumed to be its primary cause;

viii. Inadequate access to markets for the goods and services that the poor can sell: this is caused by their remote geographic location or other factors.

ix. Inadequate access to education, health, sanitation and water services. This emanates from inequitable social service delivery, which consequently results in the inability of the poor to live a healthy and active life and take full advantage of employments, which has led to reduce productivity in agriculture, forestry and fisheries. This often resulted from the desperate survival strategies of the poor as well as inadequate and ineffective public policy on natural resource management.

x. The inadequate access to assistance by those who are the victims of transitory poverty such as drought, floods, pests and war. This is brought about by lack of well conceived strategies and resources; and

xi. Inadequate involvement of the poor in the design of development programmes. This is often exacerbated by the non-involvement of the representatives of the poor communities or beneficiaries in the discussion, preparation, design and implementation of programmes that will affect them.

The causes of poverty above indeed reflect the multi dimensional nature of poverty.

However, other causes of poverty include mass illiteracy. As educational levels determine access to employment, low levels of education or the lack of it limits the ability of individuals to seek well-paid jobs. Illiterates usually settle for menial job and earn wages that cannot meet their personal and family's minimum needs. The excessive size and growth rates of poverty also prospects for

education of the children could be limited also unless primary education is universally provided. They imply family sizes that are generally tool large for affordable resources. They imply afford a high dependency ratio which affects the consumption levels and savings of the household.

Low levels of access to basic facilities are a direct result of the nature of income distribution, which is heavily weighted against majority in the country. There is a glaring uneven distribution of productive resources and assets among the people. One of the market-imperfection causes of poverty in Nigeria is misallocation of resources. For instance, misallocation of educational resources to the detriment of a larger section of the society or in favour of the wrong type of training causes and aggravates poverty in Nigeria.

Poverty is also aggravated by factor immobility or people's unwillingness to move from an area of low opportunities to an area of better prospects for self improvement either by training or geographic mobility. One explanation for factors immobility as the weight of family obligations, as a result of the extended family system, which is also a potent cause of poverty in Nigeria but which should be examined for its potentials as a source of institutional support for the poor in the family.

Another major cause of poverty is ironically the role and attitude of government which causes and aggravates poverty in several ways. Most government programmes appear to be class biased and exploitative with no commitment to solving the poverty menace. Government often lacks the political

will to act decisively in defense of the rights of the poor. This situation is not made any better by the lack of cohesion on the part of the poor themselves. They are, therefore conveniently abandoned economically, socially, culturally and politically. The poor in general, lack political power due mainly to illiteracy. This severely hampers their access to and communication with decision makes. There is for instance total lack of community leadership sufficiently dedicated to the welfare of the poor. Discrimination also creates poverty. Unequal opportunities are given to some people to participate in the production process on the basis of sex, age and ethnic considerations.

Certain cultural practical also cause and sustain poverty. The extended family system mentioned earlier tends to favour rapid population growth. It ensures a low opportunity cost of raising children in the traditional sitting where members of the extended family share the associated burden. Obadan (2003:66-70).

Aliyu (2002:30), cited other factors as effects of globalization, governance, corruption, debt burden, low productivity, and host of others as causes of property.

The World Bank in its study; *Consultation with the Poor* (1999:17) posits that, "the impact of a range of possible shocks, trends and cycles were seen to be important influence on local vulnerability and helped to differentiate the vulnerability from the more secure". The report went further to state that "the risks were linked to a number of key aspects of security that affected the poor at

different levels of social organization, from the individual to household to entire communities". Specifically, the report linked poverty in some instances to some perceived pathologies such as reckless spending and non-payment of compensation for land acquired by government.

As Bardham (1996) pointed that even when the state allocates a significant part of its budget for anti-poverty programmes, often very little reaches the real poor. He argues that the anomalies occurs because there is no organized pressure from the intended beneficiaries – (the poor) – and the programmes are administered by a distant uncoordinated and corrupt bureaucracy which is unaccountable to the rural poor and insensitive to their need.

Another causative factor of poverty in Nigeria is the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank. One may view this as an irony of fate because both institutions are involved in efforts toward reducing poverty. In fact, the World Bank has sponsored so many researches on poverty and its reduction strategies. It has also elevated the issue of poverty and its reduction to a level of global consciousness where government, NGOs and individuals are being sensitised to the consequences of poverty and the need to make concerted efforts towards tackling the malaise. The SAP, in spite of its promise to stem the decline in the country fortunes and restore the economy to the path of growth, it simply led to decline, thereby becoming an integral factor in the continuation of the national economic crises. The massive and repeated devaluation of the naira, side by side with the liberalisation of prices, interest rates

and trade, as well as spirited efforts to curb public expenditures and reduce costs, had the net effect of further weaken the national manufacturing capacity. This eroded what was left of the social gains of the post-independence period in all departments and diminished the capacity of the state to deliver public goods.

2.2.4 Measurement of Poverty

Measurement of poverty emphasizes on indicators of economic performance as well as the standard of living of the population. They combine measures of income or purchasing power or consumption with those social indicators which highlight availability and access to healthcare delivery, education, basic infrastructure and access to other welfare-enhancing facilities in order to define the incidence of poverty (how many are poor), the intensity or severity of poverty (how poor are they) and the distribution of poverty within a population.

Many scholars have attempted the provision of criteria for assessing or measuring poverty. For instance, Okoh (1998), in his studies on poverty measurement concentrate on three major issues as follows:

(a) The determination of a yardstick for assessing living standard.

(b) Defining a poverty line

(c) Constructing an appropriate poverty profile.

Poverty lines and profiles can be compiled from different data sources. The most important consideration in assembling such data is to obtain information, which will be useful for policy analysis. Information on household income or consumption levels, employment, occupational status, education,

nutritional and health status, non-farm income, assets, housing facilities etc. can be obtained from household surveys. Community surveys are also useful sources of information for poverty profile construction. A number of important components, which affect the standard of living, include markets for labour and commodities consumed by the poor, access to clean water, sanitation, health, education and transportation. Administrative surveys and institutional surveys (schools, health centres, markets, and so on) are also useful sources of information; an eclectic approach could also be used to obtain data. In many developing countries where up-to-date and comprehensive household data are not available, data is sometimes obtained from micro surveys in the various relevant sectors of markets, agriculture and urban and rural casual labour may provide rough estimates of income. Setting or defining the poverty line, a tool for measuring poverty, is usually the starting point in poverty measurement. It is often based on income or consumption data and represents the level of income that categorizes the household of a particular size, place and time into poor or non-poor. Okoh (1998), it is also intended to designate equivalent levels of deprivation (Watt, 1977). According to the World Bank (1993), poverty lines can be set in relative or absolute terms. Relative poverty assesses the position of an individual or household in comparison with the average income in the country, while absolute poverty is the position of an individual or household in relation to a poverty line whose real value is fixed over time. Poverty lines also establish the

welfare comparability of nominal expenditure or income across the poverty profile (Ravallion and Bidani, 1994).

Income-based measures frequently used include GNP per capita, the purchasing power of real GDP per capita, etc. The need to specify benchmarks against which individual regional and national measures of poverty can be compared has led to the construction of poverty lines which represents the value of basic (food and non-food) needs considered essential for meeting the minimum socially-acceptable standard of living within a given society. Thus, any individual whose income or consumption falls below the poverty line is regarded as poor and the national poverty rate is the percentage of the population of a country living below the poverty line for that country. Similarly, separate urban and rural poverty lines may be constructed since the cost of living in the rural areas tends to be cheaper than in urban areas. From these, the corresponding urban poverty rates and rural poverty rates may be derived.

However, poverty lines will necessarily differ from country to country depending on general price levels, the tradable/non-tradable mix in basic needs, exchange rates etc. Hence at the international level, there is an international poverty line of US$1.0 a day, expressed in 1985 international prices, and adjusted to local currencies using purchasing power parity exchange rates is ₦395. With per capita income of $240, Nigeria is one of the poorest countries in the world in spite of its enormous human and natural resources, because the living standard of the generality of its people falls below the poverty level.

According to Abdullahi (1999), the criteria for measuring or assessing poverty naturally vary from place to place according to the overall level of development of the people. In some parts of Nigeria, poverty is measured in terms of lack of ownership of fertile farmland, food, money and housing. In some other parts, the lack of infrastructural facilities such as access roads, pipe borne water, schools, hospitals, electricity, telecommunication services and agricultural services are considered as more attributes of poverty. At some other instances, a common criterion is the total amount of earnings that accrue to the individual within, say, the year. He however, argues that in situations, as we have in Nigeria, where income, particularly salaries and wages, is not responsive to inflation, the use of earning, as an indicator of poverty may be grossly misleading. He however, concluded that the purchasing power is a better criterion for assessing poverty. Here, purchasing power is defined as net income over a period of time normalized by the rate of inflation over the same period. In Nigeria, the purchasing power of the citizens reached a peak value in the mid 1970s after which it underwent rapid decline until recently when positive measures are recorded. According to him, parameters such as income size and purchasing power assess poverty at the level of the individual while the standard of living is better suited for assessing poverty at the communal or national level. Indeed, disparity in the average standard of living is a main distinguishing factor between the developed (or rich) and developing (or poor) countries of the world. And that was the reason that all purposeful government continuously strive to improve and

raise the standard of living of its people by providing adequate infrastructural facilities and social amenities.

The standard of living is another important index employed in the distinction between the poor and non-poor. It has too aspects; total household income and the social milieu in which the household is situated. Data on expenditure tend to be more reliable indicator of well being than income; these are complemented with social indicators like life expectancy, infant mortality, nutrition, literacy and access to primary education, healthcare and safe drinking water. However, due to problems of aggregation and comparability, most poverty lines are based solely on income or consumption data (World Bank, 1993). A study may define individual or multiple poverty and different economic or environmental conditions (Gillespie, 1990).

Apart from using a poverty line, other poverty indices are used to measure the incidence, intensity and severity of poverty. They include the headcount index, the poverty gap index, and the squared poverty gap index.

The headcount index computes the percentage of households with consumption per capital below the poverty line. It measures the incidence and magnitude of poverty. This index has the advantage of being easy to compute and interpret. It does not, however, provide much information about the depth or severity of poverty (Gillespie, 1990, Ravallion and Bidani, 1994).

The poverty gap index measures the income shortfall below the poverty line, that is, the amount required to bring the poor above the poverty line. It is

defined by the mean distance below the poverty line as a proportion of that line. It measures the depth or intensity of poverty. Thus, it has an advantage over the headcount index (Gillespie, 1990, Ravallion and Bidani, 1994, Ravallion and Sen, 1994).

The squared poverty-gap index devised by Foster, Greer and Thorbecke (1984) is the mean of the squared proportionate poverty gaps formed over the entire population counting the non-poor as having a zero poverty gap. This index indicates the severity of poverty, in the sense that it is sensitive to inequality amongst the poor (Ravallion and Bidani, 1994, Ravallion and Sen, 1994). This method is said to be more computationally convenient in normalisation, as it implies that the aggregate measure across any number of subgroups is simply the population weighted mean of the subgroup values of the poverty gap. The additively property also guarantees that measure poverty is subgroup monotonic, i.e., if poverty increases or decreases (Ravallion et al, 1991).

The social indicators of poverty measure the availability and access to health, education and welfare facilities as well as basic infrastructure. The health indicators include those of life expectancy at birth, mortality rates across the age-segments of the population, prevalence of malnutrition, percentage of the population with access to healthcare, safe water and sanitation. They also include the number of hospital beds and physicians per unit of population, availability of reproductive health facilities and access to child immunisation. For education, the ratios computed are literacy rates, and gross and net enrolment ratios at the

primary, secondary and tertiary educational levels, disaggregated by gender, and expressed as a percentage of the relevant age group within the population. Measures of basic infrastructure include supply of electric power, telephones, tarred roads, railways, air traffic etc, per unit of population. Social indicator data may be obtained from sectoral ministries in the country, and from United Nations (UN) sources such as, the World Bank 's Economic and Social Data Base and annual publications by the Food and Agriculture Organization(FAO), UNESCO, The World Health Organization(WHO) and the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF).

Finally, a recent development in computing indicators of poverty is the initiative of UNDP to provide a composite quantitative measure of both the economic and the social indicators of human development called the Human Development Index (HDI). The HDI combines a measure of purchasing power with measures of physical health and educational attainment to indicate progress or retrogression in human life. The building blocks of the HDI are data on longevity, knowledge and income. Longevity is measured solely by life expectancy at birth, while knowledge is measured by the adult literacy rate and means years of schooling weighted at 2:1 respectively. For income, purchasing power parity (PPP) (based on real GDP per capita adjusted for the local cost of living) is used. These three measures are combined in a 3-step process to arrive at an average index. The HDI sets a minimum rate for each measure, and then shows where each country stands in relation to this range, expressed as a value between 0 and

1. The main limitation of the HDI as a composite socio-economic indicator is the fact that, like all averages, it conceals the wide distribution inequalities within a population.

2.2.5: Incidence of Poverty in Nigeria

In Nigeria, the incidence of poverty has over the years been evidently documented to be on a negative track. The rate of poverty among the populace has empirically shown increase from about 28.1% in 1980 to 46.3% in 1985 and about 65.6% in 1996. The percentage of the Nigerians in poverty as at 1999 constituted about 70% of the entire population. In fact, as at 2007, the 2007/2008 Human development Report expressed that not fewer than 70.8% of the Nigerian populace lived below the poverty line (see appendices 4A and 4B).

However, understanding the incidence of poverty in the country requires understanding of the poverty trends in various dimensions such as sector (urban/rural), occupations, geopolitical zones, states, gender, and occupation among others.

The incidence of poverty is predominant, depth and severe in the rural areas than the urban sector. In 1980, the incidence in the rural area was put at about 28.3% of the rural populace while at the same time was put at 17.2% of the urban households. In 2004, the figures reveal a 20 percentage point gap between the poverty incidence of the urban and rural households. While 43 % of urban households are poor, 63.8 of the rural households are poor. This is a reflection of the disparities in the access to opportunities and infrastructure among

the different households (See Appendices 5a and 5B).

However, data on poverty profile in the rural area in 2004 reveal that about 44.4 % cannot meet the food expenditure requirements while 19.38 % of the households, although could meet the food expenditure requirements are unable to meet the minimum expenditure to cover other basic needs. In the case of the urban households, it is only 26.7 % of the households that could not meet the required expenditure on food while 16.4 % of the households are moderately poor since they can meet food expenditure but not other non-food basic needs expenditure (see Appendix 5C).

Geopolitically, The Northeast zone had a higher incidence of poverty followed by Northwest and North central for the period, 1980-2004. For the southern zone, poverty increased from 1980 to 1996, but dropped in 2004, apart from the South-south zone that had a drop in 1992. Thus, when considering the six geo-political zones and the specific poverty incidence we can see from Appendix 6B that the North East has the highest poverty incidence in the country while the South East has the least poverty incidence. In addition, more than half of Nigerians living in the northern and the South-South zones are poor. Factors responsible to this based on the NBS (2007) Poverty assessment report are illiteracy, low productivity, poor road transportation, lack of government presence and unemployment as causes of poverty in the northern part of Nigeria. As for the South South, social instability, poor local governance, competition for economic

resources and environmental degradation are the key drivers of poverty (See appendix 6A).

The incidence of poverty among Nigerian states over the years also revealed variations in terms of severity, depth, and gap. In 1996, the states with high incidence of poverty in the country were Zamfara and Sokoto followed by Bauchi while Bayelsa and Rivers have the least incidence. In 2004, Jigawa has the highest poverty head-count among the States, at 90.9 per cent and Oyo the lowest, at 21.0 per cent (See appendix 7D). But, when population shares are taken into consideration, Lagos State has the largest number of poor people (7.9 per cent) and FCT has the lowest (0.7 per cent) as shown in Appendices 7A, 7B and 7C.

Based on the Poverty Survey conducted by NBS (2007), the poverty incidence by State reveals the differences in the well-being of the people across the States. For example, Jigawa has the highest poverty incidence (91 per cent), while Oyo has the lowest (21 per cent). In addition, the first eleven States with the highest poverty incidence are from the north. As for the depth and severity, Kogi ranks highest, while Oyo has the lowest. The likely reasons for the high poverty levels in Jigawa and Kogi are heavy reliance on agriculture, high level of unemployment and low level of human capital development. On the other hand, the low poverty incidence recorded for Oyo is basically from the lower cost of living when compared to other States of the country. Food prices, transportation

fares and accommodation rents are relatively low in Oyo State, including Ibadan, the capital.

Also, by ranking the States on three indicators: incidence of poverty, the poverty gap and inequality, there is an overlap, but it is interesting to note that a State such as Lagos, which ranks 11th in terms of poverty incidence, ranks 5th in terms of the poverty gap and 1st in terms of inequality. Also, some States such as Benue with lower-than-average levels of poverty incidence have high levels of inequality (See Appendix 7E). More so, Appendix 7F shows the same indicators for the States with the lowest poverty incidence, poverty gap and inequality. The depth of poverty is clearly the least in those states with the lowest poverty incidence, meaning that even those below the poverty line are not as far below as in other States. Again, inequality is not necessarily linked to poverty levels, with Kebbi and Zamfara, both among the poorest States having low levels of inequality and Borno and Ebonyi [both with lower than average poverty levels] also having low levels of inequality.

Poverty assessment survey of the NBS (2005) and NBS (2007), in Nigeria also revealed disparities in terms of severity, depth and gap of poverty among the households with more incidences on households having large number. Appendix 8A shows from 1980 to 2004, poverty increases with the size of the household. House hold with less than five members are likely not to be in poverty.

Studies on poverty revealed that there seems to be a direct link between poverty and household size, as is commonly found in many SSA countries.

Households with the least size tend to have the least poverty incidence on the average; and households with the largest size have the highest poverty incidence since this is based on per capita expenditure. Appendix 8B shows that households with 20 persons and above have the highest poverty incidence, depth and severity while those with one person have the least poverty. This finding is not surprising because in large households, resources are spread thinly on maintaining a large number of people in terms of meeting basic and other needs.

However, by considering the age of the household heads and the poverty incidence in the country, it is evident that poverty level increases with the increase in the age of the household head except for the age group of 60 and above as reflected in appendix 9. The data on the appendix also indicated that, households headed by persons aged 55-59 years have the highest poverty incidence, depth and severity. On the other hand, those headed by persons aged 15-24 years have the lowest poverty incidence, depth and severity. The implication of this is that most Nigerians at their terminal active working age (above 50 years) are likely to be more impoverished than those that are in their non-active working age (24 years & below and 60 years & above).

The incidence of poverty in Nigeria can also be looked in terms of the educational attainment of the household head. It is evident that the level of educational attainment has effect on the poverty status of households. The incidence of poverty generally decreases with the increasing education of the head of household (see appendix 10A). Households in which the head has no education

are always more likely to be poor than average and those with secondary and post-secondary education are less likely to be poor. Households with post-secondary education have maintained a roughly 25 per cent poverty incidence, with the exception of 1996, despite the overall increase in poverty. The information in Appendix 10B reveals that those households headed by persons with elementary or no formal education have the highest poverty incidence, depth and severity. On the other hand, those households headed by persons with tertiary education have the least poverty incidence, depth and severity. This clearly shows the link between education and poverty on one hand and the effect of education in lifting people out of poverty on the other hand, in Nigeria.

From gender perspective, it was also empirically found that the Household headed by females have less incidence of poverty than those household headed by males. NBS (2007) put that apart of the 1980 survey, all the years that followed up to 2004 showed the incidence of poverty to be high on males - headed households (see Appendices 11A and 11B).

In terms of occupation of Household Head, available data show that households whose heads are engaged in agriculture and forestry have the highest poverty incidence, depth and severity, while those whose heads are engaged in professional and technical occupations have the lowest poverty incidence and depth. Thus, In general, households with heads engaged in agriculture had the highest level of poverty, except in 1980 and 1996. Households with heads that

are in the transport and production industry followed in terms of poverty incidence (see appendices 12A and 12B).

Therefore, from the above discussion on incidence of poverty in Nigeria, we derive that the incidence is geopolitically different with North having the highest incidence. In terms of severity and depth the incidence is also unevenly distributed among states of the federation. In fact, poverty incidence in Nigeria can be considered using other criteria such as gender, occupation, educational level among others. Each of these issues revealed variations in terms of severity, gap and depth.

2.2.6 Review of Empirical Studies

Studies have been carried out by various researchers on poverty issue under many perspectives as well as the roles of NAPEP in tackling it. Asaju (2011), carried out a research on the assessment of poverty eradication programmes in Nigeria with focus on NAPEP activities in Katsina and Kogi states of Nigeria. The study assesses the performance of NAPEP by examining the strategy and modalities for implementing the programme in the selected states. Being a survey research, it made use of both primary and secondary data and the population of the study comprises of the beneficiaries of NAPEP and the staff of NAPEP in the study area. The study discovered that although the programme claimed to have adopted the "participatory" (bottom- top) approach in the implementation, the application was not so in reality as the major stakeholders were prevented from participating in the policy making process and other activities of NAPEP. They

were also not adequately represented in all the major policy making bodies of NAPEP (i.e. NCC, SPEC, LGMC etc).

The study also found that the implementation of the intervention programme was also deficient as there was no fairness in the distribution of application forms, selection of beneficiaries, trainers and the training centres. In addition, the funding of the programme was very inadequate and staff were not adequately motivated. The study concludes that service delivery by NAPEP has been poor due to poor implementation strategy. Also, the programme had not impacted positively on the quality of life of beneficiaries due to poor implementation of the intervention programmes.

Thus, the research has done well in examining the strategies and modalities of implementing the NAPEP in the selected state. But, the area which the research should have captured were the issues of coordination of the programme with other poverty alleviation institutions in the country; commitments of the beneficiaries and the structural organization of the programme. But the research was not able to vividly capture these issues.

However, Isah (2008), conducted a research on social Policy as it affects poverty alleviation in Gombe State. The study was centrally aimed at examining the nature and impact of social policies and their implication on poverty alleviation and development in Gombe state from 1996 to 2004. The study made use of both primary and secondary data. The population for the research was the total populace of Gombe State that was put as 2,253,879 as at 2006 while the sample

size was 300 units of respondents that were selected using cluster and stratified random sampling techniques. The study found that most of the people in Gombe state lacked access to basic social services and amenities which aggravated the poverty situation in the state.

The research also found that implementation of the social policies in the state lacked commitment on the part of the state government and this resulted to a condition of increasing pauperization of the majority, disillusionment, cynicism, and discontentment with government operations. The research concluded that a lot need to be done in terms of social policy if living condition and poverty level of the people are to improve, especially in the programmes implementation. This study has relevance to our research as it addressed how social policies can be used in alleviating poverty although it failed to exhaustively explore managerial issues in the implementation of social policies which the research focused on.

Joseph, (2005) conducted a research entitled "An Assessment of Impacts of Poverty Reduction Programmes in Nigeria as a Development Strategy, 1970-2005." The study examined issues of poverty and underdevelopment in Nigeria, attributing it to lack of employment, high rate of illiteracy among the citizenry, or infrastructure, inadequate access to micro credit facilities, mismanagement of public funds, bad governance, instability of the governments and its policies. It also examined the efforts made by different governments in poverty alleviation within this period.

The study was a survey research and a total number of 717 respondents made up of men and women between the ages of 25 and 56 years, were drawn from six geopolitical zones in Nigeria; and administered with questionnaires, and their responses collated and analysed. The result of the study revealed that poverty alleviation initiatives of the Federal Government of Nigeria, since the 1970s till date have not significantly impacted positively on the lives of Nigerians, especially the poor; and has not led to the overall reduction of poverty in Nigeria.

The findings of the research also seem to strongly suggest that Nigerians at the rural areas are more likely to associate with poverty alleviation programmes in which they participated in contributing ideas into the initial policy design stages of such programmes, which they will later consent to at the rural level. The study concluded by suggesting that for any meaningful development, poverty alleviation programmes must be properly packaged, such that government would go into partnership with the rural people, in order to make implementation easier and successful; thus engendering economic selfsustenance, economic growth and development. This study has done well in looking at development as a consequence of effective poverty alleviation programmes. But, the research is narrow as it focuses only on rural areas without looking at the urban areas and without deeply looking at the effectiveness of the institutions involved in alleviating the poverty. Our research has of course improved on this by moving further to examining the various administrative processes or machinery of the

institution of poverty alleviation in the country and also by making wider coverage of both rural and urban areas.

In similar vein, Nnamdi (2006), conducted a research on the impact of NAPEP on socioeconomic development of the rural populace. The study focuses on Oshimili North Local Government area of Delta State. Primary data were basically used for the study and was generated through questionnaire administered to 250 units of respondents that constituted the sample size.

The variables focused by the research were employment, microfinance, agriculture and rural transportation. The study found that the implantation of the NAPEP in the study area because employment was not significantly generated. In addition the skill acquisition programme did not succeed in providing self employment; agriculture was also not boosted; social infrastructures which the programme targeted to provide were not provided. The only area which the programme succeeded was the introduction and provision of commercial motor cycle (*Okada*) which facilitated mobility in the rural area.

The work has of course tried to capture the impact of the programme on certain population and has succeeded in establishing the relationship between the NAPEP and the levels of living in the community studied. But, the study also failed to take into consideration issue of coordination with other institutions in terms of the provision of certain amenities and has not really discuss how funding may affect the service delivery by NAPEP. These are some of the areas which the research failed to address.

Samuel (2011), carried out a research on the roles of NAPEP on micro credits provisions and capacity enhancement in Nigeria with specific focus on Enugu state. The period covered by the study was between 2001 to 2007.the objectives of the research cantered on finding out the role of NAPEP on capacity enhancement through micro credit and examining the effect of micro credit on capacity enhancement and conditions of the people in Enugu state.

The research was a survey research and it utilized both primary and secondary data with questionnaire, interview, focus group discussion and non participant observation being the instruments of primary data collection. 500 individuals involving beneficiaries of microcredit and capacity enhancement as well as the stakeholders were used as sample size and were drawn using purposive sampling technique. Data were presented in frequency tables and analysed using non parametric tool of chi square.

The study revealed that NAPEP has played positive roles on capacity enhancement and has improved the conditions of the participants in the state. Although the study has not clearly show how the NAPEP was implemented in respect of the issues of staffing, funding and other related issues, we are convinced that NAPEP has contributed to capacity enhancement and poverty alleviation in Enugu state. But, areas of weaknesses in the implementation of the programme or in the capacity enhancement were not clearly indicated. In addition, one state may not generalize the situation in all the 36 state of the federation.

Mahamadu (2008), however conducted a research on assessing the framework of poverty alleviation programmes in Nigeria with a special focus on NAPEP as it affects women in Zaria local government Area of Kaduna State. The study made use of both primary and secondary data and the population of the study covered the women in three selected wards o the area. They were 9,000 in number out of which 150 were chosen to serve as the sample size using cluster sampling.

