

# **CHAPTER ONE**

## **INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1. Background to the Study**

Poverty is multidimensional. It includes various alienations and deprivations such as lack of human capabilities, poor life expectancy, poor maternal health, illiteracy, poor nutritional levels, poor access to safe drinking water and perceptions of well-being (Anyanwu, 1997). However, issues in poverty now include physiological and social deprivations, vulnerability, inequality, violation of basic human rights (World Bank Report, 1999), and the observable disadvantage in relation to the local community or the wider society or nation to which a deprived individual, family, household or group belongs (Zupi, 2007).

Although poverty is a global phenomenon, the level of the problem in developing countries has reached alarming proportions. Globally, about 1.2 billion people are living in extreme poverty of less than one dollar per day. Due to the high prevalence of poverty, reducing it has been of grave concern to many countries in the past few decades. Though, there have been lots lot of improvements in developed world, such cannot be said of developing ones especially in Sub-Saharan Africa where poverty is prevalent due to many factors which include poor governance and political instability, poor economic management, mismanagement of resources, poor programme implementation, corruption and lack of purposeful leadership (Babatunde, Olorunsanya and Adejola, 2008).

The Nigerian situation especially has been described as a paradox. This is because the poverty level contradicts the country's immense wealth. Among