The study found that the hierarchical nature of the programme and its inability to do anything effective to eradicate poverty left the women in the study area in abject poverty. The study also discovered that gender inequality has completely left the women in poverty. The research concluded that, if poverty is to be alleviated among women, gender inequality in all programmes has to be avoided and down – top approach to poverty alleviation efforts has to be ensured.

Thus, the study has made attempt of examining poverty in respect of gender perspective, but fails to take into consideration the cultural and religious background as well as the dominant occupations of the population studied and whether these variables have any impact on poverty among the population studied.

Yusuf, (2009) also conducted a research on the impact of poverty on educational development of youths in Sabon-gari and Zaria Local government areas of Kaduna State. The major objective of the research was to examine the effects of poverty on educational development among youths in Zaria and Sabon-

gari Local government area from 2000 to 2005. The study was a survey research; it utilized both primary and secondary data with more focus on questionnaire and interview as the method of generating the data. The population for the study focused on the youths whose ages range from 18 to 40 in Zaria and Sabon-gari local Government out of which 400 and 320 respondents were selected as sample size respectively. In selecting the sample size cluster sampling was used and the local governments were clustered into wards with four wards being chosen from each of the two local governments.

The study found that most of the respondents are without any formal education which constitutes one of the major reasons why a large number of people in the area are low income earners. It was also revealed that parents' educational qualification is also a determinate to the level of education their children attained as they influence their educational choices.

Furthermore the study shows that most residents enrol their children and dependant in public schools of their locality. These public schools lack inadequate facilities and manpower to produce effective students.

The study concludes that the key to poverty reduction is human capital investment which will raise the residents production and income in Zaria and Sabon-gari local government where individuals find it very hard to eat, cloth, and provide decent shelter.

Therefore, the studies reviewed above shared some elements of relevance with our research particularly by examining NAPEP under various dimensions and

the levels of achievement it recorded in alleviating poverty among its targeted population. These are of course similar to our study although we moved further to discuss other administrative issues such as coordination and managerial capacity as well as environmental factors that surround the administration of the programme which previous studies were not able to address.

2.6 Theoretical Framework

This study adopted Systems Theory which was developed by David Easton in 1979 as the theoretical framework for studying the administration of NAPEP. The framework and its relevance to the study are discussed below:

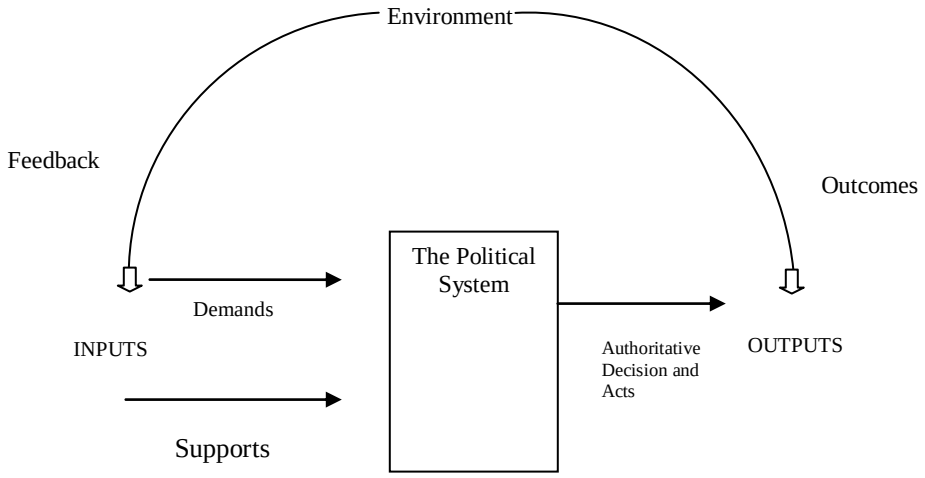
2.3.1 The Systems Theory

The systems approach to the analysis of organization or any other given policy or programme of the government was originally developed by David Easton (1979). The approach sees an organization or a given policy in focus as a system of interrelated parts each of which makes a contribution to the survival of the whole and each of which depends on other parts of the system for its own needs. There is hierarchical arrangement in the system as the parts or subsystems are made up of other smaller parts.

`In a system analysis, the parts in the system cannot be altered without affecting other parts. However, a system has input transformation mechanisms i.e it possesses the quality of transforming inputs into outputs. The central guiding principle of the approach is the assumption of equilibrium. That is, the

whole will need the cooperation of the parts to keep it mobile. Easton's model of analysis was typically demonstrated in the works of Austin (1975). As shown in the diagram below:

Figure 2.1 **Essentials of a Political System**



Source: Austin,, (1975)

Certain key concepts are central to the understanding administration of a given programme from the system view. One is of institutions and activities in the society that function to transform demand, support, and commitments into authoritative decisions. The second concept is input. This refers to the forces generated in the environment that affect the political system. They take the form of demand and support. Demands are action by individuals and groups seeking authoritative allocation of values from the authorities. While actions rendered in favour of government such as obedience to the law and payment of taxes are

seen as support. Inputs are generated from the environment while environment is any condition or circumstances defined as external to the boundaries of political system. The inputs are fed into the black box of decision-making otherwise known as the conversion box, to produce output. Outputs are the decision and policies of the authorities inside the black box. Within the system framework, allowances are made for feedback. The concept of feedback indicates that public (output) may subsequently alter the environment and the demand generated therein. In general, systems model provides a convenient umbrella for capturing the complexity of the policy making process. There has to be a measure of equilibrium between input and output. When input is more than output, it means the system is overloaded and there will be political instability because the people are demanding more than the government can perform.

2.3.1.1 Relevance of System Theory to the Study

Systems Theory is found worthy to this study as the theoretical framework considering the fact that effective administration of NAPEP requires relationship among the various schemes of NAPEP (FEP, COPE, YES, VEDS), its offices and among other relevant public and private institutions that complement the programme as well as well as inputs in the forms of both human and material resources which are all geared towards poverty reduction course.

However, the issues coordination, monitoring, staffing, funding, planning, commitment of the beneficiaries to the programme and the credibility of criteria adopted in selecting the beneficiaries to the programme as well as the

environmental factors surrounding the administration of the NAPEP are the key issues addressed by this study and could be best explained by this theory. These variables could be seen as some of the elements that form the entire system of the administration of NAPEP whose manifestations and behaviours can affect the performance of the NAPEP as an institution in tackling poverty issue in the selected states. Thus, the adoption of System Theory is very relevant in carrying out a study on the subject matter.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the methodology adopted in the course of the study. It discusses issues such as design of the research, sources and methods of data collection; population and sample size of the study, techniques of sampling as well as method of data analysis. These issues are explained in subsequent parts of this chapter.

3.2 Research Design

Research design for this study entails the whole processes that involve series of specific guidelines for specific data capture such as data gathering process, its location, its interpretation and how they are sourced. This research adopts a survey research method. This research is designed to examine the administration of the NAPEP in selected states of Northern Nigeria. In doing this, variables that relate to the administration of the programme were carefully assessed. These variables include coordination, planning, monitoring, funding, staffing and commitments.

3.2 Sources and Methods of Data Collection

For the purpose of this study, data were generated from both primary and secondary sources. These sources and the methods adopted are discussed below:

3.2.1 Primary Source

This is the first hand data generated in the course of this research that were generated through the instruments of questionnaire, interview and observation.

i. **Questionnaire:** The questionnaire for this research comprise both open ended and close ended questions for easy coding, tabulation and subsequent analysis. However, the questionnaire developed by the research in gathering data was divided into two sets. The first set was administered to the staff of NAPEP while the other was administered to the beneficiaries of the NAPEP in the study areas. The questionnaire method was used because of its reliability in providing required information. Apart of this, it is also economical as it permits wider coverage at a minimum cost.

ii. **Interview**

This research also used a semi structured interview. This is because it avoids the rigidity of highly structured schedules which sacrificed depth for standardization; at the same time, avoiding the weakness of standardization by the unstructured interview. Hence, the semi-structured interview used in this study combined the benefits of both standardization and depth. In this research, Face-to-face interview was conducted to some of the staff of NAPEP in the states and local government offices of NAPEP in Kaduna and Bauchi states. Staff of the NAPEP's population and the

beneficiaries' population were interviewed on issues such as coordination, planning, funding, monitoring, staffing and commitments among others as they affect the administration of the programme.

Just as in questionnaire design, interview schedules were designed for each category of interviewee to ensure easy facilitation of the interview. The method was equally used because of its importance in complementing questionnaire method and it provides supplementary information on the respondents and the situations, which may not necessarily be generated using questionnaire alone. In addition, it clarifies some of the responses given in the Questionnaire and verifies some of the answers given in the questionnaire which appeared doubtful on the basis of data collected and on-the-spot assessment carried out.

iii. **Observation:** this is a form of unobtrusive in research. Through the use of this instrument, the researcher was able to make on-the-spot assessment of the issues relevant to the study. The observation method was employed to observe on- the- spot some of the projects executed by NAPEP, the various training centres, and the entrepreneurships established by beneficiaries in the community surveyed. The essence of observing these projects and centres was not only to verify or authenticate their existence in reality but to examine the proper execution of these projects.

The adoption of observation method could be justified to the fact that it complemented the interview method and it provided direct access to information without any distortion.

3.2.2 Secondary Data

For the purpose of this research, secondary data was also used. Secondary data for this research deal with the information, which have already been generated and stored, in texts and files. The instrument of secondary data used included: data or information regarding the various projects undertaken by NAPEP, the number of recipients reached, funding of the various programmes and projects, and the fund given in form of loans and the payments of this loans, etc would be better sourced from the periodic reports and other official documents of NAPEP. Other forms of secondary data explored included: official publications of National Bureau of Statistics (NBS), National Planning Commission (NPC), and Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN), and reports of various studies carried out by government alone or in collaboration with other NGOs; united Nations Reports, Daily Newspapers, Magazines, scholarly articles, text books, unpublished research materials, Websites and other related materials.

3.3 Population and Sample Size

The population of this study was divided into two; the first was the staff of the NAPEP in Kaduna and Bauchi State that were in the states headquarters and those in the selected 12 local governments in those

states. Kaduna has a total of 23 Local Governments while Bauchi has 20. The other population was the beneficiaries of the four selected NAPEP programmes/schemes (YES, FEP, VEDS, and COPE) in Kaduna and Bauchi States from the 12 Local Governments studied. The local governments selected from each of the two states were six, two from each of the senatorial zones.

In Kaduna State, Kudan and Sabongari Local Governments were chosen from Kaduna North Senatorial District; Igabi and Kaduna South Local Governments from Kaduna Central Senatorial Districts; and Kachia and Jema'a Local Governments from Kaduna South Senatorial District. In Bauchi state, Ningi and Darazo Local governments were selected from Bauchi Central Senatorial District; katagum and Gamawa Local governments from Bauchi North Senatrial District; and Bauchi and Toro Local governments from Bauchi South Senatorial District.

However, from the available records, the total numbers of NAPEP beneficiaries that benefitted from the aforementioned four programmes/schemes in the selected Local governments of Kaduna and Bauchi states were 1,805 and 1,246 respectively. This made the total number to be 3,051. The population of the staff of NAPEP in Bauchi State at State Headquarters and the selected Local governments' offices were 20(14 at the headquarters and 6 at the 6 selected local governments. I.e. 1

from each). In Kaduna State, they were 23 (12 at the headquarters and 11 at the 6 selected local governments). This made the total to be 43.

In terms of sample size, we used Yamane's (1967) formula. The formula is expressed as

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + \mathrm{N}(e)^2}$$

Where n = Sample size

N = Total population

e = Merging of error at 5%

The beneficiaries' sample was thus determined as:

$$\therefore \mathrm{n} = \frac{3051}{1 + 3051(0.05)^2}$$

n = 353.636

n = 354 (approximately)

The sample size for the beneficiaries' population was thus 354 respondents representing 11.60% of the total population of 3051.

However, the staff sample size was determined as:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + \mathrm{N}(e)^2}$$

$$\therefore \mathrm{n} = \frac{43}{1 + 43(0.05)^2}$$

n = 38.826

n = 39 (approximately)

The sample size for the staff population was thus 39 respondents representing 90.70% of the total population of 43. The distribution of the population and sample size is tabulated below:

Table 3.1: Population and Sample Size Distribution

State	**Population Size**		**Sample Size**	
	Staff	**Beneficiaries**	**Staff**	**Beneficiaries**
Kaduna	23	1,805	20	209
Bauchi	20	1,246	19	145
Total	**43**	**3,051**	**39**	**354**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

3.4 Sampling Techniques

For the purpose of this research, two sampling techniques were adopted. The first sampling technique was the cluster sampling and it was applied to the beneficiaries' sample. In this case, the selected local governments were clustered into wards. From each ward, 10 beneficiaries were selected randomly. The other sampling technique was stratified random sample. This was applied to the staff population.

3.5 Method of Data Analysis

In this study, both the qualitative and the quantitative methods of data analysis were employed. Two types of analyses were carried out on the data collected. These included: descriptive statistics analysis using frequency tables and simple percentages in analyzing and interpreting the

data collected. Inferential statistical tool of analysis of Pearson Chi-square was used using SPSS computer package.

Chi-Square (X^2) Distribution

The Chi-Square (X^2) belongs to the non-parametric test and it is used to measure discrepancies between the observed and the expected frequencies. Thus, it was found suitable for this study.

The following formula was adopted for the calculation.

$$X^2 = \sum \frac{O - E}{E}$$

Where O = The observed frequency of any value.

E = The expected frequency of any value.

Source: (Obasohan et al, 2004:153).

The X^2 value obtained from the formula is compared with the value of X^2 table for a given significance level α and number of degree of freedom v.

To get the value of v i.e. degree of freedom

V = (rows -1) (columns -1)

Where rows and columns are from the original table of actual or observed frequency.

Source: (Obasohan et al, 2004:155).

In order to calculate the expected frequencies, cross tabulation was done using SPSS package. However, the decision rule in using the X^2 distribution for testing hypothesis is as follows:

Accept the null hypothesis (Ho) if X^2 calculated value is less than X^2 tabulated value and reject the alternative hypothesis (Hi). However, if X^2 calculated value is greater than X^2 tabulated value then reject the null hypothesis (Ho) and accept the alternative hypothesis (Hi).

CHAPTER FOUR

AN OVERVIEW OF THE PAST AND PRESENT POVERTY ALLEVIATION MEASURES IN NIGERIA

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, a brief discussion of the case study states was made. Effort was also made in reviewing the past and present poverty alleviation measures and institutions in Nigeria. In addition, we attempted discussing of the structure and functioning of NAPEP at Federal, state and local government levels in Nigeria. The issues discussed consist of those programmes under the umbrella of NAPEP including their scope of activities, mandates, operational procedures and other components related to them. It should however be pointed out that the programme under study has a uniform structure and operational pattern in all the 36 states of the federation, as such, our discussion on it is applicable to all the study areas. In addition, the section gives a brief overview of the states which the study focuses on.

4.2 A Brief on the Case Study States

Here, backgrounds of Kaduna and Bauchi states that constitute our areas of study were examined as follows:

4.2.1 Kaduna State

Kaduna State occupies part of the Central position of the Northern part of Nigeria (with Kaduna as its capital) and shares common borders with

Zamfara, Katsina, Niger, Kano, Bauchi and Plateau States. To the South-West, the State shares a border with the Federal Capital Territory, Abuja. The state was created in 1976 from the defunct North-central state. The global location of the State is between longititude of 30" east of the Greenwich meridian and also between latitude 0900 and 11 30" North of the equator. The State occupies an area of approximately 48,473.2 square kilometres and has a population of more than 6 million (2006 census). The entire land structure consists of an undulating Plateau with major rivers in the State including River Kaduna, River Wonderful in Kafanchan, River Kagom, River Gurara and Galma(extracted from www.kadunastate.gov.ng – June 11, 2011).

The State is mostly populated by Hausa, Gwari, Kataf and Bajjuu ethnic communities, with others up to 36 indigenous ethnic groups found in different parts of the State. The main ethnic group are: Hausa, Fulani, Bajju, Kataf, Kagoro, Moro'a Jaba, Gbaggyi, Kanninkon, Ninzam, Chawai, Atyap, Ham Kurama etc, with Hausa and English languages as common languages. About 80 percent of the State's population is engaged in peasant farming producing both food and cash crops. The crops produced in the State include cotton, groundnuts, tobacco, maize, yam, beans, guinea corn, millet, ginger, rice, cassava, sugarcane, Shea nuts, Cowpea, Mango, Kenaf, cocoyam, Cassava, Timber, Palm kernel, Banana, Soya bean, Corn, Onions, sorghum and potatoes. During the dry season, a considerable number of people in the State engage in irrigation farming along some major rivers and near dams. The crops cultivated are mainly vegetables.

Another important aspect of agriculture engaged by the people is the rearing of cattle, sheep, goats, pigs and poultry farming. Based on the above, some possible industries could be food and sugar processing, Cigarettes manufacturing, furniture industry, Ginger processing, Fibre factory, Palm oil, Milk, Starch production plant and milling. Kaduna State is the fourth most populous state in the Federation and represents a major focus and centre of political and economic activities in the nation. It occupies a very strategic position in terms of its historical role, contemporary political development and economic activities. Consequently, developments in Kaduna State invariably have national implications (extracted from www.kadunastate.gov.ng – June 11, 2011).

Kaduna state has 23 local governments as Birnin-Gwari, Chikun, Giwa, Igabi, Ikara, Jaba, Jema'a, Kachia, Kaduna North, Kaduna South, Kagarko, Kajuru, Kaura, Kauru, Kubau, Kudan, Lere, Makarfi, Sabongari, Sanga, Soba, Zangon-Kataf, and Zaria. The 1991 census provisional result puts the population of the State at 3,935,618 and 2006 census puts it at 6,066,562 (NBS, 2009).

Although majority live and depend on the rural areas, about third of the State's population are located in two major urban centres of Kaduna and Zaria. However, except in the north-western quadrant, the rural population concentration is moderate, reaching a high of over 500 persons per sq. km. in Kaduna/Zaria and the neighbouring villages; 350 in Jaba, Igabi and Giwa and 200 in Ikara LGAs (extracted from www.kadunastate.gov.ng – June 11, 2011).

4.2.2 Bauchi State

Bauchi State was created in February 1976 from the former North Eastern State by the then regime of General Murtala Mohammed. It originally included the area now in Gombe State, which became a distinct state in 1996. It is made up of 20 local government areas. Its capital Bauchi.

The local government areas in the state are: Alkaleri, Bauchi, Bogoro, Damban, Darazo, Dass, Gamawa, Ganjuwa , Giade, Itas/Gadau, Jama'are, Katagum, Kirfi, Misau, Ningi, Shira, Tafawa-Balewa, Toro, Warji and Zaki.

Located in the North-Eastern part of the Nigeria, Bauchi State covers 45,837 square kilometers. Bauchi State is bounded by Kano and Jigawa to the north, Yobe and Gombe to the east and Kaduna State to the west and Plateau and Taraba State to the south. It has a population of about 4.7 million people based on 2006 estimate.

The entire western and northern parts of the state are generally mountainous and rocky. This is as a result of the closeness of the state to the Jos Plateau and Cameroun mountains. Bauchi state is one of the states in the Northern part of Nigeria that span two distinctive vegetation zones, namely, the Sudan Savannah and the Sahel Savannah. Two main rivers transverse the state, the Gongola and Hadejia rivers. The climatic condition of Bauchi State is very hot in the months of April and May, while December and January are the coldest months.

The State has a total of 55 tribal groups in which Hausa, Fulani, Gerawa, Sayawa, Jarawa, Bolewa, Kare-Kare, Kanuri, Warjawa, Zulawa, and Badawa are the main tribes.

The state is an agricultural state. Its vast fertile soil is an added advantage for agricultural products, which include maize, rice, millet, groundnut and guinea corn. Irrigation farming is practiced and supported by the use of dams like Balanga dam, etc. Cattle and other livestock are also reared in the state. The state also has manufacturing industries in the area of Iron and Steel, Water, Ceramics, Food and Beverages etc.

4.3. Past and Present Poverty Alleviation Programmes and Institutions in Nigeria

There have been numerous poverty alleviation programmes and institutions in Nigeria that are created to fight against poverty in the country. Below are the details of some of these poverty alleviation bodies in the country, both past and present.

4.3.1 The Agricultural Development Projects (ADPs)

This is a World Bank supported programme that was established in 1973. The stakeholders in the implementation of the programme were the World Bank, and the Federal and State Governments in Nigeria. The ADPs were aimed at promoting integrated rural development by providing facilities for intensive extension services, modern input supplies and distribution system and rural infrastructure especially feeder roads.

However, while acknowledging that the ADPs have been of 'some benefit to the peasantry, it also calls for some healthy scepticism in the consideration of the long-term impact of the project especially the long-term indebtedness of the economy to the World Bank. It is also noted that the projects have different kinds of impact on the farming community, benefiting more than the others (Onuohia and Fadakine, 2002:314). It must be noted that the World Bank and the IMF have had negative policies towards Africa and Africans, especially because of the stiff conditionalities particularly, conditions especially the conditions for retrenchment which further breed poverty.

4.3.2: The Operation Feed the Nation (OFN)

This programme was launched by the military government of Olusegun Obasanjo in 1976 due to the then, declining agricultural production, escalating food import and rural-urban migration. Its objective was two-fold: first it was expected to restore dignity to farming by encouraging individuals, schools, colleges and universities to grow food thereby popularizing farming. Urban dwellers were in particular encouraged to embark on backyard farming.

Secondly, under the scheme government undertook to make available sundry farm inputs to individuals and institutions engaged in farming. It was however noted that the OFN programme was controlled and directed by the bureaucratic bourgeoisies for their own benefit.

However, the programme failed as a rural development initiative. The limited impact of the OFN is believed to have been caused by bottlenecks in

fertilizer distribution, inadequate extension service and insufficient planning (Onuoha and Fadakine; 2002:314-315).

4.3.3:The Green Revolution (GR)

The Green Revolution was launched by the Shehu Shagari Government in 1980 as a replacement to the OFN. The programme was designed to boost agriculture and promote rural development through such measures as the encouragement of agro-industries, the construction of feeder roads and the provision of social amenities in the rural areas. A broad range of incentives were provided under the scheme. Among these was the Agricultural Credit Guarantee Scheme which was designed to increase the level of bank credit to the agricultural sector. Credits were also provided for commercial production, processing and distribution of agricultural products.

However, the programme did not actually target the poor and even if it did the policy implementers averted the benefits to the highly placed civil servants and high ranking military officers. Such activities breed poverty in Nigeria. In effect the peasant farmers were not the major focus of the Green Revolution. Instead the programme was targeted at the "new breed" farmers who thus benefit enormously from generous government packages which gave access to cheap loans, land technology and foreign exchange. Among the "new breed" farmers were senior civil servants and army officers, both serving and retired who used their privileged access to the state to appropriate the incentive provided by the

scheme and acquire large tracts of land which were often put to speculative uses (Onuoha and Fadakine 2002:316).

4.3.4: National Directorate of Employment (NDE)

The National Directorate of Employment (NDE) was established in 1986 to tackle the problem of mass unemployment among both unskilled and skilled labour including university graduates, graduate of other tertiary institutions, secondary school leavers etc. The programme was targeted at the unemployed youths through training, finance and guardian. The major activities include vocational skills development, agriculture, small-scale enterprises and special public works. The programme was also bedevilled by shortage of fund. However, it achieved minimum success, especially in the area of skill acquisition (Asaju, 2011).

4.3.5: The Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI).

DFRRI was established by the military overnment of Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida in 1986 in line with the World Bank/IMF Structural adjustment policy requirement for poor countries, to enable them access the relevant credit facilities of the institutions to finance the programme.

Decree No. 4 of 1986 that established DIFRRI provides the following objectives to be achieved:

1. To identify involve and support viable local community organizations in the effective mobilization of the rural population for sustained rural development

activities; bearing in mind the need for promoting greater community participation and self-reliance.

2. To identify areas of high production for the country's priority food and fibre requirement and to support the production of such commodities along agro-ecological zones within the context of one national market with un-impeded inter-state trade in farm production.
3. To formulate and support a national feeding and network programme involving construction, rehabilitation, improvement and maintenance especially in relation to the nation's food self-sufficiency programme as well as general rural development.
4. To formulate and support a national rural water supply programme together with a national on-farm storage programme with emphasis on the full involvement of local communities and local governments of existing infrastructure.
5. To verify and promote other programmes that would enhance greater productive economic activities in the rural areas as well as help to improve the quality of life and standard of living of the rural people; and
6. To encourage contribution of labour, time and materials by local communities to be completed by a system of matching grants from the directorate and the local, state and federal governments, Muhammed and Amuta (2002:223-224).

The DFRRI programme had two components designed to create employment in the rural areas of the country. The first was the public work

scheme which involved opening of rural roads to ease transportation problem encountered by farmers and encourage many people, particularly the youths to go into farming. The aim was to increase food production and income for rural farmers as well as create self employment opportunities for young school leavers in the rural areas. The rural infrastructure development and maintenance aspect of the public works programme entailed construction of markets, culverts; gutters and maintenance of other rural infrastructural facilities. In the public work scheme, two categories of unemployed youth's first degree/ HND holders and youths with lower qualifications were employed. A monthly allowance of two hundred naira (N200.00) was paid to the first group while the latter received a monthly allowance of one hundred and fifty naira (N150.00).

The second component of the DFRRI programme was a micro-credit programme administered by the National Directorate of Employment (NDE) located in the Federal Ministry of Labour and Productivity. Under the micro-credit scheme, unemployed degree / HND holders were encouraged to access loans from the commercial banks through the National Directorate of Employment, to enable them establish and operate micro businesses in manufacturing, agriculture, artisanship, etc. The National Directorate of employment also operates a skill acquisition scheme under which unemployed youths are enrolled at various micro artisan shops - radio/television repair works, motor mechanical works, driving schools, tailoring, etc. for skill acquisition. In return, owners of the workshops were paid by the NDE for their tutorship for the period of beneficiaries

apprenticeship. At graduation, beneficiaries were assisted with materials in kind or in cash through small loans to set up their own shops. Running side by side with the DFRRI programmes was the Better Life for Rural Women Programme set up by the office of the First Lady, Mrs. Maryam Babangida, which targeted soft micro-credit loans to rural women, who were encouraged to form themselves into formal groups such as co-operatives to enable them benefit from the programme. This was a special female gender-friendly programme. Women groups' beneficiaries of the micro-credit scheme accessed the loans through the banks to establish cottage industries – cassava processing, fish processing, groundnut oil processing, sewing outfit etc. The DFRRI programme and the Better Life for Rural Women programme somewhat seized to function or exist with the exit of the Babangida military regime in August 1993.

However, like other poverty reduction agencies in the country, it was over-ambitious in scope and the programmes were spread too thin; it was grounded in corruption; proper coordination of the entire sector was not achieved; lack of technical depth in most project and people at the local government level do not have the opportunity to participate and 'own' the projects.

4.3.6: The Better Life Programme (BLP)

The Better Life Programme for Rural Dwellers was established in September 1987. The programme was initiated by the wife of the then military President, Maryam Babangida to cater for the women. This was done through self-help, rural development programmes, skill acquisition and health care. The programme was

launched as a "women" emancipation initiative and accordingly sought a broad range of objectives. Among these were;

(a) To stimulate and motivate women in rural areas towards achieving better and higher standards of living, as well as sensitize the general population to the plight of rural women;

(b) To promote women's literacy and educate women in simple hygiene family planning and the importance of child care.

(c) To mobilize women for concrete activities including seeking leadership roles in all structures of national life.

(d) To bring women together and closer for a better understanding and resolution of their problems through collective action.

(e) To raise the social courageousness of women about their right as well as their social, political and economic responsibilities; and

(f) To encourage women to seek recreation from the drudgery of daily labour.

The programme in general impacted positively on the lives of many women. But the impact was more felt in the urban centres than in the rural areas that are the major target. It was also bedevilled by sharp corrupt practices and lack of transparency and accountability on the part of implementers. The programme was solely controlled by the First Lady and her counterparts in the states. It was later transformed into Family Support Programme (FSP) in 1994.

4.3.7:The People's Bank of Nigeria Limited (PBN)

This is another important agency for poverty alleviation put in place by the Babangida regime. The institution was launched on 3rd October, 1989. It is a mass-based credit programme that provided small loans at reasonable terms to low income individual for financing income-generating activities. It was targeted at underprivileged in urban and rural areas by encouraging savings and credit facilities. The bank does not ask for collateral and charges minimum interest rates. The enabling decree that established it stated its aims and objectives as follows:

(a) The extension of credit facilities to the less privileged members of the society who cannot normally benefit from the services of the conventional banks

(b) The provision of opportunities for self employment for the vast unutilized and under-utilized manpower resources of the country.

(c) To complement government efforts in improving the productivity base of the economy.

(d) Inculcate banking habit at the grassroot(s) level and reduce rural-urban migration; and

(e) To cushion the painful effect of the Structural Adjustment Programme on the poor.

The bank could not make any headway and much of the credit facilities went to the highly placed in the community and what eventually happened was its complete failure and total collapse. The major problems of the bank include indiscipline and corrupt management, over dependence on government for fund

and the targeted population mostly didn't benefit from the credit facilities granted by the bank (Muhammed and Amuta 2002:225).

4.3.8: The Family Support Programme (FSP)

The Family Support Programme (FSP) was established in 1994 to attain the following primary objectives:

(a) Collectively FSP was intended to support and enhance family life throughout the country in order to have a good living through the provision of jobs for the progress and wellbeing of the nation.

(b) Boosting of man's morale to ensure fairness and justice among people to maintain their dignity.

. However, the secondary objectives that the programmes set to achieve are:

(a) Promotion of health facilities to reduce child, infant and female mortality rate and diseases.

(b) Elimination of immoral acts capable of affecting women.

(c) To help the families to create important job that will provide sufficient income and support to carry out the work efficiently and diligently.

(d) To help rural dwellers to boost agricultural and sufficient food production.

(e) To create family disciplinary committee that will take care of the discipline, loyalty and good relationship between families through planning of works that concern the family progress entirely.

(f) Strengthening the leadership of parents of the families through various ways that consists of bringing children to a good moral conduct in order to build a good society, FSP (1999:4-5)

Billions of naira was pumped into the programme to assist women just as was done to the Better Life Programme but unfortunately it ended in the same way just as did the Better Life Programme. The programme was scrapped when General Abacha died.

4.3.9: Family Economic Advancement Programme (FEAP)

This programme was established by Decree 11 of August 12, 1997, to function as a parastatal under the presidency, the FEAP, had the central objective of alleviating poverty. Its specific objectives were provision of capital needed by way of loans directly to people at ward level to enable them set up and run their own cottage enterprises; provision of opportunities for the training of ward-based business operators; encouraging the design and manufacture of appropriate plants, machinery and equipment; creation of employment opportunities at the ward level; improving the living standard of the people; encouraging producers at ward level to form co-operative societies; promoting production and development consciousness; utilization of all available local resources for the benefit of Nigerians through improved production, storage, preservation, processing, recycling, packaging and marketing; involving private sector participation in its funding and implementation; involving state and local governments in its funding; and reducing rural-urban migration.

FEAP, basically targeted families especially the low income group with a view to alleviating their suffering. The essential ingredient to qualify to benefit from FEAP micro-credit facilities was the mandatory organization of individuals into respective co-operative societies before they could be registered and accredited with FEAP as potential beneficiaries. Special attention was given to members of the armed forces and police disabled persons and destitute, widows and orphans, joint venture investments and the prostitutes. This last group was expected to be productive by establishing some viable ventures rather than waste away their time with irresponsible men. (Aliyu, 1998:16). Once they organized themselves into groups they were expected to benefit from the micro-credit scheme of the programme to earn their living more respectably through productive activities. One very important target group of the FEAP was the indigenous Market Women Associations. The joint ventures scheme, which was production-based, was one area the indigenous market women associations were encouraged to take the opportunities of participating in joint venture partnership with other interested groups. It was also intended to expose these market women groups to production with a view to broadening their base and to also assist them to diversify their businesses. In 1998, the FEAP earmarked ₦740 million for the armed forces and police, for disbursement as loan, ₦185 million was budgeted for widows, orphans and the prostitutes and ₦370 million for the joint venture scheme.

4.4 Historical Evolution of NAPEP

Nigeria has for long time been formulating and implementing various policies and programmes with institutional backups to ensure that poverty level in the country is minimized or alleviated. The adoption of these policy or institutional measures could be traced to the fact that the country recorded about 15% of her populace to be living below the poverty level in 1960. This situation continued to worsen in the country as the poverty level moved to about 28% in 1980 and 46% in 1985. However, in 1996, available data revealed that about 66% of the population lived below the poverty line. This trend continued as the number of people recorded to living in abject poverty at the inception of the Civilian administration in 1999 constituted of about 70% of the entire Nigerian population (NAPEP, 2001).

At the inception of the Civilian Administration in 1999 it was observed that, the poverty alleviation efforts of the federal government were characterized by Poor coordination of activities and absence of effective continuous policy formulation; Lack of sustainability of programme and projects; absence of achievable target setting; absence of monitoring, evaluation and impact assessment; absence of effective coordination, collaboration and complementation between the agencies and among the three tiers of government; and duplication of functions with a resulting unnecessary rivalry among institutions. This state of affairs informed the need to establish a central coordinating, monitoring and interceptive body for all poverty reduction efforts of the government.

Thus, due to the aforementioned observed issues the President of Nigeria in 1999 called for a review of the Government's poverty reduction programmes

and interventions. As such Ahmed Joda Panel was set up in 1999 to look at the issue. The report of such panel also led to the setting up of Ango Abdullahi Committee which was inaugurated on 22nd June 2000 by the vice President of the country (NAPEP, 2000). The specific terms of reference of such committee were to review the previous efforts of government towards poverty alleviation and to suggest a way forward, to serve as action plan for immediate and long- term future interventions.

The committee's report revealed that there were 14 core poverty alleviation ministries and 37 core poverty alleviation institutions, agencies and programmes in the country (NAPEP 2001). The following recommendations were made by the committee and were approved by the government:

In the first place, most or all implementation and delivery activities of government on poverty should be left to the statutory ministries so that all efforts are harmonized within the scope of the sector as covered by the ministries.

Also, an institution which should not be an implementing structure should be established to facilitate the provision of the missing link to enable monitoring of all efforts while allowing for the effective complementation, collaboration and coordination between all stakeholders. This marked the birth of the National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) in the year 2000(www.napep.gov.ng). The adoption of NAPEP was also based on Poverty Reduction Strategy Programme (PRSP) approach to poverty reduction which was popularized by the World Bank and IMF. The approach advocates for ensuring that official policies and resources are made available and are judiciously used for poverty reduction in a given country (Asaju, 2010).

4.5 Objectives of NAPEP

The main objective of NAPEP is to work with relevant agencies of government to coordinate and monitor all direct poverty eradication efforts in Nigeria, and the guiding of the periodic poverty eradication policy reviews through the use of comprehensive data and regular poverty incidence assessment to improve effective use of resource (NAPEP, 2004). Other objectives as extracted from Asaju (2010) include:

1. To eradicate extreme poverty, halving the proportion of people living in it by 2010 in line with National Economic Empowerment Strategy NEEDS, and Millennium Development Goal (MDG)
2. To make every Nigerian a participant in the fight to eradicate Extreme poverty
3. To provide re- orientation and economic empowerment to the poor of Nigeria, and,
4. To develop a winning partnership with other sources for support in the fight against poverty

4.6 Functions of NAPEP

The functions of NAPEP include the following:

a. Coordination of all poverty eradication efforts in the Federation;

b. Monitoring of all poverty eradication activities of the Federal Government;

c. Maintenance of a comprehensive and detailed databank on all activities aimed at eradicating poverty in Nigeria;

d. Directly intervention in key sectors of critical needs periodically by implementing scaled key priority projects as approved by the National Poverty Eradication Council (NAPEC)(NAPEP, 2004).

4.7 NAPEP Intervention Schemes and Programmes

NAPEP's programmes and schemes cover so many areas including: capacity development, shelter, employment, healthcare, agriculture, water supply, transport, education, gender development, recreations and economic empowerment among others. These intervention schemes and programmes are discussed below as extracted from NAPEP (2001) which is the revised blueprint for the NAPEP activities. The total number of NAPEP staff is 1,232 in the whole federation as at the end of 2010 (NAPEP, 2011).

4.7.1 Youth Empowerment Scheme (YES)

This scheme is aimed at providing for training opportunities, skills acquisition, employment opportunities, and wealth creation through enhanced income generation, improved social status and rural development. The Scheme is primarily aimed at economically empowering the youth and shall emphasize on Capacity Acquisition Programmes (CAP) and Mandatory Attachment Programme (MAP).

The scope of YES consists of:

1. Generation of data on employment opportunities and vacancies, training, creation of employment opportunities, productivity improvement, skills acquisition, preparation of training programmes for youths, unemployed and

retrenched workers. These are mostly the mandates of the Ministries of Employment, Labour and Productivity and Industry.

2. Technology development and promotion, enterprise development and promotion and improving the performance of the informal small and medium scale enterprises; these are the mandates of the Ministry of Labour.
3. Credit delivery for which the Ministry of Agricultural and Rural Development has the mandate of agricultural and rural development projects; the Ministry of Industry has the mandates for industrial projects; while the Ministry of Works and Housing has the mandates for housing development.
4. The establishment of Youths centres in each local Government Area council to serve as information and counselling office for youth.

However, YES shall function under the umbrella of the NAPEC being charged with specific mandates to closely plan, monitor and evaluate the relevant activities of the NDE, SMIDA, NACRDB, NIDB and FMBN. In defining the roles of YES in the various relevant parastatals, emphasis must be placed on active participation of the youth taking into account the fact that their class ranges from stark illiterates, semi-literates to well seasoned graduates.

The mandates of YES include: Capacity Building and Vocational Training (NDE, SMIDA); Data Generation and Statistics on Employment (NDE); Job and Employment Opportunity Creation (NDE, SMIDA); Promotion of awareness in the activities and opportunities in the Exploration of Solid Mineral Resources for Employment and Promotion of Investment for YES; Co-ordination and Control of

Activities in Teaching and Application of Science and Technology in the Locality (NAPEP, 2001).

4.7.2 Rural Infrastructures Development Scheme (RIDS)

This scheme emphasizes on infrastructures like power supply, water supply, transportation, housing, communication, and land and farm developments. They are considered as paramount in Government's efforts to improve the lot of its citizenry. For this reason, each implementing agency will be strengthened to actualize the scope and mandates of the RIDS.

The scope of RIDS centres on the provision of the following services:

i. Rural energy and power supply
ii. Portable and Irrigation water
iii. Transportation (urban and rural);
iv. Rural Telecommunication; and
v. Waterways and Jetties Development;

The mandates of the RIDS also involve: Rural Electrification, Rural Energy Supply, Rural Water Supply, Rural Feeder Roads, Development of Waterways and Jetties (NAPEP, 2001).

4.7.3: Social Welfare Services Scheme (SOWESS)

SOWESS is another scheme under the umbrella of NAPEP with the scope of providing, developing and sustaining quality informal education and literacy classes; providing, developing and sustaining quality healthcare delivery services; Designing and rehabilitating programmes for destitudes and the disabled;

Establishing public enlightenment campaign and entertainment programmes; Developing parks, gardens and communal recreation centres. Other areas of focus in this programme are developing inter-communal parks, markets, motels and rural housing schemes; Coordinating and controlling the activities of NGOs; establishing and enforcing environmental protection practice; and providing other social services, such as credit delivery for all groups of citizens among others..

The mandates of the Scheme are to:

i. Provide, develop and sustain Quality Special education
ii. Establish Public Enlightenment Campaign and Entertainment Programmes
iii. Provide, Develop and Sustain Quality Healthcare Delivery Services
iv. Design Rehabilitation Programmes for Destitute and the Disabled
v. Develop Parks, Gardens and Communal Recreation Centres
vi. Develop Hostels, Markets and Motels
vii. Coordinate and Control the Activities of NGOs
viii. Establish and Enforce Communal Environ mental Protection Practices
ix. Provide Other Social Services such as Credit Delivery for all Groups, Libraries and Telecommunication Facilities
x. Development of Rural Telecommunication Facilities
xi. Development of Maintenance Culture for Rural Infrastructural facilities (NAPEP, 2001).

4.7.4 Natural Resources Development and Conservation Scheme (NRDCS)

This scheme is designed as part of the NAPEP programme to deal with issues relating to natural resources development in all parts of the country as well as issues relating to conservation. The scope or Areas covered by the scheme are highlighted below:

i. Improve direct participation in the exploitation of all mineral resources
ii. Development of water resources to amplify benefits
iii. protection of environment from natural disasters, wastage and pollution
iv. Effective management of industrial and domestic waste
v. Reclamation of Land and Water Resources
vi. Development of marine and aquaculture resources
vii. Increase the rate and scale of beneficial local participation;
viii. Improvement of indigenous methods and techniques for sustainable resources development and utilization;
ix. Enhancing safety of the immediate community, operators, end users and the environment.
x. Development of appropriate and compatible environmental protection methods
xi. Grazing reserves and water points for livestock.

However, the mandates of the scheme are seen as: Exploration, Control and Exploitation of all mineral Resources; Development of Agricultural and Resources; Protection of Environment from Natural Disasters and Wastes; and Effective Management of Industrial and Domestic Waste (NAPEP, 2001).

4.7.5 Farmers Empowerment Programme (FEP)

Farmers Empowerment Programme (FEP) is special agricultural credit assistance to poor rural farmers aimed at enhancing farmer's productivity and potentials for increased output. NAPEP undertakes this scheme in collaboration with state government, local government and specialized agricultural agencies.

The objectives include the following:

1. To ensure wealth creation, employment generation and poverty eradication within the farming communities and the rural sector.
2. To assist farmers in achieving their potentials for increasing output, productivity and consequently their incomes on a sustainable basis.
3. To strengthen the effectiveness of research and extension services in bringing appropriate technology and modern farming techniques developed by research to the practical problems faced by small farmers;
4. To complement and refine the on-going efforts of government in the promotion of simple technologies for self sufficiency and surplus production in small-scale agriculture.
5. To train and educate farmers on the effective utilization of available resources and facilities in order to maximize production of food and create employment opportunities.

The areas of focus of this programme include; irrigated Agriculture i.e. increasing the efficiency of existing irrigation schemes and developing efficient low cost irrigation technology; Rain Fed Agriculture i.e. increasing crop output, productivity and profitability and household income of farmers; Livestock

Development i.e. promoting efficient, innovative and profitable livestock and fishery activities adapted to local conditions, customs and available resources; Adoption of improved methods of farming i.e. capacity acquisition for stakeholders particularly field staff and farmers training to ensure achievement of set goals and objectives.

The stakeholders are NAPEP, Federal Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development-Project Coordinating Unit, (PCU), Office of the Special Assistant to the President on Food Security (SPFP), HQ, State Government, Agricultural Development Projects (ADP), Local Government Councils (LGC), Banks, and participating communities (Farmers).

The institutional framework of FEP comprises of the Office of the Honourable Minister Federal Ministry of Agriculture & Rural Development, Office of the National Coordinator, NAPEP; Office of the Special Assistant to the President on Food Security; Office of the National Coordinator, projects Coordinating Unit (PCU); NAPEP State Coordination Committee Offices; State Agricultural Development Project Offices; NAPEP Local Government Monitoring Coordination Offices (LGMC); Agricultural Development Project Field Offices.

The stakeholders have various responsibilities attached to them. NAPEP Headquarters is responsible for conducting a briefing session on the modified Farmers Empowerment programme to the affected SCC Coordinators and ADP Programme Managers. The Commissioner for Agriculture of the respective states is responsible for briefing the Technical Steering Committee of each state on the

modality of the programme. It is as well responsible for supervision, monitoring and coordination of the programme, and conducting impact assessment of the Farmers Empowerment Programme.

NAPEP State Coordinating Committee is charged with the responsibility of briefing SCC members on the repacked Farmers Empowerment Programme; organize sensitization meeting in conjunction with the state ministries of agriculture, ADP and the LGA; coordinating SPFS programme in each state; partaking in the coordination and monitoring of the implementation of the programme; intensifying follow-up to ensure repayment of loans by the participants and partaking in the conduct of the impact assessment of the programme.

Participating communities (farmers) participate fully in the implementation of the FEP projects; attend capacity building and practical training workshops to ensure the success of the programme; and ensures prompt repayment of loans received for the execution of FEP projects.

The banks perform the disbursement and recovery of loans through the Local Management Committee or the respective Cooperative groups (NAPEP, 2001).

4.7.6: Promise-Keeper Programme (PKP)

The Promise Keepers Programme (PKP) is one of the intervention schemes of NAPEP, it is aimed at creating a large pool of resources to empower the poor to undertake economic activities. This is done in close collaboration with Religious

Bodies or Faith Based Organizations (FBOs) and or CBOs and NGOs. NAPEP provides the funds to the FBOs at interest free rate. The PKP is in two forms: Micro-Credit and Infrastructure Support.

The programme is a partnership in which Religious Organizations act as guardians/guarantors promising to facilitate a relationship between mentors and protégés in their congregations in order to create a pool of funds for the programme. PKP enlarges the pool of funds available to the poor through a promise by a relatively richer Nigerian to help others they individually identify.

The various stakeholders have their own roles to play at ensuring the success of PKP. The major stakeholders are the mentor, protégé, Religious Organisations and NAPEP. A mentor is typically a better-off person who promised to provide funds to be matched for a protégé to start a small enterprise. In addition, the mentor also promises to provide advice and guidance to the protégé. A protégé on the other hand promise to start a successful and sustainable small enterprise using the funds provided by the programme. The Religious Organisation promises to encourage mentor-protégé relationship within the congregation and will manage the funds generated for the programme. The Religious Organisation is also to act as guarantors for the matching funds.

NAPEP as the coordinator promises to provide matching funds for each of the protégés. The loan varies for six months to two years depending on the trade. Upon repayment, the Religious Organisation may revolve the loan. As part of its responsibility, NAPEP will also provide continuous monitoring and supervision and

will conduct impact assessment exercises at the end of each cycle of the programme. Impact assessments will enable NAPEP recommend necessary adjustments and improvements to the programme and will ensure it meets NAPEP AWS standard, which means the programme, will create economic activity, promote well-being and be sustainable.

The targeted beneficiaries of PKP are the unemployed, underemployed, widows and orphans who are willing and able to work.

The conditions for collecting the PKP loan are that, loan will be disbursed to religious organizations after signing legally binding agreement with NAPEP. Loan tenor will be form six months to two years depending on the activity. Loan may be rolled over after repayment. Loan will be interest free. Collateral shall not be required for participation, but the religious organisations would be expected to guarantee NAPEP matching funds (NAPEP, 2001).

4.7.7: NAPEP/Telecom Providers Collaboration Programme

This is a collaboration programme that involves a partnership with telecom service providers especially (Global System for Mobile communication, GSM). It's aimed at providing jobs for the teaming unemployed youth through the provision of telecom kits for call centres. The telecom kits are provided on a subsidized rate repayable over a period of time from the proceeds of the business.

The Programme is introduced by NAPEP in recognition of the potential of Telecoms as a major growth industry in the 21st Century in Nigeria. it is aimed at providing employment to diverse groups of unemployed Nigerians, create a stable

source of income for participants to be economically empowered, boost their psycho-social wellbeing, morale, restore hope and confidence of the unemployed, especially graduates of tertiary institutions and school dropouts, and as well introduce participants to the area of banking.

The modalities for implementing the programme involve a partnership between NAPEP and Telecommunication companies. In the partnership, Globacom Limited provides a complete Call centre package for unemployed individuals. The packages in the centre includes, a NAPEP-Globacom branded Parasol, GSM handset, Globacom line, and one NAPEP Plastic Table and two Plastic Chairs.

The program is expected to generate a minimum monthly income of about N27, 000 from phone calls and sales of recharge cards alone. This is far above the minimum wage in the Civil Service. These items are provided to participants as a loan payable over one year period through daily deductions on their recharge cards. The programme is expected to create thousands of job opportunities for the poor and unemployed in the country within a short time.

To be able to participate in the programme, participants must have a minimum of SSCE qualification. It is as well open to all unemployed persons.

Furthermore, the selection of beneficiaries shall be restricted to service-receiving Local Government Areas within each state for ease of monitoring. Spread would be restricted to localities. Participants are expected to provide an acceptable guarantor to NAPEP Office who will endorse the application form with a current passport photograph of the guarantor. On the repayment of the loan, 5%

of every recharge card face value loaded shall be deducted at source by Glo-Mobile Limited until the total sum of N25, 000 is fully repaid.

In terms of implementing and coordinating the programme, the state offices are responsible for mounting a register to record recharge card loading which must include the following information: date of recharge, recharge card number and amount of recharge card, ensure the appointment of a NAPEP Desk Officer by Glo-Mobile Limited for designated dealers to provide needed services to participants, arrange for the training of participants by Glo-Mobile Limited.; designate a Desk Officer to facilitate liaison with participants and Glo-Mobile Limited; draw up monthly schedule to monitor performance of participants in view of the above, State Coordinator Committee is to forward monthly returns to headquarters detailing the total value of recharge cards loaded per participant.

For effective monitoring of the programme, State Offices are to oversee the monitoring of the programme in the whole state. While the Local Government Monitoring Committee Officer's monitors their LGMC communities. States/LGMC in collaboration are expected to carryout a monthly practical assessment of participants in their respective localities by visiting the individual Glo-Mobile Nigeria Ltd. Call centres are to ensure smooth running of the programme. A bi-monthly presentation of Statement Of Account of participants by the Glo-Mobile Nigeria Limited to the National Headquarters, in order to assess both the level of performance of participants and the programme itself (NAPEP, 2001).

4.7.8: In Care of the People (COPE)

COPE is coined from "in care of the people" has been developed by the National Poverty Eradication Programme after extensive consultation with stakeholders within and outside the country. Although conceptualized and designed by NAPEP, COPE will be implemented with support from the MDG office and in collaboration with SMEDAN and all participating states. Implementation of COPE became feasible following the availability of funds from the Debt Relief Gains (DRGs) of the Federal Government for the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals.

COPE provides grants to qualified poor households on the condition that they engage in investments in the human capital development of their children or ward. Specifically, qualified households are expected to fully participate in all free government basic education and healthcare programmes. By making the grants conditional on these investments in human capital development, COPE will help break the intergenerational transfer of poverty.

The objectives of the programme are to reduce vulnerability of the core poor in the society against existing socio-economic risks and to reduce intergenerational transfer of poverty.

The primary target groups of the programme are:

I. Poor Female-headed households with children of basic school age
II. Poor aged headed households with children of basic school age.
III. Physically challenged persons headed households with children of basic school age.

IV. Households headed by special groups (Victims of VVFs, PLWHAs and other vulnerable groups, with children of basic school age.

The conditions for Participation in the Scheme are:

i. Enrolment and retention of basic school aged children in basic Education (Primary one to Junior Secondary Education).
ii. Al least 80% school attendance
iii. Attendance in training for life and vocational skills, basic health and sanitation as available in the community.
iv. Participation of qualified children under 5 years in all Government free basic health programmes such as Vitamin A supplementation and NPI immunizations; and
v. Acceptance by participants of the conditions for the monthly savings arrangements of the programme.

However, the formula adopted by COPE'S for Funds Disbursement is

COPE=BIG+PRAI

BIG (Basic Income Guarantee)

PRAI (Poverty Reduction Accelerator Investment)

The BIG is monthly guaranteed income given to the heads of participating households. The amount received by each household will depend on the number of qualified children in the household. The BIG will be disbursed monthly on the satisfactory fulfillment of specified conditions as follows:

No of Children **Amount of BIG**

- 1 child N1,500
- 2-3 children N3,000
- 4 children and over N5,000

The PRAI is a guaranteed investment grant given to the head of the household toward the end of the programme to start a business of his/her own or invest in a profitable business venture that will yield sufficient income to sustain the household after the completion of 12 months of receiving the Basic Income guarantee (BIG). The PRAI represents a compulsory saving component of the COPE programme. With a monthly saving of N7,000 participating heads of households will receive a total of N84,000 as investment funds (NAPEP, 2001).

4.7.9 Village Economic Development Solutions (VEDS) Scheme

This is also called Villages Solutions; it is a local community-driven development programme designed by the Economic Growth and Development Center (EGDC) and adopted by NAPEP. In the Village Solutions, local villages/communities are guided in their community economic development efforts that involve modernizing their villages and promoting income generating activities.

Through the Village Solutions, villages are encouraged to see community development and poverty eradication as a joint responsibility to which every member of the village is a stakeholder and can be an active participant.

The Village Solutions is a truly bottom-up approach to community development where villages organize themselves into community development

groups, with the government providing technical expertise and an enabling environment.

The broad goal of the Village Economic Development Solutions scheme is Village Economic Transformation and Modernization, through human and physical development to raise village income, output and employment levels with the aim to eliminate extreme poverty and reduce its intergenerational transfer.

Other objectives of the scheme are to:

I. Promote effective mass participation in the economic development process in Nigeria;

II. Reduce intergenerational poverty;

III. Curb rural-urban migration

IV. Promote job creation and income generation;

V. Develop local and international markets for the goods and services of the poor.

VI. Promote community-driven development;

VII. Develop local skills;

VIII. Promote infrastructural development in communities and villages;

IX. Identify and optimally harness existing resources in the village for sustainable rural development;

X. Create the environment for effective economic linkages between Nigeria rural communities and the world;

XI. Promote a meaningful collaboration between the organized private sector, (OPS) local & state governments and our international partners in community development efforts.

The stakeholders in this scheme are the Federal government, State government, Local government, Village head and representatives, Private sector investors/businesses, and Non Governmental Organizations and Community Development Associations (CDA).

The institutional framework and modalities for the scheme include the followings:

i. Expansion and strengthening of the existing JIC Membership in the state to include the state chairman of ALGON, the representatives of the Hon. Commissioner for local government and Poverty Alleviation Agency in the state. Other members are to include representatives of ministries of commerce, works, women, youth affairs, water board and rural electrification agency.
ii. Community sensitization
iii. Identification of potentials of villages for development i.e. arable land, mineral resources, population, accessible roads etc;
iv. Formation of village management committee
v. Employment of Village Development Managers or NGO by the Village Management Committee.
vi. Formation of cooperatives and development unions and associations

vii. Setting up of a Village Trust Fund.

viii. Funding of the Village Trust Fund through donations, contributions or grants from local and State Governments to serve as seed-funds for equity participation in any viable local investment.

Also, the implementation guidelines for the scheme involve the followings:

i. Identification of an economic project by the community.

ii. Provision of a cost profile of the project.

iii. Assessment and sensitization visit to the community, Co-operative Society and project site.

iv. The community provides the initial 10% of the cost to be donated to Trust Fund Account (deducted form the source).

v. Village Management Committee appoints a village manager (individual or NGO who convenes regular meetings to discuss plans and way forward.

vi. All Stakeholders i.e. NAPEP, Bank, NGOs and communities sign MOU.

vii. Where the cost of the project is less than N500,000.00, the 1% Trust Fund should be used directly by the promoters to undertake community development projects.

viii. 60% of the Trust Fund to go into community development project and 40% to capacity widening activities.

ix. JIC to provide platform for which economic development can start in village.

x. Commencement of programme implementation (NAPEP, 2001).

4.7.10 NAPEP- Dangote Programme

As part of its objectives to create jobs, thereby reducing the rate of unemployment, NAPEP is entering into collaboration with Dangote Industries, an indigenous conglomerate with interests in food processing, cement production and other activities to give youths an opportunity to sell Dangote Spaghetti and Macaroni in all the States of the federation.

The objectives of the programme is to create jobs for the unemployed youths across the country under the NAPEP Mandatory Attachment Programme (MAP), provide marketable skills for sustainable employment, engage the private sector in creating more employment opportunities for youths, creating entrepreneurs in the marketing sector, and ensuring prudent use of meagre resources through complimentary efforts by government and the private sector.

The major activities of the programme are the sale of Dangote Spaghetti and Macaroni in all the 36 states in the country, including the FCT. This will create employment for 250 youths per state, thereby, creating close to 10,000 jobs in each phase of the programme.

In view of this, Dangote Industries is expected to pay each beneficiary a N5, 000 minimum monthly allowances. Participants are to start sale with a minimum of two cartons of spaghetti containing a total of 40 packs. They are to make N100 as sales commission per cartoon sold with not limits on the quantity they can sell/ in selling the minimum quantity, beneficiaries are expected to make at least N9, 000 per month. They are also given the opportunity to grow in the

business so as to become distributors or wholesalers using agreed performance criteria. This will further enhance their skill and competence in selling, marketing, distribution, and financial management.

In terms of operation, each Local Government in every State is expected to have approximately 10 participants in the programme. NAPEP is responsible for the designing of selection criteria for participants, in collaboration with the State and Local government authorities throughout the State Offices. NAPEP and Dangote Industries design training module to introduce participants to essential skills such as: product knowledge, selling skills, network marketing, and financial management. The distribution and marketing system are designed by Dangote Industries, NAPEP and Local Government Authorities.

The States and Local government authorities are to provide financial guarantees for first batch of products to be given to participants, approximately N3, 000,000 per state.

The screening and selection of beneficiaries will be undertaken by NAPEP, Local Government Chairman and the National Directorate of Employment (NDE). This is based on the following modalities: 250 beneficiaries representing their different local governments and state, list of prospective beneficiaries to be obtained from National Directorate of Employment's Register of unemployed in its states offices. They would then be screened by NAPEP, state and the local government councils. Finally, the state and local government is expected to provide guarantee of N3 million on participants (NAPEP, 2001).

4.7.11 Keke NAPEP Scheme

The KEKE NAPEP Scheme is another poverty eradication effort towards making unemployed youth gainfully employed. Under the scheme, NAPEP offers unemployed youth on an owner-operator's basis a 3-wheel passenger vehicle at a significant discount for transport business. To ensure the sustainability of the project, NAPEP maintains stocks of valuable spare parts nationwide and train service personnel for routine maintenance and repairs (NAPEP, 2001).

4.7.12: Community Economic Sensitization Scheme (COMESS)

This Programme was specially designed to address a major challenge to the poor in the lack of access to information. In line with the objectives of National Economic Empowerment Development Strategy (NEEDS), which is value re-oriented, COMESS is targeted at mobilizing, sensitizing and educating the poor on available options to create wealth and generate employment. To achieve this, NAPEP periodically uses mobile video vans, which also provide entertainment and show films.

NAPEP Collaboration with States and Local Governments

4.7.13 NAPEP Give Back Scheme

The Give-Back Scheme is a partnership between NAPEP and Nigerians at home and especially in the Diaspora. The main aim of the scheme is to create a large pool of resources for the improvement of the social well being of the poor in

the rural communities. Under the Give Back Scheme, Nigerians in the Diaspora (NIDOS) and other partners mobilize resources for development in identified local communities in Nigeria. NAPEP in turn provides or mobilizes marching counter part funds for micro credit for the communities' infrastructural development. This is an initiative of NAPEP aimed at the development of the rural communities where poverty is more rampant. The Give Back Programme is a poverty reduction strategy aimed at integrating Nigerians in the Diaspora into the nation's economic development process and the fight against poverty. The programme stresses the development of institutions and infrastructure as well as re-orientation of development strategies to include poverty eradication as a central object of development. The Give Back Programme emphasizes community ownership of development projects (NAPEP, 2001).

4.7.14 Millennium Village Project

The millennium village project involves NAPEP partnering with Donor Agencies to provide infrastructural facilities to a rural community. The purpose of the programme is to demonstrate to rural communities how community driven development can act as a catalyst for poverty reduction. Presently NAPEP is partnering with the Earth Institute run by Jeffery Sachs a foremost authority on Poverty on poverty to establish a millennium village in Kiyi in Kuje area council of Abuja.(NAPEP, 2003)

4.8 Structural organization of NAPEP

NAPEP implements its mandate through a structure of consultative Committees supported by offices/secretariats at the Federal, States and Local Government levels. The structure is as follows:

a. Local Government Monitoring Committees (LGMCs) with an office secretariat in the 774 Local Government Areas;
b. State Coordination Committees (SCCs) with office secretariats in all the 36 States and the FCT;
c. A State Poverty Eradication Council (SPECs) chaired by the Executive Governors in all 36 States;
d. A National Coordination Committee (NCC) chaired by a National Coordinator of Programme appointed by Mr. President, with an office secretariat in the office of the Secretary to the Government of the Federation (SGF); and
e. A National Poverty Eradication Council (NAPEC) chaired by Mr. President. (NAPEC, 2004)

4.8.1 NAPEP at the Local Government Level

At the Local Government level, a Local Government Monitoring Committee (LGMC) chaired by a political appointee was institutionalized and shouldered with the responsibilities of physically monitoring every relevant project and noting its impact on the community. At this level, the committees were also meant to convene community consultative fora to discuss all community needs, set poverty eradication targets and recommend on the appropriate process within the limits of resources available of achieving the set targets. The major product of this team is the compilation of all raw data and its regular updating on development efforts as planned and executed in the immediate environment. The delivery recipe of the LGMCs include:

- A grass-root political appointee to serve as committee chairman;
- Frequency of meeting at least once in every quarter;
- Committee secretariat located in the Local Government Administration headquarters;
- Full powers to implement all programmed interventions for the LGA.

The composition of the committee includes the Chairman who is appointed by the National Co-coordinator of Programme on the recommendation of the State Co-ordinator. Other members include: Vice Chairman of LGA, All supervisory Councillors; Representatives of donor agencies, NGOs and private sector organizations operating in the LGA; Representatives of the Traditional rulers in the LGA, Representatives of the three registered Political parties residing in that LGA.

The sole responsibility of this Committee shall be to:

a. Monitor the implementation of the poverty eradication programmes within their localities and prepare briefs for the State Coordination Committee.
b. propose new programmes based on consultations with the communities concerned; and
c. Ensure that the scope, implementation strategies and objectives identified by NAPEC are strictly adhered to within these localities.

4.8.2 NAPEP at the State Government Level

At the States level, there existed State poverty Eradication council and the State Coordinating Committees (SCC). These bodies and their compositions are discussed below:

4.8.2.1 State Poverty Eradication Council (SPEC)

This council is composed of the Executive Governor of a State as the Chairman and the Secretary to the State Government as the secretary. Other members include: Honourable Commissioners whose Ministries have direct

mandates on poverty eradication/reduction/alleviation; Representative of NAPEP from the National Headquarters; and State Co-ordinator of NAPEP and Chairman, State Co-ordination Committee (SCC)

The functions of SPEC are to:

a. Formulate and review all policies and strategies of State Government designed to eradicate/reduce poverty;
b. Set annual targets for institutions and agencies mandated to undertake such programmes;
c. Monitor the attainment of such targets;
d. Monitor the activities of the SCC through the quarterly report to be submitted to SPEC by the SCC;
e. Coordinate and harmonize all the activities of the State and Federal agencies, local and international agencies operating within the State with a view to complementing one another; and
f. Submit quarterly reports to the NCC for inputs into NAPEC reports.

The review of the activities of SPEC shall be a permanent agenda in the regular meetings of the National Economic Council (NEC) and the National Assessment and Evaluation committee (NAEC) of NAPEP

4.8.2.2 State Coordination Committee (SCC)

The State Coordination Committee is established in all the 36 States and FCT, in order to coordinate and supervise the execution of programmes under the

National Poverty Eradication Council (NAPEC) and provide a structural linkage between the States and the Federal Government.

The Composition of the Committee constitute of the Chairman who serves as the State Co-ordinator of Programmes appointed by Mr. President. Other Members are:

(i) Head of Unit from the relevant Federal Ministries in the States;

(ii) State Director of head of Unit of all relevant Parastatals operating in the State;

(iii) State Chairman of the Nigeria Labour Congress;

(iv) Three representatives from the State Government (one from each Senatorial District who are Civil/Public Servants)

(v) State Chairman of Nigerian Union of Journalists;

(vi) Representative of the State Council of Traditional Rulers;

(vii) Representative of each of the Registered Political parties; and

(viii) Representatives of donor agencies and private sector organizations, who are funding any programme in the State.

The functions of the State Co-ordination Committee is to:

a. Co-ordinate, supervise and monitor the implementation of Federal Government programmes in the State;

b. Provide the mechanism for collaboration between the Federal, State and Local Governments, as well as with international donor agencies, NGOs and private sector organizations;

c. Consider and advise on all matters relevant to the successful implementation of the programmes

d. Consider and make recommendations on how new programme initiatives; Prepare and submit Monthly Reports to the National Coordinator.

4.83 NAPEP at the Federal Government Level

At the Federal level, NAPEP operates with two bodies; the National Poverty Eradication Council (NAPEC) and the National Coordination Committee (NCC)

4.8.3.1 National Poverty Eradication council (NAPEC)

NAPEC composed of the President, Commander –in-Chief as its chairman, the Vice President as the Vice chairman, Secretary to Government of the Federation, (SGF) as the Secretary. Other Members are the Ministers of the following Ministries with direct mandates on poverty eradication:

i. Agriculture and Rural Development
ii. Education
iii. Health
iv. Water Resources
v. Works and Housing
vi. Employment, Labour and Productivity
vii. Women Affairs and Youth Development
viii. Environment

ix. Finance

x. Power and Steel

xi. Science and technology

xii. Industry

xiii. Solid Minerals

xiv. National Planning Commission and

xv. The national coordinator of Programme.

The functions of the council are to:

a. Formulate policy and review all policies and strategies of Government designed to alleviate and eradicate poverty;
b. Set annual targets for institutions and agencies of Government mandated to undertake such programmes as well as monitor the attainment of such targets;
c. Mobilise and allocate resources for approved programmes;
d. Establish the legislative and constitutional framework for the successful implementation of these programmes;
e. Approve and establish the proper administrative instrument necessary to ensure the implementation and success of poverty alleviation and eradication programmes; and
f. Monitor the functions of the Coordination Committees

4.8.3.2 National Coordination Committee (NCC)

The National Coordination Committee was established under the Presidency to implement and execute the directives and policy initiatives of the National Poverty Eradication Council (NAPEC). The committee comprised of the National coordinator of programmes appointed by the President as its Chairman; Designated Permanent Secretary from the office of the SGF as the Secretary. Other Members include:- Representatives from the relevant Federal Ministries not below the rank of a Director, President of the Nigerian Guild of editors, President of the Nigerian Labour Congress, and Representative from each of the Registered Political Parties.

The functions of the committee are to among other things:

a. Ensure the implementation of the policies and decisions of the NAPEC;
b. Collate and vet the programmes submitted by various implementing agencies, make preliminary approvals and submit same to NAPEC to necessary changes and final ratification.
c. Document poverty alleviation and eradication activities at all levels of Government;
d. Relate with Community Based Organisations (CBO) and NGOs in order to facilitate the development of their capabilities as well as foster partnership with them;
e. Co-ordinate and document the contributions of international donor agencies as well as the private sector in poverty alleviation and eradication programmes;

f. Undertake a periodic assessment of programme implementation and prepare reports accordingly for submission to NAPEC

g. Set-up other sub committees as may be required and

h. Do such things and carry out such other directives as may be given from time to time by NAPEC.

4.8.4: National Assessment And Evaluation Committee (NAEC)

To ensure the proper positioning of the Poverty Eradication Programmes within the context of the national economy and social policies of Government an overview and multi-agency Assessment and Evaluation Committee was established. The Committee composed of the Vice President as the chairman, National Planning Commissioner as the Secretary. Other members include representatives from the following:

- The Economic Policy Co-ordination Committee (EPCC)
- The National Economic Intelligence Committee (NEIC)
- The National Co-ordinator of Programme
- Federal Office of Statistics (FOS)
- NAPEC
- NGOs
- World Bank (Nigeria)
- UNDP (Nigeria)
- European Union (Nigeria)

However, the functions of the committee are to:

a. Monitor the achievement of set targets and assess the impact of programmes on target groups;

b. Prepare evaluation reports for NAPEC

For each priority area the State Coordination Committee (SCC) and the Local Government Monitoring Committees (LGMC) shall be required to submit quarterly reports that provide details on; where we are? Where we want to be? and How do we get there? such reports shall be collated by the NAPEP Secretariat and presented to the Federal Executive Council and by the National Economic Council and the National Assessment and Evaluation Committee.

There shall be a structured framework for monitoring and evaluation of the implementation of all the above property eradication programmes and projects. This structure shall follow the uniform administrative structure currently maintained in the country

a. In every State of the Federation and the FCT, the number of Local Government Areas along with their names shall be recorded
b. In each Local Government Area, the number of wards shall be recorded along with their names and locations
c. in each Ward, the number of villages shall be recorded along with their names and location
d. In every village, selected indicates of poverty reduction efforts including the availability of basic needs such as schools with details, portable water, healthcare facilities, and rural infrastructure shall be compiled to guide

Government on the community needs and level of implementation of poverty eradication programmes; and

e. A comprehensive and regularly updated Management Information System (MIS) of the above shall be maintained at the NAPEC Secretariat.

In order to impact profoundly positively on the lives of Nigerians, the poverty eradication activities shall be wide, varied by mainly grassroots, focused and shall be implemented by the Federal Ministries and agencies, States and Local Governments, Communities and International Donor Agencies with clearly defined mandates and targets as enumerated earlier.

Emphasis shall be placed on complementation, collaboration and coordination between the various tiers of government on the one hand and between Government, Donor Agencies, NGOs and local communities on the other.

4.8.5 Internal Structure of the NAPEP

At the headquarters, NAPEP maintains four (4) Departments as follows:

- Administration and Supplies;
- Monitoring and Evaluation;
- Research and Programme; and
- Finance and Accounts

4.8.5.1 Administration and Supplies Department

The Department of Administration and Supplies is an active support department responsible for logistics and staff support services for the organisation. It is involved in Appointments and Promotion, Discipline, Budget, Staff Welfare, Supplies, Training, Maintenance and Staff Offices.

The Unit has a 2 fold responsibility of managing the store e.g. ensuring availability of items both capital and consumables and giving out contracts for supplies and/or repairs when there is need for such. Annex 9 is a summary of the Stock Balances as at December, 2005.

4.8.5.2 Monitoring and Evaluation Department

The mandates of the Monitoring and Evaluation Department are:

i. Ensure collaboration, monitoring and assessment of the poverty related activities of NCC member Ministries and prepare report on same to NAPEC;

ii. Monitor the administration of the policy initiative and directives of NAPEC as given to the State Coordination Committees, to ensure adherence to policy objectives and non-duplication of functions;

iii. Collate reports from SPECs for NAPEP;

iv. Coordinate activities within the States and Local Government Councils;

v. Ensure periodic monitoring, assessment and reporting of programme implementation;

vi. Prepare periodic reports for the Federal Coordinator of Programme for NAPEC;

vii. All issues of performance monitoring, evaluations and qualitative impact assessment; and

viii. Ensure the development of databank through the development of an efficient Management Information System (MIS).

4.8.5.3 Research and Programme Coordination Department

The R&PD department has two divisions namely:

i.) Programme Development and ii) Micro Finance Coordination & Partnership. These divisions have the following functions:

a) Programme Development

- Preparing Annual Corporate Plan of Action;
- Policy formulation and direction of Programme implementations based on the revised Blueprint of NAPEP;

- Coordination Of annual Programme's Budget and estimates for Youth Empowerment Scheme (YES), Rural Infrastructure Development Scheme (RIDS), Social Welfare Services Scheme (SOWESS) and Natural Resources Development and Conservation Scheme (NRDCS);
- Formulating, documenting, publishing and implementation of programmes and widely disseminating same;
- Providing proper link between and amongst the Committees (NCC, SPECs, SCCs and LGMCs) and effective liaison with the three tiers of Government as well as implementing Agencies;
- Mobilising and allocating resources from Foreign Governments, UN Agencies and IDAs and the Private Sector for poverty eradication programmes; and
- Considering and advising on new programme initiatives;
- Any other duties that may be assigned.

b) Micro Finance Coordination and Partnership Division

This Division provides possible assistance to the Micro Finance providers in the financial circle with a bid to facilitate development in the sub sector thus:

The NAPEP revolving Micro Credit Coordination is being implemented in 12 States and as pilot.

The Multi-partner Micro Finance Scheme is in process and will hopefully be launched in 2005. The scheme entails NAPEP's partnering with the States and Local Government, Commercial banks as well as with wealthy Nigerians with a view to 'pulling large amount of fund' to be extended to the active poor that would otherwise lack access to such funds.

4.8.5.4 Finance and Accounts Department

The Finance and Accounts Department handles financial matters of the Programme including receipts, payments, custodian of funds, and maintenance of accounting records and renders periodic financial reports/returns for internal and external use, at both the headquarters and state offices.

The department is divided to two main units: Finance and Accounts. These are in turn subdivided into two sections each as follows:

1. Finance - Finance, Salaries
2. Accounts - Projects Accounts, Final Accounts. These are further subdivided into fourteen Units aimed at capturing the functional areas of the department. www.napep.gov.ng---2006

4.9 Funding of NAPEP

The Poverty Eradication Fund (PEF) which is administered by the National Poverty Eradication Council directly funds the National Poverty Eradication Programme. However, all poverty alleviation programmes originally budgeted for by participating ministries will continue to be funded from those budgetary provisions under the supervision of NAPEC.

NAPEP is also funded from contributions given to it by state and local governments, the private sector and special deductions from the Consolidated Fund of the Federal Government.

It also gets donations from international donor agencies such as the World Bank, the United Nations Development Programme, the European Union, and the

Department for International Development, the Japanese International Cooperation Agency, and the German Technical Assistance.

Thus, the sources of the NAPEP's fund can be seen as: Withholding Tax on Contracts (WHTC), Petroleum Technology Development Fund (PTDF), Education Tax fund (ETF), Niger Delta Development (NDDC) and Budget Allocation. The Programme is also empowered to solicit independent sources of funds from International Donor Agencies (IDAs); Community Banks (CBs), Corporate Bodies and Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs)

When NAPEP came on stream in January 2001, it was given a take-off grant of N6 billion. This money was used to establish NAPEP structures in 36 states, the Federal Capital Territory, Abuja and 744 local government councils. Part of the money was also used in the NAPEP employment generation intervention which translated to the training of 100,000 youths, attaching 50,000 unemployed graduates in various places of work, training of over 5000 people in tailoring and fashion design, and the establishment of rural telephone networks in 125 local government areas.

Other uses to which the money was put include the delivery of the delivery of the KEKE-NAPEP three-wheeler vehicle project involving 2000 units in all the state capitals of Nigeria, the establishment of 147 youth information centres across the senatorial districts, the delivery of informal micro credit ranging from N10,000 to N50,000 to 10,000 beneficiaries most of whom were women, and so on.(nigeriafirst.org-----21 february, 2003)

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents analyses and interprets the primary and secondary data generated in the course of the research. The chapter is organized into seven sections. The first section introduces the chapter and the details of the questionnaire administration. Section two discusses the background information of respondents including their demographic variables. The third section is a detailed analysis of the data relating to the issue of coordination in NAPEP and its effect on the programme's success which is the first hypothesis of the study. Section four captures issue of management capacity of NAPEP and how it affects success of the programme. This represents the second hypothesis of the study. The fifth section is an issue relating to the Environmental Factors and how they influence the programme's success to alleviating poverty in the study areas, which is the third hypothesis of the study. The sixth section discusses and interprets the test of hypotheses for the study while the last section contains summary of the major findings arrived at in the course of the research.

However, it was earlier stated that the study utilizes both primary and secondary data with questionnaire, interview and observations as tools for generating the primary data while the secondary data generated from various publications. In analyzing the data presented in sections two, three and four of this chapter, Pearson chi-square was applied in testing the related hypotheses.

5.1.1 Rate of Questionnaire Returns

Two questionnaire sets were administered to the respondents; one set to the staff sample while the other to the beneficiaries sample. Simple random sampling and Cluster sampling procedures were applied respectively. A total of 39 questionnaires were administered to the staff sample and a total of 354 to the beneficiaries sample in Kaduna and Bauchi states. However, out of the 39 units of questionnaires administered to the staff and 354 to the beneficiaries, only 35 and 321 were duly completed and returned respectively. The table below shows the summary:

Table 5.1: Rate of Questionnaire Returns

State	**Questionnaire Administered**		**Questionnaire Returned**		**Percentage of Return**	
	Staff	**Beneficiaries**	**Staff**	**Beneficiaries**	**Staff**	**Beneficiaries**
Kaduna	20	209	18	192	90.0	91.9
Bauchi	19	145	17	129	89.5	88.8
Total	**39**	**354**	**35**	**321**	**89.7**	**90.7**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2010

From the table above, a total of 35 questionnaires were returned from the staff sample size which represents 89.7% of the entire questionnaires administered to them. For the beneficiaries' sample, a total of 321 representing 90.7% of the questionnaires administered were retrieved. The breakdown of the responses generated as indicated in the table also shows that 90.0% and 91.9%

of the questionnaires administered to staff and beneficiaries respectively in Kaduna state were retrieved while their respective counterparts in Bauchi were 89.5% and 88.8%. Therefore, the percentages of returns from both the staff and the beneficiaries are considered adequate or reasonable enough for comprehensive analysis and generalization.

5.2 Background Information of Respondents

This section discusses the demographic variables of the respondents from both staff and beneficiaries categories. The issues discussed include the gender, marital status, highest educational level and other related issues. These are discussed in subsequent parts of the section:

5.2.1 Gender of the Respondents

In order to determine the composition of our respondents from both staff and beneficiaries in terms of gender, we ask them to state their respective sexes. This will enable us to know the proportion of males to females in terms of staff composition and in terms of benefitting from the NAPEP intervention schemes in the selected states. The responses gathered are tabulated below:

Table 5.2 Gender of the Respondents

Gender	**Staff**	**Percentage %**	**Beneficiaries**	**Percentage %**
Male	23	65.7	204	63.6
Female	12	34.3	117	36.4
Total	**35**	**100**	**321**	**100**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

The table above summarises the demographic characteristics of the respondents. We shall see from the data that 65.5% of our respondents from the staff category were males while the remaining 34.3% were females. This indicates that about 2/3 of the responses generated from the staff came from males. The data also indicate that NAPEP employs both sexes in its activities on poverty reduction.

As regards to the beneficiaries, the data show that 63.6% of the entire responses were generated from male beneficiaries while 36.4% were from female beneficiaries. Although, it is clear that majority of the respondents were males, it is also evident that females also benefited from the programme in the selected states. Thus, NAPEP intervention schemes cut across both males and females.

5.2.2 Respondents Classification by Age

It is also of important to ascertain the age categories of the respondents from both staff and beneficiaries. This will enable us to determine the age brackets of individuals that engage more in the service of NAPEP as well as the category of age that benefited more from the intervention schemes of NAPEP. The responses generated on age issues are presented in table 5.3 below.

Table 5.3: Respondents Classification by Age

Age range	Staff	Percentage %	Beneficiaries	Percentage %
Less Than 21 Years	0	0	30	9.3
21 – 30 years	5	14.3	61	19.0
31 – 40 years	15	42.9	67	20.9
41 – 50 years	11	31.4	87	27.1
51 – 60 years	4	11.4	45	14.0
61 year above	0	0	31	9.7
Total	**35**	**100%**	**321**	**100%**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

From the data presented on the table above, we can see that, 14.5% of the respondents from staff category were individuals whose ages range between 21 and 30 years. Those whose ages were between 31 and 40 constituted about 42.9% of the respondents; while about 31.4% of the entire responses were from staff of 41 to 50 years of age. Since none of the respondents has his age ranging from 0 to 20 or 61 and above, the remaining 11.4% of the responses were generated from staff of 51 to 60 years. The pattern of the data revealed that majority of the staff of NAPEP in Bauchi and Kaduna state were individuals in their active and productive ages with over 74% of them falling within the age bracket of 31 to 50 years. However, taking into consideration the nature of the job that involves physical presence in towns and villages, we may expect a higher dedication and commitment from individuals in their active and productive ages.

The data regarding the beneficiaries also indicate that individuals from all age brackets benefited from the programme with varying degrees. It can be seen that 9.3% of the respondents from beneficiaries were individuals of 20 years of age or below while those whose ages range from 21 years to 30 years were 19.0%. However, 20.9% of them fall within the age bracket of 31 years to 40 years. Majority of the responses, standing at 27.1% were individuals whose ages fall between 41 years and 50 years while 14.0% represents individuals of 51years to 60 years of age. The remaining 9.7% of the responses were generated from elderly people that were above 60 years. What the data show is that NAPEP intervention scheme covers people across all ages indicating that poverty is not age bias.

5.2.3 Respondents' Marital Status

We also seek to determine the marital status of our respondents from both staff and beneficiaries categories. This will enable us to ascertain the marital composition o the staff that serve NAPEP in Kaduna and Bauchi state. We will also be guided in appreciating the sensitiveness of the programme to marital issue of the beneficiaries. The responses generated are presented in the table 5.4 below.

Table 5.4 Respondents' Marital Status

Status	Staff	Percentage %	Beneficiaries	Percentage %
Single	8	22.9	61	19.0
Married	25	71.4	199	62.0
Divorced	0	0	18	5.6
Widowed	2	5.7	43	13.4
Total	**35**	**100**	**321**	**100%**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

From the table above, we can clearly see that 22.9% of our staff respondents were singles while as high as 71.4% were married people. Since none of the staff respondents was divorced, the remaining 5.7% were widows. This implies that, most of the staff were married individuals who were expected to be disciplined and dedicated.

On the beneficiaries' side, we shall see that 19.0% of our respondents were singles; 62.0% were married; 5.6% were divorcees while the reaming 14.5% were widows. This of course reveals to us that majority of the respondents from beneficiaries were also married although we have those that were in other marital classes. The data also show to us that benefiting from NAPEP programme is not restricted to a particular martial class.

5.2.4 Educational Attainments of the Respondents

Respondents were further required to indicate their highest educational attainments. This will enable us to determine the quality of NAPEP staffing and the type of qualifications being employed in the organisation. We will also ascertain

the type of educational attainment needed to qualify for benefiting from the NAPEP intervention scheme. The responses generated from this are tabulated below:

Table 5.5: Educational Attainments of the Respondents

Educational Attainment	**Staff**	**Percentage %**	**Beneficiaries**	**Percentage %**
Postgraduate	8	22.9	13	4.0
Degree/HND	15	42.9	58	18.1
NCE/AND/OND	10	28.6	51	15.9
WAEC/GCE/NECO/SSCE	2	5.7	78	24.3
Primary Certificate	0	0	51	15.9
No Western Education	0	0	70	21.8
Total	**35**	**100**	**321**	**100**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

From the table above, we shall see that 22.9% of the staff respondents were individuals that have postgraduate qualifications. Those with first degree or HND consisted of 42.5% of the entire respondents. However, NCE/AND/OND holders were about 28.6% of the respondents while the remaining 5.7% have O level as their requirements. None of the staff was has below secondary school certificate. The pattern of the responses indicate that, majority of the respondents have first degree HND or above as their qualifications.

The data regarding the beneficiaries indicate that only 4.0% of our respondents attained postgraduate qualifications while about 18.5% have either first degree or HND as their qualifications. However, 15.5% of them have NCE/AND/OND as qualifications. Majority of the respondents, standing at 24.3% have secondary school certificates or equivalent as their highest qualifications. Also, 15.9% of the respondents attended only primary school while the remaining 21.5% have no western education. What the data show is that, some of the beneficiaries were graduates of higher institutions of learning. This could be as a result of the fact that some programmes such as MAP were only benefited by such category of beneficiaries. Some of them also have no western education. This could be due to the fact that some programmes like FEP or COPE required no western education before an individual benefits. What is important is that NAPEP beneficiaries cut across individuals of different educational attainments.

5.2.5 Occupation of the Beneficiaries

We further seek to ascertain from our respondents in beneficiaries' category, the occupations they belonged to. The responses generated from this are tabulated below.

Table 5.6: Occupation of the Beneficiaries

Occupation	**Frequency**	**Percentage %**
Farming	103	32.1
Trading	68	21.2
Student	49	15.3
House Wife	39	12.1
Civil Service	11	3.4
Others	51	15.9
Total	**321**	**100**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

From the table above, we can see that, 32.1% of our respondents were farmers while 21.2% engaged in trading activities. Also, 15.3% of the responses came from those that were attending schools or in other words, students. Those that were house wives constituted 12.1% of the respondents. Those that were in civil service stood at 3.4% of the total responses. However, 15.9% of the respondents argued that they belong to other categories of occupations different from above. Majority of those that opted for other occupations indicated "unemployed" as their occupation while few indicated "hunting" as their occupation. Thus, we can clearly say that NAPEP intervention schemes were benefited by individuals of different occupations.

5.2.6 Number of People in Household

Respondents from beneficiaries' category were also required to indicate the number of people in their respective households. The responses generated are tabulated below:

Table 5.7: Number of People in the Household

Number of People	**Frequency**	**Percentage %**
1-5	71	22.1
6-10	62	19.3
11-15	43	13.4
16-20	76	23.7
Above 20	69	21.5
Total	**321**	**100**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

From the table above, we shall see that 22.1% of the respondents numbered between 1 and 5 in the household while those that were between 6 and 10 in number in their household stood at 19.3% of the respondents. However, 13.4% of the respondents have their number ranging from 11 to 15 in their household. Beneficiaries whose numbers in the household were between 16 and 20 stood at 23.7% while the remaining 21.5% of the respondents were above 20 in number in their household. Thus, NAPEP's beneficiaries cut across different sizes of households.

5.3 Coordination and Success of NAPEP

Coordination of activities at various levels is one of the key ingredients to effective administration of any given organization or programme. Without good coordination the desired results of an organisation may not be achieved.

However, one of the fundamental mandates of NAPEP is the coordination of all government poverty alleviation efforts in the country. The issue of coordination in NAPEP takes many dimensions. One of these is the coordination between the organization and other government poverty alleviation institutions in the country such as NDE, SMIDA and other ministries. Another dimension of coordination is the coordination with the collaborating private sector enterprises that engage in complementary activities with NAPEP. Apart of these there is also coordination of activities between the Federal, State and local government offices of NAPEP as well s coordination within the internal structure of the institution.

The effectiveness of coordination at various facets is one of the key issues that imply effective administration of the programme and hence success of the institution in reducing poverty in the country. In relation to the coordination issue, various issues were raised and data were generated to verify the existence of relationship between coordination of activities in NAPEP and its success in alleviating poverty in the country as discussed below:

5.3.1 Responses on Coordination of NAPEP Activities

Staff respondents were required to indicate their level of agreement on the existence of coordination of NAPEP activities in their states. The responses generated are tabulated below.

Table 5.8: Responses on Coordination of Activities in NAPEP

Option	**Frequency**	**Percentage %**
Strongly Agreed	5	14.3
Agreed	14	40.0
Undecided	6	17.1
Disagreed	8	22.9
Strongly Disagreed	2	5.7
Total	**35**	**100.0**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

From the table above, 14.3% of our respondents strongly agreed that there was coordination of activities in NAPEP. About 40.0% of the respondents expressed their agreement on the assertion. However, those that remained undecided in their view stood at 17.5% of the entire responses. 22.9% of the respondents disagreed with the assertion while the remaining 5.6% of the respondents show their strong disagreement. Thus, with more than half of the respondents accepting that there was coordination in NAPEP activities. We can equally accept with the assertion that coordination existed in NAPEP.

5.3.2 Effectiveness of Coordination among the Federal, State and Local Government NAPEP offices

It is a fact that there is a relationship between NAPEP offices at various levels. In order to ascertain whether such coordination is effective, we asked the respondents to state their views on how they perceived the effectiveness of coordination among these offices. The responses were gathered from this are tabulated below:

Table 5.9: Responses on Effectiveness of Coordination among the Federal, State and Local Government NAPEP Offices

Option	**Frequency**	**Percentage %**
Very Effective	4	11.4
Effective	6	17.1
Undecided	6	17.1
Ineffective	11	31.4
Very Ineffective	8	22.9
Total	**35**	**100**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

From the table above, we can clearly see that 11.5% of the respondents from the staff category rated the level of coordination among these offices to be very effective. 17.1% of them also argued that the coordination was effective. Another set of 17.1% remained undecided. However, the respondents that believed that the coordination was ineffective constituted about 31.4% of the

entire responses. The remaining 22.9% of the respondents indicated the quality of coordination to be very ineffective. Thus, we can infer here that, although there existed coordination of activities among the three offices of NAPEP, it is evident that such coordination among NAPEP offices was low indicating its ineffectiveness.

5.3.3 Effectiveness of Collaboration between NAPEP and other Government Poverty Alleviation Institutions

NAPEP acts in collaboration with other government poverty alleviation institutions in the country. It coordinates and collaborates with institutions such as NDE, SMIDA and other relevant government agencies. In order to determine the effectiveness of the collaboration that existed between the institution and other government institutions, respondents were required to express their view regarding the effectiveness of collaboration between them. The responses generated are tabulated below:

Table 5.10 Responses on Effectiveness of Collaboration between NAPEP and other Government Poverty Alleviation Institutions

Option	**Frequency**	**Percentage %**
Very Effective	6	17.1
Effective	8	22.9
Undecided	5	14.3
Ineffective	12	34.3
Very Ineffective	4	11.4
Total	**35**	**100**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

The data in the table above show that 17.1% of the respondents were of the view that there was very effective collaboration between NAPEP and other government poverty alleviation institutions. A set of 22.9% rated the level to be effective. Those that opined "undecided" `stood at 14.3% of the entire responses. 34.5% also rated the effectiveness to be low while the remaining 11.4% expressed that there was very ineffective collaboration. Thus, we can still say that there existed collaboration between these parties but conducted ineffectively.

5.3.4 Level of Beneficiaries' Awareness of the Activities of NAPEP

We also seek to determine the level of awareness as regards to the activities of NAPEP by the beneficiaries. This will also show their levels of knowledge on the operation of the agency. The responses generated are tabulated below:

Table 5.11 Responses on Level of Beneficiaries' Awareness of the Activities of NAPEP

Option	**Frequency**	**Percentage %**
Very High	97	30.2
High	119	37.1
Undecided	38	11.8
Low	35	10.9
Very Low	32	10.0
Total	**321**	**100**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

From the table above, 30.5% of the respondents argue that they have very high knowledge on the operations of NAPEP while those that rated such level as high were 37.5% of the entire responses. However, 11.8% of the respondents remained undecided. A set of 10.9% of the respondents believed that such level was low. Those that rated their level of awareness as very low were 10.0% of the respondents. What this information show is that, majority of the respondents have a knowledge or awareness on the activities of NAPEP.

5.3.5 Level of Satisfaction with the Coordination of Activities in NAPEP

Beneficiaries were also required to state the extent in which they were satisfied with the coordination of activities by the NAPEP. Their responses are shown in the table below.

Table 5.12 Responses on Level of Satisfaction with Coordination of Activities in NAPEP by the Beneficiaries

Option	**Frequency**	**Percentage %**
Very High	29	9.0
High	68	21.2
Undecided	32	10.0
Low	139	43.3
Very Low	53	16.5
Total	**321**	**100**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

From the above table, it is clear that 9.0% of the respondents that they were highly satisfied with the coordination function of NAPEP in terms of its

activities. 21.20% also expressed their satisfaction level to be high. Those that opined "undecided" were about 10.0% of the entire responses. However, as high as 43.3% of the respondents have low level of satisfaction with the activities of NAPEP in terms of coordination while the remaining 16.5% of the respondents expressed their satisfaction level as very low. Thus, from the responses, we shall say that the kind of coordination of activities in NAPEP was such that could not adequately meet beneficiaries' satisfaction.

5.3.6 Beneficiaries' Level of Satisfaction with the Relationship between NAPEP and the Collaborating Enterprises

Some of the schemes of NAPEP such as CAP and MAP were conducted with the participation of private enterprises. It is against this that beneficiaries were required to express their level of satisfaction with the relationship between NAPEP and those collaborating enterprises. The responses generated from this are presented in the table below.

Table 5.13 Responses on Beneficiaries' Level of Satisfaction with the Relationship between NAPEP and the Collaborating Private Enterprises

Option	**Frequency**	**Percentage %**
Highly Satisfied	54	16.8
Satisfied	68	21.2
Undecided	39	12.1
Dissatisfied	101	31.5
Highly dissatisfied	59	18.4
Total	**321**	**100**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

From the table above, 16.8% of our respondents were highly satisfied with the relationship between NAPEP and its collaborating enterprises while those that expressed that they were satisfied constituted about 21.2% of the respondents. Also, 12.1% were undecided in their responses. Those that argued that they were dissatisfied with the relationship were 31.8% of the respondents while the remaining 18.4% of the respondents were highly dissatisfied with such relationships. Thus, we can deduce here, that, the beneficiaries were not actually satisfied with the relationship between NAPEP and its collaborating enterprises.

5.3.7 Effectiveness of Coordination between NAPEP and its collaborating Enterprises

Respondents from the staff category were required to indicate the effectiveness of coordination between NAPEP and its collaborating enterprises in their states. Their responses are presented in the table below.

Table 5.14 Respondents Perceptions on the Effectiveness of Coordination between NAPEP and its collaborating Enterprises

Option	**Frequency**	**Percentage %**
Very Effective	6	17.1
Effective	9	25.7
Undecided	3	8.6
Ineffective	10	28.6
Very Ineffective	7	20.0
Total	**35**	**100**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

From the table above, 17.1% of the respondents perceived that there existed very effective coordination between NAPEP and its collaborating private enterprises in the state. Also, 25.7% of the respondents expressed that the coordination was effective while 8.6% remained undecided. However, 28.6% rated the coordination as ineffective while the remaining 20.5% opined that that the coordination was very ineffective.

5.4 Management Capacity and Success of NAPEP

It is our believe that the managerial capacity of those that administer a given programme or institution has a direct consequence on the outcome of such programme or institution. Management capacity as regard to NAPEP involves issues of leadership, quality of staffing, judicious use of resources and application of credibility in selecting beneficiaries of the programme. These issues may of course, influence the success or otherwise of the programme. It is against this that we seek to ascertain through hypothetical postulations whether there is a relationship between the management capacity and success of NAPEP in poverty reduction in the selected states. Empirical data were generated in this regard as presented and analysed in subsequent parts of this section.

5.4.1 Existence of Effective Planning of Activities in NAPEP

Planning is one of the functions of Administration in any organization. Effective planning by those in charge of managing particular institution or activity obviously implies good managerial capacity. In line with this, our respondents from staff category were required to indicate their level of agreement on the

assertion that there was an effective planning of activities in NAPEP. The responses we generated are presented in the table below:

Table 5.15 Responses on Existence of Effective Planning of Activities by NAPEP

Option	**Frequency**	**Percentage %**
Strongly Agreed	3	8.6
Agreed	7	20.0
Undecided	3	8.6
Disagreed	13	37.1
Strongly Disagreed	9	25.7
Total	**35**	**100**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

From the table above, we shall see that, 8.6% of the respondents strongly agreed that there was effective planning of activities in NAPEP. About 20.0% of them also expressed their agreement while 8.6% were undecided on the issue. However, about 3.71% of the respondents disagreed with the assertion while the remaining 25.7% of the respondents expressed their strong disagreement. This shows that planning of activities in NAPEP was not effective.

However, interviews were conducted to some of the staff in the service of NAPEP in the two states regarding the conceptual planning of the programme. What most of the interviewees expressed was that, right from the conceptualization or formation of the programme, the targeted beneficiaries/poor were not consulted for their inputs in the process. This is to say that, grass root

inputs were not adequately sought and the diversities of the Nigerian populace and natural endowments of different segments of the society were not effectively taken into consideration. The schemes were meant to be applied in all the 36 states of the federation and the FCT irrespective of the peculiarities of different local settings. This of course, serves as a setback to the administration of the programme. Thus, the programme took a top-down approach at the expense of bottom-top approach.

5.4.2 Effectiveness of Monitoring of activities in NAPEP

Monitoring of how poverty alleviation efforts are carried out in the country is one of the mandates of NAPEP. The staff monitor activities such as beneficiaries selection, disbursement of funds and repayment of funds by beneficiaries of some programmes among others. It is against this that we sought to determine from the staff the effectiveness of such monitoring of activities in NAPEP. The responses generated are tabulated below:

Table 5.16 Responses on Effectiveness of Monitoring of Activities in NAPEP

Option	**Frequency**	**Percentage %**
Very effective	2	5.7
Effective	9	25.7
Undecided	5	14.3
Ineffective	12	34.3
Very Ineffective	7	20.0
Total	**35**	**100**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

From the table above, we shall see that, 5.7% of the respondents argued that there was very effective monitoring of activities in NAPEP. Those that expressed that, the monitoring was effective constituted 25.7% of the respondents. However, 14.3% remained undecided while as high as 34.3% argued that such monitoring level was ineffective. The remaining 20.0% rated the monitoring level to be very ineffective. Thus, we can clearly see that there was no effective monitoring of activities in the NAPEP.

However, we conducted interviews to some of the respondents, the result of which attested to the information generated through the questionnaire. This is because, the interview revealed that there were no adequate monitoring in the disbursement process, authenticity of the beneficiaries, utilization of the funds given to the beneficiaries as well as timely repayment of the loans given to the beneficiaries. In fact, some of the key personnel at the headquarters of the two

states confirmed to us that, prior to 2009, only about 25% of the loans given to beneficiaries of some programmes such as FEP were returned out of the amount due for refund as at that period. The main reason for that was absence of good monitoring as expressed by those key functionaries. Thus, ineffectiveness of monitoring of the administration of programme was another managerial challenge in NAPEP in the two states.

5.4.3 Dedication to Duties by NAPEP Staff

Respondents from the beneficiaries sample were required to express their opinions on dedication to duties by the staff of NAPEP or in other words, whether they were satisfied with the commitment shown by the staff in discharging their duties; the responses we generated are tabulated below:

Table 5.17 Beneficiaries' Perceptions on Dedication to Duties by NAPEP's Staff

Option	**Frequency**	**Percentage %**
Very Dedicated	23	7.2
Dedicated	62	19.3
Undecided	91	28.3
Undedicated	103	32.1
Very Undedicated	42	13.1
Total	**321**	**100**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

From the table above, we shall see that 7.2% of the respondents argued that the NAPEP staff were very dedicated to their duties while 19.3% expressed

that the staff could be perceived to have dedicated themselves to the service of NAPEP. Although 28.3% were undecided in their decision, about 32.1% have the feeling that the staff were undedicated while the remaining 13.1% expressed that the staff in focus were very undedicated. Therefore, we can say that dedication to duty was not actually adequate by the staff.

5.4.4 Level of Satisfaction with the Management Pattern of NAPEP

Staff were also asked to indicate their level of satisfaction with the management pattern of NAPEP at Federal, State and Local Government levels. The responses we generated are shown in the table below.

Table 5.18 Responses on Level of Satisfaction with the Management Pattern of NAPEP

Option	**Frequency**	**Percentage %**
Very High	2	5.7
High	6	17.1
Undecided	2	5.7
Low	16	45.7
Very Low	9	25.7
Total	**35**	**100**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

From the table above, we can see that 5.7% of the respondents expressed their level of satisfaction with the management pattern as very high while 17.1% rated it as high. 5.7% also were undecided on the issue while as high as 45.7% rated their satisfaction level as low. However, the remaining 25.7% rated it as

very low. It is clear from the above data that the staff were not fully satisfied with the managerial pattern of NAPEP.

5.4.5 Extent of Job Satisfaction

The extent in which a worker is satisfied with his job is obviously one of the determining factors to his dedication to duties as well as his ability to act effectively. Staff were required to indicate whether they were actually satisfied with their job in NAPEP. The responses on the levels of satisfaction are presented in the table below:

Table 5.19 Responses on Extent of Job Satisfaction

Option	**Frequency**	**Percentage %**
Highly Satisfied	5	14.3
Satisfied	7	20.0
Undecided	3	8.6
Unsatisfied	11	31.4
Highly Unsatisfied	9	25.7
Total	**35**	**100**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

From the table above, we can clearly see that 14.3% of our respondents argued that they were highly satisfied with the job while 20.0% expressed that they were satisfied; and 8.6% were undecided in their view. 31.4% however expressed that they were unsatisfied with job while the remaining 25.7% of the

respondents expressed their high level of dissatisfied. This revealed to us that the extent of job satisfaction among workers in NAPEP was low or in other words, they were not satisfied with the job. This can however be linked to the respondents view that there was no adequate motivation in the service of NAPEP. In addition, the situation of low dedication to duty could be attributed to low job satisfaction and poor motivation as perceived by the respondents.

5.4.6 Absence of the Acts of Corruption, Indiscipline or Abuses among NAPEP Staff

Respondents from both staff and beneficiaries categories were asked to indicate their levels of agreement on the assertion that there were no acts of corruption, irresponsibility, or abuses among the staff in the service of NAPEP, the responses we generated are tabulated below.

Table 5.20 Responses on Absence of the Acts of Corruption, Indiscipline, Abuses or Irresponsibility among NAPEP Staff

Option	**Staff**	**Percentage %**	**Beneficiaries**	**Percentage %**
Strongly Agreed	6	17.1	29	9.0
Agreed	5	14.3	67	20.9
Undecided	8	22.9	88	27.4
Disagreed	10	28.6	91	28.3
Strongly Disagreed	6	17.1	46	14.3
Total	**35**	**100**	**321**	**100**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

From the table above, 17.1% and 9.0% of the respondents from the staff and the beneficiaries' samples respectively argued that there were no acts of corruption, indiscipline, abuses or irresponsibility among the staff in the NAPEP service. Those that agreed with such assertion stood at 14.3% of the staff respondents and 20.9% of the beneficiaries respondents. 22.9% and 27.4% from staff and beneficiaries respectively remained undecided. Those that disagreed with the assertion from the staff and beneficiaries were 28.6% and 28.3% respectively while the remaining 17.1% of the staff respondents strongly disagreed with the assertion. Those with the same view from the beneficiaries were 14.3% of the total respondents. Thus, although a good percentage of the respondents from the two classes were undecided in their view, we can say that such acts existed among the NAPEP staff in the selected states.

5.4.7 Credibility of Selection Criteria

Respondents from both staff and beneficiaries were required to express their opinion on the assertion regarding the credibility of criteria adopted by the management in selecting beneficiaries to the NAPEP programme. The responses generated from this are tabulated below.

Table 5.21 Responses on Credibility of Selection Criteria

Option	Staff	Percentage %	Beneficiaries	Percentage %
Highly Credible	4	11.4	11	3.4
Credible	4	11.4	52	16.2
Undecided	6	17.1	51	15.9
Not Credible	13	37.1	102	31.8
Highly Not Credible	8	22.9	105	32.7
Total	**35**	**100**	**321**	**100**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

From the table above, it is clear that 11.4% and 3.4% of the respondents from staff and beneficiaries respectively accept that the criteria that reigned in the selection process were highly credible. 11.4% and 16.2% of the respondents from these two groups respectively also rated the criteria as credible. Those that remained undecided from staff were 17.1% and 15.9% from the beneficiaries. However, a good number standing of 37.1% of the staff argued that the criteria were not credible. Those that shared similar view from the beneficiaries stood at 31.8%. Some of the respondents who stood at 22.9% from the staff and 32.7% from the beneficiaries believed that selection criteria were highly not credible. The trend of the responses generated from the questionnaires revealed to us that there was no credibility in selecting beneficiaries to the programme implying that other issues were considered in selecting the beneficiaries.

However, interviews were conducted to some of the staff and some of the beneficiaries of the NAPEP. From the information gathered, the ideal and stipulated method of selecting beneficiaries was through an application written by individuals who are wishing to benefit from the programme and who meet the requirements. These are to be written to the state coordinators through the secretary of the programme of the state. These applications would be considered and if approved, the applicant would be given the opportunity to benefit from the programme regardless of his political affiliation or other related issues. But, what many of the interviewees revealed to us was that this process was not practically applied as thousands of qualified applications were not given due consideration due to political interference by key government functionaries. These key government functionaries usually hijack the programme and give the names of those they have interest on them as their candidates who at the end would emerge as the beneficiaries at the expense of those who were meant to benefit from the programme. But, there were still few others who were meritoriously or credibly selected to benefit from the programme.

5.4.8 Absence of Funding Problem

Respondents from the two samples were also asked to respond to the assertion that there was no funding problem in NAPEP or in other words, NAPEP has no adequate fund to carryout its activities. The responses generated in this respect are tabulated below:

Table 5.22: Responses on Absence of Funding Problem

Option	Staff	Percentage %	Beneficiaries	Percentage %
Strongly Agreed	0	0	4	1.2
Agreed	3	8.6	36	11.2
Undecided	1	2.9	43	13.4
Disagreed	7	20.0	46	14.3
Strongly Disagreed	24	68.6	192	59.8
Total	**35**	**100**	**321**	**100**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

The table above gives information on the views of the respondents as regard to the issue of funding. The data shows that none of the respondents from the staff category strongly agreed that NAPEP has no funding problem while in the beneficiaries' category 1.2% of them strongly agreed with that. However, 8.6% and 11.2% of the responses from the staff and the beneficiaries respectively agreed with the assertion. Those that were undecided in their views were 2.9% and 13.4% from the two samples respectively. 20.0% and 14.3% of the respondents from staff and beneficiaries groups respectively disagreed with the assertion. However, as high as 68.6% of the staff respondents opined that they strongly disagreed that there was no funding problem in NAPEP. 59.8% of the beneficiaries shared the same view. Therefore, it is very clear that NAPEP faced funding problem.

However, it was gathered from the secondary data that bulk of the resources used by NAPEP for its activities were being given by the Federal Government in the form of allocation although it was generally regarded as inadequate. The programme received counterpart funding from the state governments, local governments, Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and other international bodies. Based on the information available from Bauchi State, it was revealed that less than six hundred and sixty million naira (#660,000,000) was spent on the course of poverty reduction by NAPEP in the entire state from 2000 to 2009 (see Appendix 18). This of course is seen to have been grossly inadequate for fight against poverty in a state with over half of the populace living in poverty.

5.4.9 Existence of Programme that is not well Funded

Staff respondents were further required to indicate whether there was any programme that was not well funded. The responses are tabulated below.

Table 5.23: Responses on Existence of Programme that is not Well Funded

Option	**Frequency**	**Percentage %**
Yes	35	100
No	0	0
Total	**35**	**100**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

From the table above, all the respondents accept that there was a programme that was not well funded. This is to say that 100% of the respondents believed that there existed a programme or scheme in NAPEP that did not receive enough funds.

However, when asked to indicate in specific, the programme that was not well funded, majority of the respondents mentioned that all the programmes were not well funded. However, some mention only specific programmes especially FEP, VEDs and YES.

5.4.0 Prudent Management of NAPEP's Fund

Respondents from the staff category were however asked to express their levels of agreement on the assertion that there was prudent management of NAPEP's fund in the two states. The responses we generated are tabulated below:

Table 5.24: Responses on Prudent Management of NAPEP's Fund

Very Prudent	5	14.3
Prudent	7	20.0
Undecided	8	22.9
Imprudent	11	31.4
Very Imprudent	4	11.4
Total	**35**	**100**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

The table above presents the data generated from the staff as regard to the prudent management of NAPEP's fund. It is clear from the

information presented that 14.3% of the respondents argued there was very prudent management of fund. 20.0% accepted that the funds were prudently managed while 22.9% remained undecided. However, 31.4% rated the fund management as imprudent while the remaining 11.4% rated it as very imprudent. This shows that, NAPEP's fund was not prudently managed and the responses were in line with the data generated on the existence of corruption, indiscipline, irresponsibility and abuses in the management of NAPEP.

5.4.11 Existence of Effective Control Mechanism for Ensuring Prudent Use of Programme's Fund and Control of Abuse of Fund

Respondents were also asked to express whether they agree that there existed effective control mechanism for ensuring prudent management of fund as well as control abuse of the programme's fund. The responses generated are tabulated below.

Table 5.25: Responses on Existence of Control Mechanism for Ensuring Prudent Use of Programme's Fund and Control of Abuse of Fund

Strongly Agreed	5	14.3
Agreed	8	22.9
Undecided	8	22.9
Disagreed	9	25.7
Strongly Disagreed	5	14.3
Total	**35**	**100**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

From the above table 14.3 strongly agreed that the control mechanism was very effective while 22.9% agreed with the assertion. Those that were undecided in their view stood also at 22.9% while 25.7% disagreed. However, the remaining 14.3% of the respondent expressed their strong disagreement. Thus, although a good number agreed with the effectiveness of the control mechanism, majority of the respondents disagreed indicating the ineffectiveness of the control mechanism. Data generated that show poor monitoring of activities of NAPEP activities were in line with this.

5.5 Environmental Factors and Success of NAPEP

We also have the conception that Environmental Factors in the selected states may influence the administration of the NAPEP in these states. Factors such as literacy level of the people, availability of infrastructures and political settings among others can have consequences on the NAPEP's ability to effectively administer its poverty reduction schemes. It is in line with this that we seek to ascertain from our respondents how these environmental factors issues affect success of the NAPEP. The data generated in this respect are presented in the subsequent parts of this section.

5.5.1 Literacy Level of Beneficiaries and the Success of NAPEP

We asked our respondents from the staff category on whether the literacy level of the beneficiaries can affect the success of NAPEP. The responses generated are tabulated below:

5.26 Responses on Effect of Literacy Level of Beneficiaries on the Success of NAPEP

Strongly Agreed	3	8.6
Agreed	8	22.9
Undecided	4	11.4
Disagreed	12	34.3
Strongly Disagreed	8	22.9
Total	**35**	**100**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

From the table above, 8.6% of our respondents strongly agreed that the literacy level of the beneficiaries has direct effect on the programme's success. 22.9% also expressed their agreement with the assertion while 11.4% were undecided in their opinions. However, 34.3% of them disagreed with the assertion and the remaining 22.9% expressed their strong disagreement. Looking at the trend of the responses, we may be able to say that level of literacy of the beneficiaries has no significant effect on the success level recorded by the NAPEP.

5.5.2 Effect of Literacy Level among the Poor on the Exploration of the Opportunities Provided by NAPEP

We also seek from the beneficiaries to show their levels of acceptance of the assertion that their literacy level affects their ability to explore the opportunities provided by NAPEP. The responses in this regard are tabulated below:

Table 5.27 Responses on Effect of Literacy Level among the Poor on the Exploration of the Opportunities Provided by NAPEP

Option	**Frequency**	**Percentage %**
Very High	23	7.2
High	79	24.6
Undecided	43	13.4
Low	109	34.0
Very Low	67	20.9
Total	**321**	**100**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

From the table above, we can see that 7.2% of our respondents argued that literacy level of the beneficiaries (poor) affects their ability to explore the opportunities provided by NAPEP at a very high rate. Those that opined "high" were 24.6% of the respondents while 13.4% remained undecided. Also, 34.0% believed that the level at which literacy level affects their ability to explore the

opportunities provided by NAPEP was low while the remaining 20.9% rated it as very low. Thus, we can say that, literacy level of the poor did not have a significant effect on their ability to explore the opportunities provided by NAPEP. This of course, in line with the views of the staff who argued that literacy level has no significant effect on the success of NAPEP.

5.5.3 Availability of Facilities Such as Power, Water and Roads

It is our belief that facilities such as power, water and other infrastructures are some of the environmental factors whose presence or behaviour affects the administration of the NAPEP in the areas in view. It is in line with this that we required our respondents from the two samples to express their levels of agreement on the assertion that there existed availability of these facilities in the two states. The responses we gathered from this are tabulated below:

Table 5.28 Responses on Availability of Facilities such as Power, Water and Roads

Option	**Staff**	**Percentage %**	**Beneficiaries**	**Percentage %**
Very Available	1	2.9	9	2.8
Available	4	11.4	30	9.3
Undecided	2	5.7	9	2.8
Unavailable	21	60.0	160	49.8
Very Unavailable	7	20.0	113	35.2
Total	**35**	**100**	**321**	**100**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

It is clear from the table above that 2.9% and 2.8% of the respondents from the staff and the beneficiaries respectively accept that these facilities were very available while 11.4% and 9.3% from the two samples respectively agreed the facilities were available. Those who were undecided in their views from the staff were 5.7% and 2.8% from the beneficiaries. As high as 60.0% and 49.8% of the respondents from staff and beneficiaries categories respectively, rated the facilities as Unavailable while the remaining 20.0% and 35.2% respectively argued that the facilities were very unavailable. This reveals to us that infrastructural facilities in these areas were not available.

5.5.4 Effects of Facilities such as Power, Water and Roads on the Success of NAPEP

Respondents were also required to indicate whether facilities such as water and others have effect on the success of NAPEP. The responses were gathered are tabulated below.

Table 5.29 Responses on Effect of facilities such as Power, Water and Roads on the Success of NAPEP

Option	**Staff**	**Percentage %**	**Beneficiaries**	**Percentage %**
Strongly Agreed	12	34.3	98	30.5
Agreed	16	45.7	167	52.0
Undecided	4	11.4	34	10.6
Disagreed	3	8.6	20	6.2
Strongly Disagreed	0	0	2	.6
Total	**35**	**100**	**321**	**100**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

From the table above, we can see that, 34.3% of the staff and 30.5% of the beneficiaries strongly agreed with the assertion that, infrastructural facilities have effect on the NAPEP' success. Also as high as 45.7% and 52.0% from the staff and the beneficiaries respectively agreed with that while 11.4% and 10.65 respectively remained undecided. However, 8.6% and 6.2% from the two samples respectively disagreed with the assertion. None of the respondents from the staff category strongly disagreed with the assertion while 0.6% of the beneficiaries strongly disagreed. Therefore, we shall say that infrastructural facilities have effect on the administration of NAPEP.

5.5.5 Absence of Political interference in the Management of NAPEP

Respondents were also required to state whether they agreed with the assertion that there was no political interference in the management of NAPEP. The responses we generated are tabulated below:

Table5.30: Responses on Absence of Political Interference in the Management of NAPEP

Strongly Agreed	4	11.4
Agreed	5	14.3
Undecided	3	8.6
Disagreed	19	54.3
Strongly Disagreed	4	11.4
Total	**35**	**100**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

From the table above, we can see that 11.4% of the respondents strongly accepted that there was no political interference in the management of NAPEP. Also, 14.3% agreed with the assertion while 8.6% were undecided. However, 54.3% disagreed with the assertion while the remaining 11.4% strongly disagreed. This shows that there existed high degree of political interference in the management of NAPEP.

In addition to the data generated through questionnaire, the result of the interview conducted revealed that politics played great role in deciding who benefits from the programme and who is employed to be NAPEP staff. In fact the institution lacked effective autonomy to conduct its activities without undue interference from the powerful executive and key politicians.

5.3.6;Absence of Politics in the Selection of NAPEP's Beneficiaries

Beneficiaries were also asked to respond on whether they agreed that politics did not take precedence in their selections. The responses we generated are tabulated below:

Table 5.31 Responses on Absence of Politics in the Selection of NAPEP's Beneficiaries

Option	**Frequency**	**Percentage %**
Strongly Agreed	32	10.0
Agreed	29	9.0
Undecided	43	13.4
Disagreed	123	38.3
Strongly Disagreed	94	29.3
Total	**321**	**100**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

From the table above, we can see that, 10.0% of the beneficiaries respondents strongly agreed with the assertion that politics did not take precedence in the selection of who benefits from the NAPEP programme. Those that also agreed stood at 9.0% while 13.4% were undecided in their views. 38.3% of these respondents disagreed with the assertion while the remaining 29.3% strongly disagreed. Therefore, we can say that, politics really played a role in the selection process of the beneficiaries.

Interviews were also conducted to some of the beneficiaries as regard to the selection criteria. What we generated showed that political affiliations and family background issues took part in the selection process. In fact, about 6% of the beneficiaries interviewed revealed to us that, they were not the actual beneficiaries of the programmes; but rather, their names and particulars

were used by certain key individuals fraudulently to use the NAPEP's fund for their personal gains although many did not disclose the identities of these individuals with such kind of attitude. Also, an observation into the particulars of the beneficiaries through the NAPEP's register revealed to us that some beneficiaries of some schemes such as VEDS and FEP were wives, children or relatives of some key government functionaries or key political actors in the states who were actually not part of the targeted group of beneficiaries of NAPEP programme.

5.5.7 Acceptability of NAPEP by the Beneficiaries

Staff were also required to indicate their perceptions on the level at which NAPEP is accepted by people or in other words, whether people generally receptive to the programme. The responses generated regarding this are tabulated below:

Table 3.32 Responses on Acceptability of NAPEP by the Beneficiaries

Very Acceptable	8	22.9
Acceptable	18	51.4
Undecided	4	11.4
Unacceptable	5	14.3
Very Unacceptable	0	0
Total	**35**	**100**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

From the table above, 22.9% of the respondents argued that NAPEP was very acceptable to people while 51.4% indicated that they perceived NAPEP

to have been accepted by the people., 11.4% of the respondents remained undecided. Since none of the respondents indicated high level of unacceptability, the remaining 14.3% rated the level to be unacceptable.. This shows that, people really welcomed the programme, or in other words, people were in acceptance or receptive to the programme.

5.5.8 Success Recorded by NAPEP

Staff were also required to express their view regarding the success recorded by NAPEP. The responses gathered are tabulated below:

Table 5.33: Responses on Success Recorded by NAPEP

Very Successful	4	11.4
Successful	5	14.3
Undecided	3	8.6
Unsuccessful	20	57.1
Very Unsuccessful	3	8.6
Total	**35**	**100**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

From the table above, we can see that 11.4% of our respondents expressed that, NAPEP was very successful in poverty reduction in the study area while 14.3% also accept that it was a success. 8.6% remained undecided in their view while as high as 57.1% argued that NAPEP was unsuccessful. The remaining 8.6% rated NAPEP intervention as very unsuccessful. Thus, based on the

responses above, we can clearly say that, NAPEP has not successfully achieved its goal of reducing poverty among the targeted poor in the selected states.

5.5.9 Generation of Gainful Employment by NAPEP

Beneficiaries were also asked to indicate whether the intervention of NAPEP has generated gainful employments to them. The responses generated are shown in the table below:

Table 5.34 Responses on Generation of Gainful Employment by NAPEP

Option	**Frequency**	**Percentage %**
Strongly Agreed	23	7.2
Agreed	53	16.5
Undecided	35	10.9
Disagreed	138	43.0
Strongly Disagreed	72	22.4
Total	**321**	**100**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

The table above shows that 7.2% of the respondents strongly agreed that NAPEP has provided them with gainful employments while those that agreed were 16.5% and 10.9% were undecided in their view. However, as high as 22.4% strongly disagreed. Therefore, with over 65% of the respondents rejecting the assertion that gainful employments were generated to the beneficiaries as a

result of the intervention of NAPEP, we can say that NAPEP has not contributed significantly to the generation of employments to the beneficiaries.

5.5.10 Enhancement of Social and Economic Wellbeing of the Beneficiaries

Respondents from both staff and beneficiaries category were required to express their level of agreement on whether the intervention of NAPEP has enhanced the social and economic wellbeing of the targeted groups in the state. This implies that, we seek to determine whether NAPEP has succeeded in reducing the poverty level among the targeted groups by enhancing their social and economic wellbeing. The responses generated are tabulated below:

Table 5.35 Responses on Enhancement of Social and Economic Wellbeing of the Beneficiaries by NAPEP

Option	**Staff**	**Percentage %**	**Beneficiaries**	**Percentage %**
Strongly Agreed	4	11.4	29	9.0
Agreed	5	14.3	43	13.4
Undecided	4	11.4	28	8.7
Disagreed	16	45.7	112	34.9
Strongly Disagreed	6	17.1	109	34.0
Total	**35**	**100**	**321**	**100**

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

From the table above, we can see that 11.4% and 9.0% of our respondents from the staff and the beneficiaries' categories strongly agreed that NAPEP has enhanced the social and economic status of the beneficiaries. Those that agreed with the assertion were 14.3% and 13.4% of the respondents from the two groups respectively. In the staff category, another set of 11.4% of the respondents were undecided while those with similar view from the same stood at 8.7%. However, 45.7% of the staff respondents and 34.9% of the beneficiaries disagreed with the assertion that social and economic wellbeing of the beneficiaries were enhanced by the NAPEP. The remaining 17.1% of the staff respondents disagreed with the assertion while those that shared similar view from the beneficiaries stood at 34.0% of the entire responses generated from them. Thus, based on the respondents' views, we can say that, NAPEP has not enhanced the social and economic wellbeing of its targeted population in the selected states.

5.5.11 Barriers to Effective Poverty Alleviation

Respondents from both staff and beneficiaries were required to freely express their views as regard to the factors they considered barriers to effective poverty alleviation in their states. The responses generated are discussed as follows:

One of the main barriers opined by majority of the respondents was the issue of funding. They argued that NAPEP has insufficient fund to effectively carry out its mandates of poverty reduction among the targeted population. However,

significant number of the respondents from the staff category and some from the beneficiaries' category expressed poor monitoring of activities as one of the barriers to NAPEP implementation.

Another factors mentioned by the respondents was the issue of hijacking of the programme meant for the poor by the elites. This was mostly expressed by the beneficiaries. Political interference in the management of NAPEP by the government functionaries and some politicians also constituted a barrier to the programme's implementation. This was expressed by both staff and the beneficiaries.

However, a good number of the respondents have the view that corrupt practices among the key stakeholders in the management of the programme served as barriers. This was stated by some of the staff and many of the beneficiaries. Poor criteria in the selection of beneficiaries also serve as barrier in the implementation of the programme. The facilities needed for effective undertaking of some businesses were grossly inadequate in the selected states. This was expressed by a good number of the respondents as an issue constituting barrier to poverty alleviation in the study areas.

5.5.12 Respondents' Views on Solutions to Poverty Alleviation Barriers

Respondents were also asked to proffer suggestions on how to overcome the poverty alleviation barriers in their states. The responses generated show that very high percentage of the respondents argued that funding should be improved

or in other words, the government should increase allocation given to the programme. Other donor agencies and counterparts in funding should also be encouraged by the NAPEP officials through judicious and transparent management of the fund.

However, some of the respondents mentioned that there should be effective monitoring of how NAPEP operations are being conducted. Activities of some elites, especially the political elites who showed interest on the programme should be checked in order to ensure that they block the room for them to hijack the programme.

Another solution offered by the respondents was that undue political interference in the activities of the body should be avoided by the government. The agency should be allowed to function based on its guidelines without interference by the powerful executive.

Strong punishments should also be imposed on anybody found with any corrupt practices as well as accountability should be ensured in the use of the resources meant for the programme. This would minimize the room for corrupt practices as suggested by some of the respondents.

Other solutions offered by the respondents were that credibility and transparency should be ensured in selecting beneficiaries to the programme and adequate infrastructures that were necessary for any effective business undertaking in the states should be provided by the government.

5.6 Test of Hypotheses

Having presented, analysed and interpreted the data generated, the test of the hypotheses that guided the study is carried out in this section and is done using Pearson Chi Square tool. The hypotheses and their tests are discussed below:

5.6.1 Test of Hypothesis I

The first hypothesis in this study states that:

H_o: There is no relationship between coordination of NAPEP activities and its success in alleviating poverty in Bauchi and Kaduna States.

H_1: There is a relationship between coordination of NAPEP activities and its success in alleviating poverty in Bauchi and Kaduna States.

Using one tail test, only the Ho is tested. In this case, once the Ho is accepted, the Hi is rejected and vice versa. The independent variable (x) in this hypothesis is the coordination of NAPEP activities while the dependent variable (Y) is the success in alleviating poverty.

The level of significance for the study is 95% (0.05) and the degree of freedom (v) is sixteen (16).

The values of the independent and dependent variables in tables 5.8 and 5.33 respectively were cross-tabulated in order to test the hypothesis using the SPSS. The computer prints out of the SPSS are presented in table 5.36, 5.37 and 5.38.

Table 5.36: Responses on the Effectiveness of Coordination of NAPEP Activities (Independent Variable)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Effective	5	1.6	14.3	14.3
	Effective	14	4.4	40.0	54.3
	Undecided	6	1.9	17.1	71.4
	Ineffective	8	2.5	22.9	94.3
	Very Ineffective	2	.6	5.7	100.0
	Total	35	10.9	100.0	

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

Table 5.37 Responses on Success Recorded by NAPEP (Dependent variable)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Successful	4	1.2	11.4	11.4
	Successful	5	1.6	14.3	25.7
	Undecided	3	.9	8.6	34.3
	Unsuccessful	20	6.2	57.1	91.4
	Very Unsuccessful	3	.9	8.6	100.0
	Total	35	10.9	100.0	

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

Table 5.38: Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	62.035(a)	16	.000
Likelihood Ratio	48.676	16	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	20.445	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	35		

Source: Table 5.36 and Table 5.37

a 24 cells (96.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .17.

The calculated χ^2 value is 62.035 as in table 5.38 while critical value is 26.296. The calculated χ^2 value is greater than the critical or table value.

Decision Rule: reject null hypotheses (H_0), if calculated value is greater than critical value and accept the alternate hypotheses (H_1).

Hence, in this case, the null hypothesis (Ho) which states that, "There is no relationship between coordination of NAPEP activities and its success in alleviating poverty in Bauchi and Kaduna States" is rejected and the alternate (H_1) which states that; "There is a relationship between coordination of NAPEP activities and its success in alleviating poverty in Bauchi and Kaduna States." is accepted. This means that there is a relationship between coordination and NAPEP success or in other words good coordination brings about high success.

5.6.2:Test of Hypothesis II

The second hypothesis states that:

H_o: There is no significant relationship between Management capacity of NAPEP and success in alleviating poverty in Bauchi and Kaduna States.

H_1: There is a significant relationship between Management capacity of NAPEP and success in alleviating poverty in Bauchi and Kaduna States

Our independent variable here is "management capacity" while the dependent variable is "success in alleviating poverty". However, responses on absence of the acts of corruption, indiscipline, irresponsibility or abuses among NAPEP Staff was used in measuring the variable of "management capacity" while responses on

enhancement of social and economic well beings of the beneficiaries in measuring the "success in alleviating poverty".

However, the results generated from the respondents on these two variables as presented earlier in Tables 5.20 and 5.35 are as follows:

Table 5.39: Cumulative Responses on Absence of the Acts of Corruption, Indiscipline, Irresponsibility or Abuses among NAPEP Staff (Management Capacity)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agreed	35	9.8	9.8	9.8
	Agreed	72	20.2	20.2	30.1
	Undecided	96	26.9	27.0	57.0
	Disagreed	101	28.3	28.4	85.4
	Strongly Disagreed	52	14.6	14.6	100.0
	Total	356	99.7	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.3		
Total		357	100.0		

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

Table 5.40: Cumulative Responses on Enhancement of Social and Economic Wellbeing of the Beneficiaries by NAPEP (Success in alleviating Poverty)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agreed	33	9.2	9.3	9.3
	Agreed	48	13.4	13.5	22.8
	Undecided	32	9.0	9.0	31.7
	Disagreed	128	35.9	36.0	67.7
	Strongly Disagreed	115	32.2	32.3	100.0
	Total	356	99.7	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.3		
Total		357	100.0		

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

Table 5.41: Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	864.151(a)	16	.000
Likelihood Ratio	737.118	16	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	302.425	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	356		

a 5 cells (20.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.15.

Source: Table 5.39 and Table 5.40

From the Chi-square output on the table above, our calculated χ^2 value is 864.151 while the critical value at 16 degree of freedom and 0.05 level of significance is 26.296. The calculated χ^2 value is greater than the critical or table value. The decision rule guiding this that we reject null hypotheses (H_0), if calculated value is greater than critical value and accept the alternate hypotheses (H_1).

Hence, in this case, the null hypothesis (Ho) which states that, "There is no significant relationship between Management capacity of NAPEP and success in alleviating poverty in Bauchi and Kaduna States" is rejected and the alternate (H_1) which states that; "There is a significant relationship between Management capacity of NAPEP and success in alleviating poverty in Bauchi and Kaduna States" is accepted. Therefore we conclude that there is significant relationship between management capacity and Success of NAPEP in alleviating poverty in Bauchi and Kaduna states.

5.6.3:Test of Hypothesis III

The third hypothesis for this research states that:

H_o: There is no significant relationship between Environmental Factors and success in alleviating poverty in Bauchi and Kaduna States.

H_1: There is a significant relationship between Environmental Factors and success in alleviating poverty in Bauchi and Kaduna States

Our independent variable here is "Environmental Factors" while the dependent variable is "success in alleviating poverty". However, responses on the Availability of Facilities such as Power, Water, agricultural Inputs and Roads was used in measuring the variable of "Environmental Factors" while responses on enhancement of social and economic wellbeing of the beneficiaries in measuring the "success in alleviating poverty".

However, the results generated from the respondents on these two variables as presented earlier in Tables 5.28 and 5.35 are as follows:

Table 5.42: Cumulative Responses on Availability of Facilities such as Power, Water and Roads (Environmental Factors)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Available	10	2.8	2.8	2.8
	Available	34	9.5	9.6	12.4
	Undecided	11	3.1	3.1	15.4
	Unavailable	181	50.7	50.8	66.3
	Very Unavailable	120	33.6	33.7	100.0
	Total	356	99.7	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.3		
Total		357	100.0		

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

Table 5.43 Cumulative Responses on Enhancement of Social and Economic Wellbeing of the Beneficiaries by NAPEP (Success in alleviating Poverty)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agreed	33	9.2	9.3	9.3
	Agreed	48	13.4	13.5	22.8
	Undecided	32	9.0	9.0	31.7
	Disagreed	128	35.9	36.0	67.7
	Strongly Disagreed	115	32.2	32.3	100.0
	Total	356	99.7	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.3		
Total		357	100.0		

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2011

Table 5.44: Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	234.179(a)	16	.000
Likelihood Ratio	233.021	16	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	56.374	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	356		

a 13 cells (52.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .90.

Source: Table 5.42 and Table 5.43

From the Chi-square output on the table above, our calculated χ^2 value is 234.179 while the critical value at 16 degree of freedom and 0.05 level of significance is 26.296. The calculated χ^2 value is greater than the critical or table value. The decision rule guiding this is that we reject null hypotheses (H_0), if

calculated value is greater than critical value and accept the alternate hypothesis (H_1).

Hence, in this case, the null hypothesis (Ho) which states that, "There is no significant relationship Environmental Factors and success of NAPEP in alleviating poverty in Bauchi and Kaduna States" is rejected and the alternate (H_1) which states that; "There is a significant relationship between Environmental Factors and success of NAPEP in alleviating poverty in Bauchi and Kaduna States" is accepted. Therefore we conclude that there is significant relationship between Environmental Factors and Success of NAPEP in alleviating poverty in Bauchi and Kaduna states.

5.7 Major Findings of the Study

Based on the data presented, analysed and the result thereof, the study made the following findings:

i. It was found that there was no effective coordination of activities in NAPEP which manifested in the forms of low coordination among the Federal, States and Local governments NAPEP offices and with other government poverty alleviation institutions as well as other collaborating private enterprises.

ii. It was also revealed that the conceptual planning of NAPEP did not fully take into consideration the inputs from the grassroots level and the peculiarities of the diverse economic and demographic settings of the

various Nigerian societies. In addition, activities were not effectively planned.

iii. There was also a missing link in the monitoring of activities in NAPEP. Monitoring mandate of the programme was ineffectively handled especially in respect of the issues of disbursements of funds, utilization of funds and repayments of loans.

iv. It was also found that the staff in the service of the NAPEP were not fully dedicated to their duties. Corruption, indiscipline and abuses were rampant; prudency in management of the programme's fund was lacking. These could also be attributed to the ineffective system of monitoring and ensuring control in resource management.

v. It was however revealed that, although the programme received counterpart funding from the states, local government and other donor agencies, the fund available to it was grossly inadequate to effectively handle the task of poverty alleviation among the targeted population.

vi. There was no credibility in the selection criteria of the beneficiaries to the programme especially by considering the large number of applicants seeking to benefit. Politics and pressures from some key government functionaries or politicians played great role in this regard.

vii. Even though facilities such as power, water and roads were found essential in the effective administration of poverty alleviation by NAPEP, these

facilities were found very inadequate in these states which negatively affect NAPEP administration.

viii. Undue political interference in the management of NAPEP by some key individuals in the government was found to have taken part in the NAPEP. This affected the level of independence of the institution to effectively carry out its mandates.

ix. It was also found, the programme was not successfully implemented in the states. The NAPEP's intervention did not really generated gainful employments to its targeted population and social and economic wellbeing of the beneficiaries were not enhanced or improved as an effect of the NAPEP's intervention.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

6.1 Introduction

This chapter of the study captures the summary of the study and the conclusion arrived at based on the study findings. It also contains recommendations offered by the study.

6.2 Summary

This work is an assessment of the administration of NAPEP in Bauchi and Kaduna States of the Northern States of Nigeria. The Central problem which the research addressed was examining whether the administration of NAPEP has contributed to its success or failure to alleviate poverty among its targeted population in the study areas. The variables focused by the study were the issues of coordination, planning, monitoring, funding, staffing and Environmental Factors as they affect the administration of NAPEP. Our research questions, objectives and hypotheses were formulated in line with these variables. The significance of the study is justified to the fact that it has bridged the gap in existing knowledge on the issue of poverty and the roles of NAPEP in tackling it in Nigeria especially it's effort in establishing relationship between coordination and Environmental Factors among others in one hand and the success of NAPEP in the other. Its findings also would assist policy makers, staff of NAPEP, researchers and members of the public in understanding the way NAPEP programme was administered.

However, although the research sought to assess the NAPEP administration in Northern states, it only narrowed its focus to Kaduna and Bauchi States with six local governments selected from each of the two states. In addition, only four schemes (FEP, YES, VEDS and COPE) of the NAPEP were selected for analysis with period of coverage from 2005 to 2010.

Literatures on the concepts, causes, measurement and incidence of poverty were critically reviewed. Previous empirical studies carried out by other scholars in the field were also critically examined and criticized. In addition, effort was made in discussing some of the past and present poverty alleviation institutions and programmes in Nigeria. The theoretical framework adopted by the study was the Systems Theory developed by David Easton.

The research design was basically a survey research and data were generated from both primary and secondary sources with questionnaires, interviews and personal observation as the instruments for generating the primary data. The populations of the study were two. One was the staff of NAPEP in Bauchi and Kaduna States at the Headquarters and the selected local government areas whose number were 43 while the second was the beneficiaries population who were 3,051. However, 39 individuals were selected to serve as the sample size for the staff while 354 were selected from the beneficiaries to represent their population. Random sampling and Cluster sampling techniques were adopted in sampling the respondents from staff and beneficiaries categories respectively.

Data were analysed quantitatively and qualitatively and hypotheses were tested using Pearson Chi-square test through SPSS computer statistical package.

In the study also, an overview of the NAPEP was made. Issues of the origin of the programme, objectives, functions, operational patterns, structures at various levels, intervention schemes under the programme as well as funding of the programme were critically discussed.

Data gathered on the bases of the initial hypotheses formulated for the study were presented in frequency tables and analysed using Pearson chi-square. At the end of the analysis, all the three null hypotheses formulated for the study were rejected. The study's findings revealed that there was ineffective coordination of activities in NAPEP among its various offices, collaborating enterprises and other government poverty alleviation institutions. Monitoring of activities of the programme was also found ineffective. Other findings were also that there were managerial capacity challenges to the administration of the programme. This in addition to the Environmental Factors affected the success of the programme in the selected states.

6.3 Conclusion

It was in response to the growing number of people living in poverty in Nigeria that the Federal Government established NAPEP in 2000 to serve as the highest poverty alleviation body in the country. The administrative process of the programme was believed to be among the key determinants to the success or otherwise of the programme.

However, it was empirically verified by this study that the administration of the programme in Northern States of Nigeria was characterized by ineffective administrative components. The coordination needed to make the different stakeholders in the programme operates harmoniously to achieve the targeted goal was ineffective. Apart of the poor planning in the process, monitoring of activities especially the financial resources management of the programme was inadequate resulting to corrupt, abuses and irresponsible practices among the staff that manage the programme. This of course, explained the low dedication to duty manifested by the staff.

Non compliance to credibility and objectivity in the selection of the beneficiaries to the programme became a practice resulting to the emergence of wrong individuals as the beneficiaries of the programme. Political interference was rampant to the extent that the political elites and some high level bureaucrats hijacked the programme that was meant for the poor. These practices contributed to the failure of the programme to alleviate poverty among its targeted population.

Furthermore, the fund needed to effectively administer the programme was grossly inadequate in spite of the counterpart funding being received from the states and local governments as well as NGOs and other foreign bodies. In addition, infrastructural facilities that were needed for efficient conduct of the socio-economic activities that complemented the NAPEP operations were also in short supply in the study areas. These factors contributed to the inability of the

programme to uplift the social and economic wellbeing of the targeted population and hence, poverty reduction remained a mere hope.

Therefore, we conclude that, poverty alleviation in the Northern States of Nigeria would remain a mere dream or hope for the poor unless those issues that surround the administration of NAPEP such as coordination, planning, staffing, funding and monitoring among others are improved and in such states.

6.4 Recommendations

The following recommendations are offered based on the findings and conclusion of the study.

i. The entire operations of NAPEP should be effectively coordinated in such a way that the relationships among the federal, state and local governments and among the government poverty alleviation institutions as well as other collaborating private enterprises are in harmony and in consistent with the guidelines specifying the programme's system of operations. This task can be carried out by the management through adequate monitoring and supervision of the whole process of coordination at various facets.

ii. Since NAPEP schemes are being carried out in phases, planning of the subsequent programmes/schemes should deeply involve the grassroots people who constitute the target population and who are in better position to describe how their poverty levels can be reduced. In addition, the planning should not be uniform in all the states of the federation; it should rather be based on peculiarities of the diverse settings of the Nigerian

populace. This is to say that, planning should be based on the needs of a particular area and should involve participation of people directly affected by poverty.

iii. The whole task of monitoring the activities of NAPEP at various levels should be made more effective. This can be done through constituting an independent body or committee that will monitor all the activities of NAPEP including the internal monitoring system, especially in the areas of fund management and selection of beneficiaries to the programme. This will reduce the tendency of corrupt practices in the administration of the programme.

iv. There should also be adequate motivation to the staff of NAPEP in terms of salary, allowances and other inceptives to enable them dedicate fully to their duties and curtail the acts of corruption, abuses or irresponsibility as well as mismanagement of the programme's resources.

v. On the issue of funding, the Federal government should increase it's funding to the programme. Counterpart funding being received from the states and local governments should also be increased. In addition, transparency, accountability and dedication attitudes should be demonstrated by the management of NAPEP especially in respect of resources management. This will encourage the international donors and other NGOs to have full confidence on the administration of the programme and hence inject more resources to support the course.

vi. There should be strict adherence to the principles of credibility and objectivity in determining who benefits from the programme so as that the targeted population will be the actual beneficiaries to the programmes. In achieving this, an independent committee outside the NAPEP officials should be constituted to scrutinize and confirm the details of the selected beneficiaries so as to ensure conformity with the guidelines specifying who should benefit from the schemes under the programme.

vii. Undue political interference in the management of NAPEP should be avoided by some key government functionaries and some politicians who have interests on the programme. If this is checked, credibility of the programme will be enhanced.

viii. Governments at Federal, State and local levels should be committed to providing the necessary infrastructures; such a roads, power, and other facilities that create an enabling environment for NAPEP to effectively carry out its mandate of reducing poverty levels of the Nigerian poor and hence improving their social and economic wellbeing.

ix. This research is not perfect and all encompassing, there are still other issues not touched by the study. Therefore, further researchers should be carried out in this and similar areas. These areas are some of the issues begging for further studies:

   a. A comparative study of the strategies for poverty alleviation in Nigeria and other developing countries.

b. The Impact of National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) on the socio-economic development of Nigeria.
c. Assessment of the Challenges to successful implementation of poverty Reduction Strategies in Nigeria.

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APPENDIX 1A

QUESTIONNAIRE ON THE ASSESSMENT OF THE ADMINISTRATION OF NAPEP IN SELECTED NORTHERN STATES OF NIGERIA FOR STAFF OF NAPEP IN BAUCHI AND KADUNA STATES

Department of Public Administration,

Faculty of Administration,

Ahmadu Bello University,

Zaria.

26th October, 2011.

Dear Respondent,

I am a Ph.D student in the Department of Public Administration, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, undertaking a research on "**Assessment of the Administration of the National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) in selected Northern States of Nigeria.**

I will be grateful if you can fill the attached questionnaire form and I assure you that all information provided by you would be used purely for academic purpose and shall be treated with absolute confidentiality.

Thanks in anticipation of your cooperation.

Yours faithfully,

Signed.

Saleh Lawal

(Ph. D/ADMIN/11390/2007-2008)

SECTION A

(Personal Data of Respondents)

Please tick [√] as appropriate.

1. **Gender of Respondent**

   (a) Male [ ]

   (b) Female [ ]

2. **Age of Respondent**

   (a) Less than 21 years [ ]

   (b) 21 – 30 years [ ]

   (c) 31 – 40 years [ ]

   (d) 41 – 50 years [ ]

   (e) 51 – 60 years [ ]

   (f) 61 years and above [ ]

3. **Marital Status**

   (a) Single [ ]

   (b) Married [ ]

   (c) Divorced [ ]

   (d) Widowed [ ]

4. **Level of Education**

   (a) Postgraduate [ ]

   (b) Degree/HND [ ]

   (c) NCE/OND/AND [ ]

(d) WAEC/GCE/NECO/SSCE [ ]

(e) Primary Certificate [ ]

(f) Others [ ]

Section B

Coordination and Success of NAPEP

1. Do you agree that there is coordination of NAPEP activities?

. (a) Strongly Agreed [ ]

(b) Agreed [ ]

(c) Undecided [ ]

(d) Disagreed [ ]

(e) Strongly Disagreed [ ]

2. How would you rate the effectiveness of coordination among the Federal, States and Local governments NAPEP offices?

(a) Very effective [ ]

(b) Effective [ ]

(c) Undecided [ ]

(d) Ineffective [ ]

(e) Very Ineffective [ ]

3. How would you rate the effectiveness of collaboration between NAPEP and other government's poverty alleviation agencies?

(a) Very effective [ ]

(b) Effective [ ]

(c) Undecided [ ]

(d) Ineffective [ ]

(e) Very Ineffective [ ]

4. How would you rate the effectiveness of coordination between NAPEP and its collaborating enterprises in the state?

(a) Very effective [ ]

(b) Effective [ ]

(c) Undecided [ ]

(d) Ineffective [ ]

(e) Very Ineffective [ ]

Section C

Management Capacity and Success of NAPEP

5. Do you agree that there is effective planning of the activities of NAPEP programme in the state?

(a) Strongly Agreed [ ]

(b) Agreed [ ]

(c) Undecided [ ]

(d) Disagreed [ ]

(e) Strongly Disagreed [ ]

6. How would you rate the effectiveness of monitoring of activities in NAPEP?

(a) Very effective [ ]

(b) Effective [ ]

(c) Undecided [ ]

(d) Ineffective [ ]

(e) Very Ineffective [ ]

7. How would you rate your level of satisfaction with the management pattern of NAPEP at federal, states and local governments levels?

(a) Very High [ ]

(b) High [ ]

(c) Undecided [ ]

(d) Low [ ]

(e) Very Low [ ]

8. How would you rate the extent of satisfaction with your job?

(a) Highly Satisfied [ ]

(b) Satisfied [ ]

(c) Undecided [ ]

(d) Not Satisfied [ ]

(e) Highly Not Satisfied [ ]

9. Do you agree that there were no acts of corruption, indiscipline irresponsibility or abuses among NAPEP staff?

(a) Strongly Agreed [ ]

(b) Agreed [ ]

(c) Undecided [ ]

(d) Disagreed [ ]

(e) Strongly Disagreed [ ]

10. How would you rate the credibility of criteria used by management in selecting beneficiaries to the programme?

(a) Highly Credible [ ]

(b) Credible [ ]

(c) Undecided [ ]

(d) Not Credible [ ]

(e) Highly Not Credible [ ]

11. Do you agree that NAPEP is adequately funded?

(a) Strongly Agreed [ ]

(b) Agreed [ ]

(c) Undecided [ ]

(d) Disagreed [ ]

(e) Strongly Disagreed [ ]

12. Is there any programme of NAPEP that is not ell funded?

(a) Yes [ ]

(b) No [ ]

13. If yes, which is that programme? Please State._____

14. How would you rate the extent of prudency in the management of NAPEP funds?

(a) Very Prudent [ ]

(b) Prudent [ ]

(c) Undecided [ ]

(d) Imprudent [ ]

(e) Very Imprudent [ ]

15. Do you agree that there was effective control mechanism put in place to ensure prudent use of the programme's fund and control mismanagement or abuse of funds?

(a) Strongly Agreed [ ]

(b) Agreed [ ]

(c) Undecided [ ]

(d) Disagreed [ ]

(e) Strongly Disagreed [ ]

Section D

Environmental Factors and Success of NAPEP

16. Do you agree that literacy level of beneficiaries can affect the success of NAPEP?

(a) Strongly Agreed [ ]

(b) Agreed [ ]

(c) Undecided [ ]

(d) Disagreed [ ]

(e) Strongly Disagreed [ ]

17. How would you rate the availability of facilities such as water, power and roads in the state?

(a) Very Available [ ]

(b) Available [ ]

(c) Undecided [ ]

(d) Unavailable [ ]

(e) Very Unavailable [ ]

18. Do you agree that availability of facilities such as water, power and roads can affect NAPEP success in the state?

(a) Strongly Agreed [ ]

(b) Agreed [ ]

(c) Undecided [ ]

(d) Disagreed [ ]

(e) Strongly Disagreed [ ]

19. Do you agree that there is no political interference in the management of NAPEP?

(a) Strongly Agreed [ ]

(b) Agreed [ ]

(c) Undecided [ ]

(d) Disagreed [ ]

(e) Strongly Disagreed [ ]

20. How would you rate the level of acceptability of NAPEP by the beneficiaries?

(a) Very Acceptable [ ]

(b) Acceptable [ ]

(c) Undecided [ ]

(d) Unacceptable [ ]

(e) Very Unacceptable [ ]

21. How would you rate the level of success recorded by NAPEP in its activities of poverty reduction in the state?

(a) Very Successful [ ]

(b) Successful [ ]

(c) Undecided [ ]

(d) Unsuccessful [ ]

(e) Very Unsuccessful [ ]

22. Do you agree that NAPEP has enhances social and economic wellbeing of the beneficiaries?

(a) Strongly Agreed [ ]

(b) Agreed [ ]

(c) Undecided [ ]

(d) Disagreed [ ]

(e) Strongly Disagreed [ ]

23. What in your opinion are factors affecting effective implementation of NAPEP in the state? ----------

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24. Suggest some possible solutions to the factors mentioned above:----------

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APPENDIX 1B

QUESTIONNAIRE ON THE ASSESSMENT OF THE ADMINISTRATION OF NAPEP IN SELECTED NORTHERN STATES OF NIGERIA FOR BENEFICIARIES OF NAPEP IN BAUCHI AND KADUNA STATES

Department of Public Administration,

Faculty of Administration,

Ahmadu Bello University,

Zaria.

26th October, 2011.

Dear Respondent,

I am a Ph.D student in the Department of Public Administration, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, undertaking a research on "**Assessment of the Administration of the National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) in selected Northern States of Nigeria.**

I will be grateful if you can fill the attached questionnaire form and I assure you that all information provided by you would be used purely for academic purpose and shall be treated with absolute confidentiality.

Thanks in anticipation of your cooperation.

Yours faithfully,

Signed.

Saleh Lawal

(Ph.D/ADMIN/11390/2007-2008)

Section A

1. **Gender of Respondent**

   (a) Male [ ]

   (b) Female [ ]

2. **Age of Respondent**

   (a) Less than 21 years [ ]

   (b) 21 – 30 years [ ]

   (c) 31 – 40 years [ ]

   (d) 41 – 50 years [ ]

   (e) 51 – 60 years [ ]

   (f) 61 years and above [ ]

3. **Level of Education**

   (a) Postgraduate [ ]

   (b) Degree/HND [ ]

   (c) NCE/OND/AND [ ]

   (d) WAEC/GCE/NECO/SSCE [ ]

   (e) Primary Certificate [ ]

   (f) No western Education [ ]

4. **Marital Status**

   (a) Single [ ]

   (b) Married [ ]

   (c) Divorced [ ]

(d) Widowed [ ]

5. **Number of people in Household**

(a) 1 - 5 [ ]

(b) 6 -10 [ ]

(c) 11 -15 [ ]

(d) 16 - 20 [ ]

(e) Above 20 [ ]

6. **Occupation**

(a) Farming [ ]

(b) Trading [ ]

(c) Student [ ]

(d) Housewife [ ]

(e) Civil Service [ ]

(e) Others specify…….

Section B

Coordination and Success of NAPEP

1. What is your level of awareness of the activities of NAPEP

. (a) Very High [ ]

(b) High [ ]

(c) Undecided [ ]

(d) Low [ ]

(e) Very Low [ ]

2. How would you rate your level of satisfaction with coordination of activities in NAPEP?

. (a) Very High [ ]

(b) High [ ]

(c) Undecided [ ]

(d) Low [ ]

(e) Very Low [ ]

3. How satisfied are you with the relationship between NAPEP and the collaborating private enterprises?

(a) Highly satisfied [ ]

(b) Satisfied [ ]

(c) Undecided [ ]

(d) Dissatisfied [ ]

(e) Highly Dissatisfied [ ]

Section C

Management Capacity and the Success of NAPEP

4. How would you rate the level of dedication of NAPEP staff to their duties?

(a) Very Dedicated [ ]

(b) Dedicated [ ]

(c) Undecided [ ]

(d) Undedicated [ ]

(e) Very Undedicated [ ]

5. Do you agree that there are no acts of corruption, indiscipline, irresponsibility or abuses among NAPEP staff?

(a) Strongly Agreed [ ]

(b) Agreed [ ]

(c) Undecided [ ]

(d) Disagreed [ ]

(e) Strongly Disagreed [ ]

6. Do you agree that there are no funding problems of NAPEP poverty reduction programmes?

(a) Strongly Agreed [ ]

(b) Agreed [ ]

(c) Undecided [ ]

(d) Disagreed [ ]

(e) Strongly Disagreed [ ]

7. How would you rate the Credibility of the criteria used in selecting beneficiaries to the programme?

(a) Highly Credible [ ]

(b) Credible [ ]

(c) Undecided [ ]

(d) Not Credible [ ]

(e) Highly Not Credible [ ]

Section D

Environmental Factors and Success of NAPEP

8. How would you rate the extent at which literacy level among the poor can influence their ability to explore the opportunities provided by NAPEP in your area?

(a) Very High [ ]

(b) High [ ]

(c) Undecided [ ]

(d) Low [ ]

(e) Very Low [ ]

9. How available are facilities such as power, water and roads in your area?

(a) Very Available [ ]

(b) Available [ ]

(c) Undecided [ ]

(d) Unavailable [ ]

(e) Very Unavailable [ ]

10. Do you agree that availability of facilities such as power, water and roads can affect NAPEP success in your area?

(a) Strongly Agreed [ ]

(b) Agreed [ ]

(c) Undecided [ ]

(d) Disagreed [ ]

(e) Strongly Disagreed [ ]

11. Do you agree that politics did not take precedence in the selection of beneficiaries?

(a) Strongly Agreed [ ]

(b) Agreed [ ]

(c) Undecided [ ]

(d) Disagreed [ ]

(e) Strongly Disagreed [ ]

12. Do you agree that the intervention of NAPEP has led to the generation of gainful employments among the beneficiaries?

(a) Strongly Agreed [ ]

(b) Agreed [ ]

(c) Undecided [ ]

(d) Disagreed [ ]

(e) Strongly Disagreed [ ]

13. Do you agree that the intervention of NAPEP has enhances your social and economic wellbeing?

(a) Strongly Agreed [ ]

(b) Agreed [ ]

(c) Undecided [ ]

(d) Disagreed [ ]

(e) Strongly Disagreed [ ]

14. What factors do you think serve as barriers to effective poverty alleviation in your state?----------

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15. Suggest some possible solutions to the factors mentioned above:----------

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APPENDIX 2A

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR STAFF OF NAPEP

Section A

Personal Data

1. Date of the interview----------
2. Place of Interview----------
3. Duration of the Interview----------
4. Gender of the Interviewee----------

Section B

Effective Administration of NAPEP and Poverty Reduction

1. Can you describe how the NAPEP was planned?
2. Who do you think are the stakeholders in the planning process of NAPEP?
3. Can you describe how the NAPEP was structured at various levels?
4. Can you describe the nature of monitoring of activities of NAPEP?
5. Can you describe the sources and adequacy of fund to the NAPEP?
6. Do you carryout your responsibilities without any form of external or political control?
7. Can you explain the nature of cooperation you received from the beneficiaries?

APPENDIX 2B

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR BENEFICIARIES OF NAPEP

Section A

Personal Data

1. Date of the interview----------
2. Place of Interview----------
3. Duration of the Interview----------
4. Gender of the Interviewee----------
5. Programme benefitted----------

Section B

Effective Administration of NAPEP and Poverty Reduction

1. Can you explain whether you have any idea on NAPEP Planning before it commences operations?
2. Who do you think are the stakeholders in the planning process of NAPEP?
3. Can you describe your feeling of satisfaction on the NAPEP intervention schemes?
4. Can you describe the quality of staffing in the organization?
5. Can you describe adequacy of fund to the NAPEP?
6. Can you describe how you were selected to benefit from the programme.
7. Can you explain the nature of cooperation you received from the NAPEP staff?

APPENDIX 3

CHECK LIST FOR OBSERVATION

1. Available skills Acquisition and training centres in the areas.
2. Business places of those that received skills acquisitions and training.
3. Shelters of some of the beneficiaries.
4. Type of employment of the beneficiaries.

APPENDIX 4A

SELECTED HUMAN DEVELOPMENT INDICATORS: NIGERIA VS. OTHER SELECTED COUNTRIES

HDI Rank	Country	Life expectancy at birth (years) 2005	*Under-five mortality rate (per 1,000 births) 2005	*Population under-nourished (% of total population) 2002/2004	Combined Gross Enrolment Ratio for primary, secondary and tertiary education (%) 2005	*Population below income poverty line (%)	
						$1 a day	$2 a day
81	China	72.5	27	12	69.1	9.9	34.9
107	Indonesia	69.7	36	6	68.2	7.5	52.4
158	Nigeria	46.5	194	9	56.2	70.8	92.4
159	Tanzania	51.0	122	44	50.4	57.8	89.9

Source: Human Development Index Report 2007/2008

APPENDIX 4B

TRENDS IN POVERTY LEVELS, 1980-2004

The poor increased in numbers from 67 million in 1966 to 71 million in 2004

Year	% Poverty Incidence	Estimated Total Population	Population in Poverty
1980	28.1	65 m	18.26 m
1985	46.3	75 m	34.73 m
1992	42.7	91.5 m	39.07 m
1996	65.6	102.3 m	67.11 m
2004	54.7	126.3 m	69.09 m

Sources: NCS -- 1980, 1985, 1992, 1996; NLSS, 2004

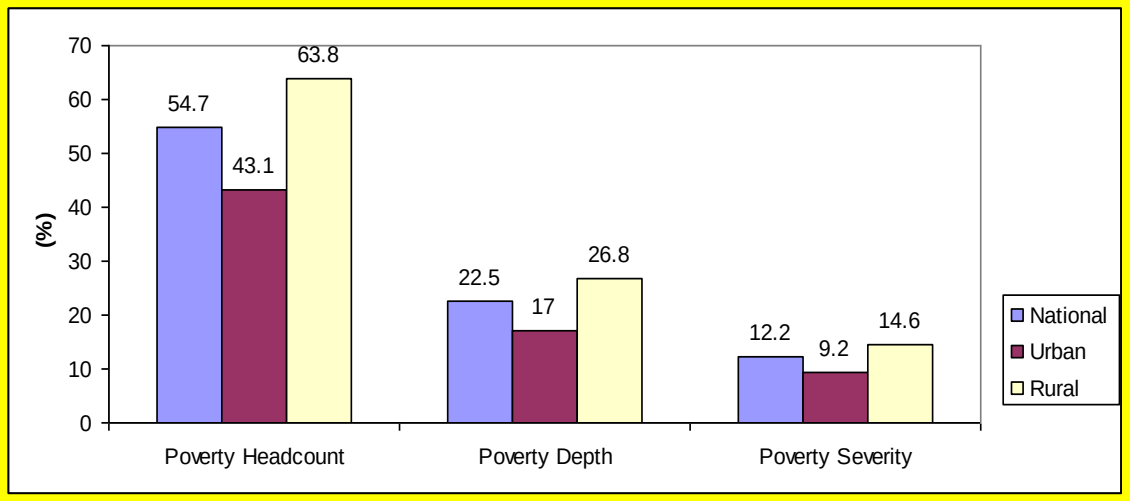
APPENDIX 5A

RELATIVE POVERTY BY SECTOR (URBAN AND RURAL)

Year	Urban	Rural
1980	16.2	28.3
1985	37.8	51.4
1992	37.5	46.0
1996	58.2	69.3
2004	43.1	63.8

Sources: NCS -- 1980, 1985, 1992, 1996; NLSS, 2004

APPENDIX 5B
POVERTY HEAD-COUNT, DEPTH AND SEVERITY



Source: NBS, 2007

APPENDIX 5C
URBAN/RURAL POVERTY INDICES

Rural/Urban Residence	Population Share (per cent)	Food Poor	Moderate Poor	Poverty Head Count (P_0)	Poverty Gap (P_1)	Poverty Severity (P_2)
Urban	44.1	26.7	16.4	43.1	17	9.2
Rural	55.9	44.4	19.1	63.8	26.8	14.6
Total	100	36.6	18.1	54.7	22.5	12.2

Source: NLSS, 2004

APPENDIX 6A
TRENDS IN POVERTY BY ZONES (1980-2004)

Zone	1980	Rank	1985	Rank	1992	Rank	1996	Rank	2004	Rank
South South	12.2	1	45.7	3	40.8	2	58.2	2	51.3	3
South East	12.9	3	30.4	1	41.0	3	52.5	1	34.1	1
South West	12.4	2	38.6	2	42.1	4	60.9	3	43.2	2
North Central	32.2	4	50.8	4	46.0	5	64.7	4	63.4	4
North East	35.6	5	54.9	6	54.0	6	70.1	5	67.6	6
North West	37.7	6	52.1	5	36.5	1	77.2	6	63.9	5

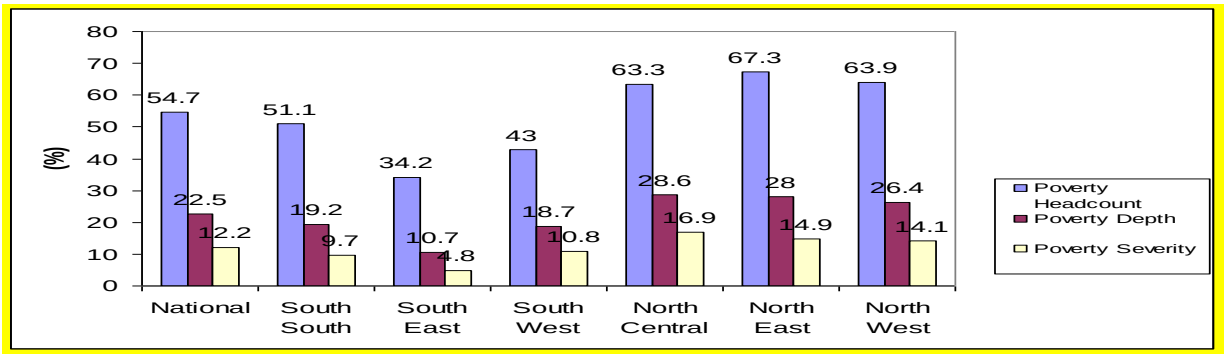
Source: NCS -- 1980, 1985, 1992, 1996; NLSS, 2004

APPENDIX 6B
DOUBLE POVERTY LINE TABLE BY ZONE

ZONE	CORE POOR		MODERATE POOR		NON-POOR	
	1996	2004	1996	2004	1996	2004
South South	23.4	17.0	34.8	18.1	41.8	64.9
South East	18.2	7.8	35.3	19.0	46.5	73.3
South West	27.5	18.9	33.4	24.2	39.1	57.0
North Central	28.0	29.8	36.7	37.2	35.4	33.1
North East	34.4	27.9	35.7	44.3	29.9	27.8
North West	37.3	26.8	39.9	44.4	22.8	28.8

Source: NBS, 2005

APPENDIX 6C
POVERTY HEAD-COUNT, DEPTH AND SEVERITY BY ZONE



Source: NBS, 2007

APPENDIX 7A: POVERTY AND INEQUALITY BY STATE

State	Population Share	Poverty Head Count	Poverty Gap	Poverty Severity	Gini Index
Abia	3.3	32.4	10.7	3.4	47%
Adamawa	3	71.6	34.3	16.2	47%
Akwa ibom	3.4	50.8	18	6.4	50%
Anambra	4	32.1	8.6	2.3	48%
Bauchi	4.1	77	33.1	14.1	48%
Bayelsa	1.4	33.3	11.8	4.3	48%
Benue	3.9	48.8	15.5	4.9	55%
Borno	3.6	50.6	19.6	7.2	40%
Cross_Rivers	2.7	55	23.7	9.5	51%
Delta	3.7	64.5	24.9	9.6	47%
Ebonyi	1.6	51.9	19.2	7.6	41%
Edo	3.1	47	19.8	7.7	46%
Ekiti	1.7	39.3	12	3.6	51%
Enugu	2.9	36.8	12	3.8	44%
FCT	0.8	51.4	22.4	8.6	44%
Gombe	2.1	70	29.8	12.6	43%
Imo	3.5	28.1	8.8	2.8	51%
Jigawa	4.1	90.9	47.3	24.6	44%
Kaduna	5.6	40.9	12.7	3.8	42%
Kano	8.2	49.7	18	6.2	43%
Katsina	5.3	62.2	25	9.9	41%
Kebbi	2.9	89	41.1	19	41%
Kogi	3	89.6	56.2	35.3	56%
Kwara	2.2	81.7	43.5	23.5	48%
Lagos	8.1	67	35.6	18.9	64%
Nassarawa	1.8	52.9	17	5.5	47%
National	126.4	54.7	22.8	9	49%
Niger	3.4	60.5	22.3	8.1	46%
Ogun	3.3	31	10	3.1	53%
Ondo	3.7	47.3	15.4	5.1	50%
Osun	3.1	24.7	6.9	1.9	50%
Oyo	4.9	21	5.9	1.7	43%
Plateau	2.9	54.9	21.7	8.4	44%
Rivers	4.7	46.4	18.7	7.1	48%
Sokoto	3.4	74.5	34.7	15.6	33%
Taraba	2.1	58	21	7.7	51%
Yobe	2	78.2	33.1	14.4	45%
Zamfara	2.9	76.4	32.4	13.7	34%

Source: NBS, 2007

APPENDIX 7B			APPENDIX 7C		
POVERTY INCIDENCE USING 2900 CALORIE LIMIT PLUS A COMPONENT OF NON-FOOD EXPENDITURE OF 8385 NAIRA BY STATE			**DOLLAR PER DAY BASED ON AN ADJUSTED PURCHASING POWER PARITY BY STATE**		
State	**Poor**	**Non-Poor**	**State**	**Poor**	**Non-Poor**
Abia	32.36	67.64	Abia	28.01	71.99
Adamawa	71.61	28.39	Adamawa	68.91	31.09
Akwa Ibom	50.83	49.17	Akwa Ibom	46.04	53.96
Anambra	32.12	67.88	Anambra	30.36	69.64
Bauchi	77.03	22.97	Bauchi	76.51	23.49
Bayelsa	33.33	66.67	Bayelsa	26.29	73.71
Benue	48.76	51.24	Benue	42.84	57.16
Borno	50.56	49.44	Borno	48.65	51.35
Cross River	55.04	44.96	Cross River	51.64	48.36
Delta	64.52	35.48	Delta	62.28	37.72
Ebonyi	51.88	48.12	Ebonyi	46.06	53.94
Edo	47.02	52.98	Edo	44.31	55.69
Ekiti	39.27	60.73	Ekiti	35.51	64.49
Enugu	36.76	63.24	Enugu	33.89	66.11
Gombe	70.04	29.96	Gombe	66.34	33.66
Imo	28.10	71.90	Imo	26.46	73.54
Jigawa	90.91	9.09	Jigawa	89.54	10.46
Kaduna	40.88	59.12	Kaduna	37.72	62.28
Kano	49.73	50.27	Kano	46.70	53.30
Katsina	62.19	37.81	Katsina	60.42	39.58
Kebbi	89.00	11.00	Kebbi	86.20	13.80
Kogi	89.62	10.38	Kogi	87.46	12.54
Kwara	81.73	18.27	Kwara	79.85	20.15
Lagos	66.96	33.04	Lagos	64.05	35.95
Nassarawa	52.87	47.13	Nassarawa	48.17	51.83
Niger	60.48	39.52	Niger	56.01	43.99
Ogun	30.99	69.01	Ogun	29.84	70.16
Ondo	47.31	52.69	Ondo	41.47	58.53
Osun	24.67	75.33	Osun	22.66	77.34
Oyo	20.95	79.05	Oyo	19.28	80.72
Plateau	54.91	45.09	Plateau	46.78	53.22
Rivers	46.40	53.60	Rivers	43.12	56.88
Sokoto	74.53	25.47	Sokoto	70.54	29.46
Taraba	57.98	42.02	Taraba	54.07	45.93
Yobe	78.22	21.78	Yobe	74.12	25.88
Zamfara	76.40	23.60	Zamfara	73.38	26.62
FCT	51.43	48.57	FCT	46.98	53.02
Total	54.7	45.3	**Total**	51.55	48.45

Source: NBS, 2005

APPENDIX 7D
POVERTY INCIDENCE BY STATE (1996, 2004)

STATE	YEAR 1996	2004
Abia	56.2	22.27
Adamawa	65.5	71.73
Akwa Ibom	66.9	34.82
Anambra	51.0	20.11
Bauchi	83.5	86.29
Bayelsa	44.3	19.98
Benue	64.2	55.33
Borno	66.9	53.63
Cross River	66.9	41.61
Delta	56.1	45.35
Ebonyi	51.0	43.33
Edo	56.1	33.09
Ekiti	71.6	42.27
Enugu	51.0	31.12
Gombe	83.5	77.01
Imo	56.2	27.39
Jigawa	71.0	95.07
Kaduna	67.7	50.24
Kano	71.0	61.29
Katsina	77.7	71.06
Kebbi	83.6	89.65
Kogi	75.5	88.55
Kwara	75.5	85.22
Lagos	53.0	63.58
Nassarawa	62.7	61.59
Niger	52.2	63.90
Ogun	69.9	31.73
Ondo	71.6	42.14
Osun	58.7	32.35
Oyo	58.7	24.08
Plateau	62.7	60.37
Rivers	44.3	29.09
Sokoto	83.9	76.81
Taraba	65.5	62.15
Yobe	66.9	83.25
Zamfara	83.9	80.93
FCT	53.0	43.32
All Nigeria	65.6	54.4

Source: NBS, 2005

APPENDIX 7E
POOREST STATES RANKED BY POVERTY INCIDENCE,

POVERTY GAP AND GINI INDEX

Rank	Poverty Incidence (highest)	Poverty Gap (largest)	Gini Index (highest)
	P_o	P_1	
1	Jigawa	Kogi	Lagos
2	Kogi	Jigawa	Kogi
3	Kebbi	Kwara	Benue
4	Kwara	Kebbi	Ogun
5	Yobe	Lagos	Imo
6	Bauchi	Sokoto	Taraba

Source: NLSS, 2004

APPENDIX 7F

LEAST POOR STATES RANKED BY POVERTY INCIDENCE, POVERTY GAP AND GINI INDEX

State	Poverty Incidence (lowest)	Poverty Gap (smallest)	Gini Index (lowest)
	P_o	P_1	
1	Oyo	Oyo	Sokoto
2	Osun	Osun	Zamfara
3	Imo	Anambra	Borno
4	Ogun	Imo	Ebonyi
5	Anambra	Ogun	Kebbi
6	Abia	Abia	Katsina

Poverty depth and severity are least in States with lowest incidence

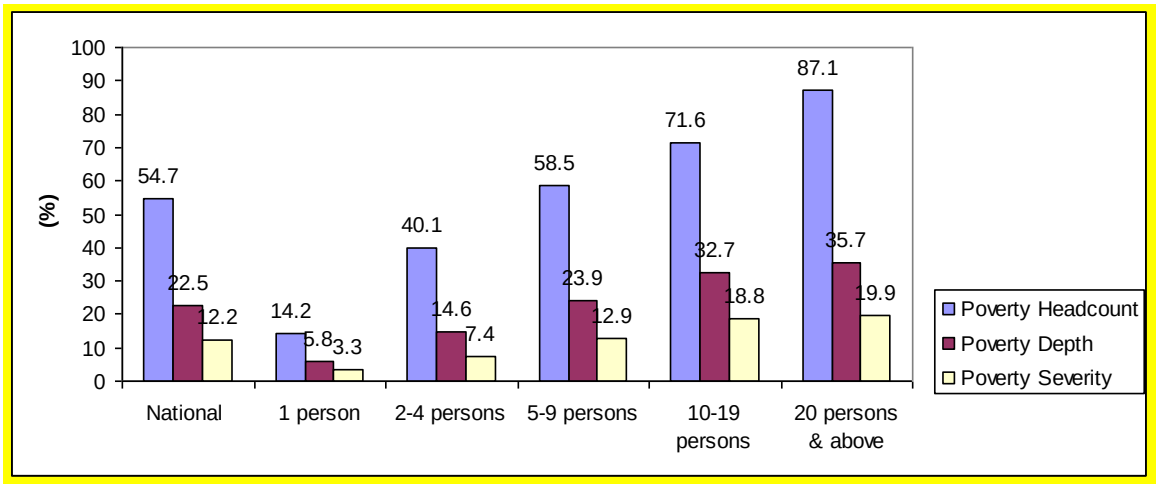
Source: NLSS, 2004

APPENDIX 8A
RELATIVE POVERTY INCIDENCE BY SIZE OF HOUSEHOLD

	Poverty Head Count				
	1980	**1985**	**1992**	**1996**	**2004**
1	0.2	9.7	2.9	13.1	12.6
2-4	8.8	19.3	19.5	51.5	39.3
5-9	30.0	50.5	45.4	74.8	57.9
10-20	51.0	71.3	66.1	88.5	73.3
20+	80.9	74.9	93.3	93.6	90.7
All Nigeria	27.2	46.3	42.7	65.6	54.4

Source: NCS 1980, 1985,1992, 1996, 2004

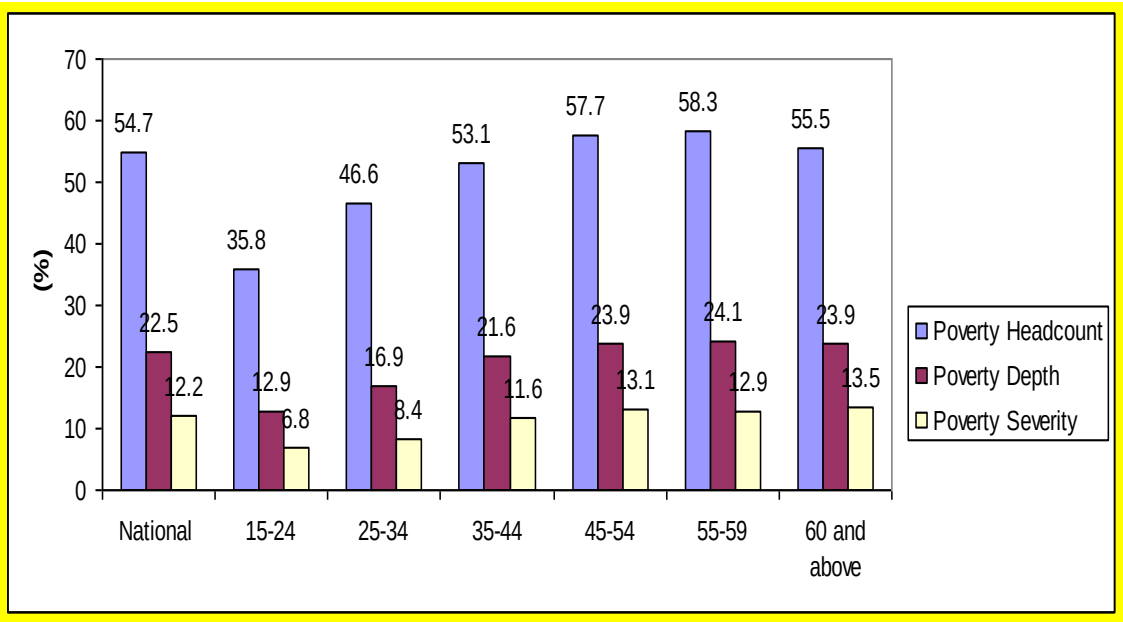
APPENDIX 8B
POVERTY HEAD-COUNT, DEPTH AND SEVERITY BY SIZE HOUSEHOLD SIZE



Source: NBS, 2007

APPENDIX 9

POVERTY HEAD-COUNT, DEPTH AND SEVERITY BY AGE



Source: NBS, 2007

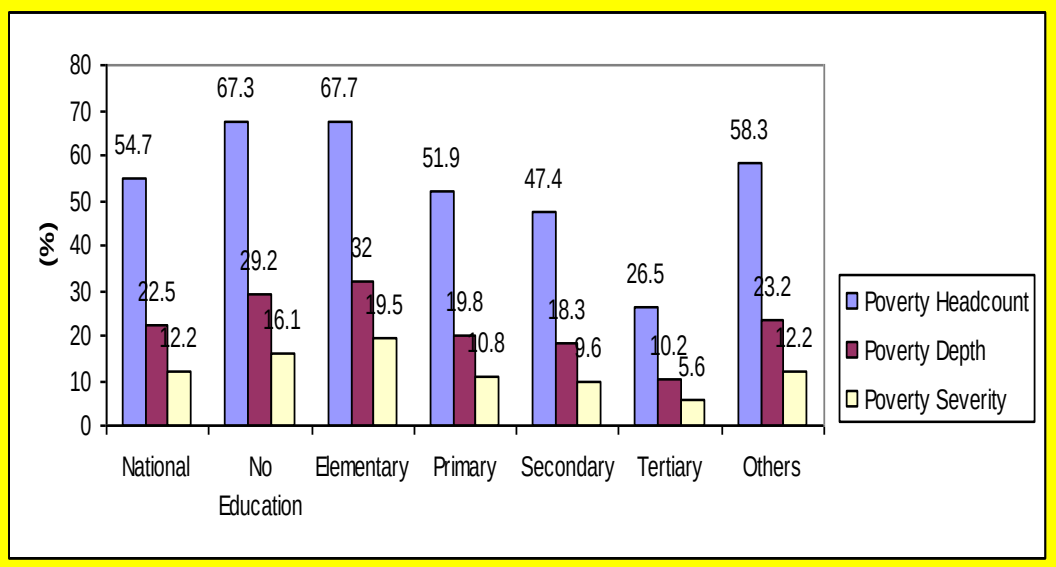
APPENDIX 10A
POVERTY INCIDENCE BY EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF HEAD OF HOUSEHOLD (IN %)

Level of Education	Poverty Head-count				
	1980	1985	1992	1996	2004
No Education	30.2	51.3	46.4	72.6	67.3
Primary	21.3	40.6	42.3	54.4	51.9
Secondary	7.6	27.2	30.3	52.0	47.4
Post Secondary	24.3	24.2	25.8	49.2	26.5
All Nigeria	27.2	46.3	42.7	65.6	54.7

Sources: NCS -- 1980, 1985, 1992, 1996; NLSS 2004

APPENDIX 10B

POVERTY HEAD-COUNT, DEPTH AND SEVERITY BY EDUCATION



Source: NBS, 2007

APPENDIX 11A

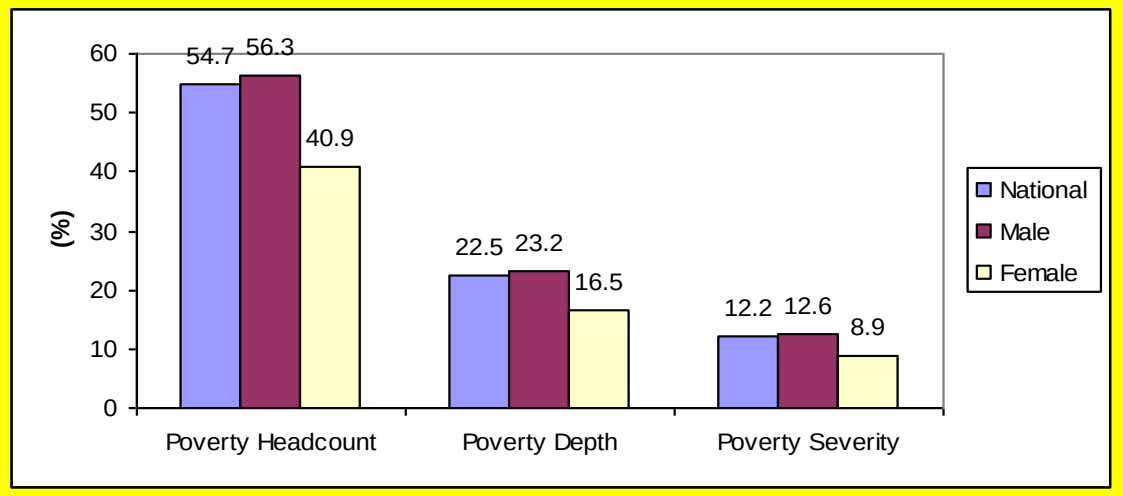
POVERTY BY GENDER OF HOUSEHOLD HEAD (IN %)

Year	Male-headed	Female-headed
1980	29.2	26.9
1985	47.3	38.6
1992	43.1	39.9
1996	64.7	58.5
2004	56.3	41.0

Source: NCS -- 1980, 1985, 1992, 1996; NLSS, 2004

APPENDIX 11B

POVERTY HEAD-COUNT, DEPTH AND SEVERITY BY GENDER



Source: NBS, 2007

APPENDIX 12A
RELATIVE POVERTY INCIDENCE BY OCCUPATION OF HOUSEHOLD HEADS

	Poverty Head Count				
	1980	**1985**	**1992**	**1996**	**2004**
Professional & Technical	17.3	35.6	35.7	51.8	34.2
Administration	45.0	25.3	22.3	33.5	45.3
Clerical & related	10.0	29.1	34.4	60.1	39.2
Sales Workers	15.0	36.6	33.5	56.7	44.2
Service Industry	21.3	38.0	38.2	71.4	43.0
Agricultural & Forestry	31.5	53.5	47.9	71.0	67.0
Production & Transport	23.2	46.6	40.8	65.8	42.5
Manufacturing & Processing	12.4	31.7	33.2	49.4	44.2
Others	1.5	36.8	42.8	61.2	49.1
Student & Apprentices	15.6	40.5	41.8	52.4	41.6
Total	27.2	46.3	42.7	65.6	54.4

Source: NCS 1980, 1985,1992, 1996, 2004

APPENDIX 12B
POVERTY PROFILE BY OCCUPATION OF HOUSEHOLD HEAD

	Absolute Poverty Line		
	Poverty Head-count	**Poverty Depth**	**Poverty Severity**
National	54.7	22.5	12.2
Student, retired, unemployed or inactive	45.9	18.1	9.8
Professional or technical	36.6	14.7	8.2
Administration	43.9	23.6	16.5
Clerical	41.1	16.3	8.7
Sales and related	43.9	17.3	9.2
Services and related	45.9	18.1	9.5
Agriculture and Forestry	66.3	27.9	15.1
Production and transport	40.9	15.6	7.9
Manufacturing and processing	44.5	17.8	10.1
Others	48.9	18.8	10.2

Source: NLSS, 2004.

APPENDIX 13
SOCIAL INDICATORS FOR NIGERIA

	1999	2003
1. Under-five mortality rate	168/1000	201/1000
2. Under five mortality rate (Urban)	129/1000	-
3. Under five mortality rate (Rural)	192/1000	-
4. Infant mortality rate	90/1000	100/1000
5. Stunting prevalence	30.0%	38.0%
6. Accessible to safe water	54.2%	42.0%
7. Literacy rate	52.7%	60.4%
8. Contraceptive prevalence	8.6%	13.0%
9. Net primary school enrolment rate	56.8%	60.1%
10. Maternal mortality rate	704/100,000	-
11. Maternal mortality rate (Urban)	351/100,000	-
12. Maternal mortality rate (Rural)	828/100,000	-
13. Total Fertility rate	5.2	5.7

Source: Combination of NDHS, MICS 1999, NDHS 2003

APPENDIX 14
DISTRIBUTION OF STATES BY POVERTY HEADCOUNT USING SELF-RATED LINES, *2004*

State	Poor	Non - Poor
Abia	82.46	17.54
Adamawa	76.18	23.82
Akwa Ibom	65.36	34.64
Anambra	71.07	28.93
Bauchi	88.30	11.70
Bayelsa	95.57	4.43
Benue	80.85	19.15
Borno	87.81	12.19
Cross River	81.16	18.84
Delta	84.25	15.75
Ebonyi	87.22	12.78
Edo	83.09	16.66
Ekiti	96.53	3.47
Enugu	80.77	19.23
Gombe	73.20	26.80
Imo	77.78	22.22
Jigawa	59.44	40.56
Kaduna	74.77	25.23
Kano	73.11	26.89
Katsina	76.03	23.97
Kebbi	73.55	26.45
Kogi	82.12	17.88
Kwara	88.68	11.32
Lagos	70.24	29.76
Nassarawa	77.48	22.52
Niger	75.28	24.72
Ogun	81.25	18.75
Ondo	80.13	19.87
Osun	65.10	34.90
Oyo	62.53	37.47
Plateau	81.42	18.58
Rivers	72.60	27.40
Sokoto	75.66	24.34
Taraba	80.47	19.53
Yobe	87.36	12.64
Zamfara	76.47	23.53
FCT, Abuja	82.32	17.68
Total	78.30	21.70

Source: National Bureau of Statistics, 2005

APPENDIX 15

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY STATE AS AT 31ST DECEMBER (URBAN), 2002 - 2006

Percentage

State	2002	2003	2004		2005		2006	
			ILO	NIG.	ILO	NIG.	ILO	NIG.
All Nigeria	3.8	3.2	3.3	11.0	4.3	10.0	3.8	10.5
Abia	2.7	2.6	3.7	4.4	*	12.0	3.7	8.2
Adamawa	9.3	7.5	*	1.5	2.7	25.7	2.7	13.5
Akwa Ibom	10.7	9.6	2.5	7.4	13.2	16.3	7.8	11.8
Anambra	4.6	3.9	1.9	1.9	13.7	16.4	7.8	9.2
Bauchi	n.a	n.a	5.6	28.6	*	13.2	5.6	20.9
Bayelsa	n.a	n.a	20.0	20.0	8.1	16.3	14.0	18.2
Benue	1.7	11.3	2.7	3.5	11.3	12.0	7.0	7.8
Borno	3.9	n.a	*	32.1	10.0	11.9	9.6	22.0
Cross River	16.0	3.5	10.4	11.5	10.4	11.5	10.5	11.3
Delta	8.9	3.2	*	*	0.4	10.4	10.7	10.1
Ebonyi	3.8	2.9	4.3	9.5	1.5	1.5	2.9	5.5
Edo	5.7	2.0	4.5	26.5	11.7	11.7	8.1	19.1
Ekiti	2.4	1.2	0.9	2.0	-	-	2.2	3.1
Enugu	5.3	5.0	6.4	6.4	4.3	9.5	5.4	8.0
Gombe	n.a	n.a	5.4	17.5	1.4	16.4	3.4	15.3
Imo	n.a	n.a	4.5	17.0	12.2	17.1	8.4	17.0
Jigawa	n.a	n.a	*	*	5.4	14.3	5.0	12.5
Kaduna	1.2	7.0	7.6	14.2	7.0	12.1	7.3	13.2
Kano	7.1	9.3	4.1	10.0	8.4	17.7	6.2	13.8
Katsina	n.a	4.8	*	*	2.6	2.6	2.1	2.3
Kebbi	16.7	4.8	*	64.5	*	55.0	*	61.0
Kogi	11.3	12.4	4.9	21.3	*	3.5	4.9	12.4
Kwara	0.3	2.7	*	4.6	1.4	6.0	1.7	5.3
Lagos	2.6	6.1	2.4	2.9	5.1	7.9	3.8	5.4
Nassarawa	3.8	0.9	4.0	4.0	*	8.7	4.0	6.4
Niger	2.0	0.6	7.5	13.8	3.7	3.7	5.6	8.8
Ogun	5.3	1.2	2.0	16.4	1.0	4.3	2.5	10.4
Ondo	1.8	1.7	3.4	3.4	5.2	14.2	4.3	8.8
Osun	2.8	0.4	*	*	0.2	1.4	*	1.1
Oyo	4.1	1.2	*	*	1.3	1.7	*	9.0
Plateau	n.a	0.9	10.7	10.7	*	8.3	10.7	9.5
Rivers	11.2	11.6	10.5	22.1	9.0	25.8	9.8	24.0
Sokoto	n.a	n.a	*	*	7.5	7.5	8.1	8.6
Taraba	n.a	27.8	*	*	11.5	11.5	10.5	11.3
Yobe	n.a	n.a	0.5	2.5	*	12.9	0.5	2.5
Zamfara	n.a	n.a	*	2.9	*	49.3	*	26.1
FCT, Abuja	n.a	2.7	14.3	20.9	8.9	14.4	11.6	17.6

Source: National Bureau of Statistics, 2005

Note: ILO = International Labour Organisation
NIG = Nigeria
* = Less than 0.01 Per Cent
n.a = Not Available

APPENDIX 16

PRIMARY REASON FOR POVERTY BY SELF-ASSESSMENT

Primary Reasons For Poverty	***%***
Agricultural inputs too high	28.54
Lack of capital to expand own business	10.00
Lack of capital to expand agricultural business	7.48
Low agricultural production	7.03
Low salaries	6.81
Lack of credit facilities to expand own business	6.41
Agricultural inputs not available	6.15
Hard economic times	5.46
Commodity prices high	4.45
Agricultural produce prices too low	3.07
Lack of adequate land	2.46
Others	2.36
Lack of employment opportunities	1.98
Low profit from business	1.61
Business not doing well	1.61
Lack of agricultural inputs due to other reasons	1.45
Lack of credit facilities to expand agricultural activities	1.40
No buyers for agricultural produce	0.74
Drought	0.35
Loss of property due to conflict	0.19
Lack of livestock due to death	0.19
Too much competition	0.14
Loss of employment due to conflict	0.11
Loss of limbs due to conflict	0.02
Total	100.00

Source: NBS, 2005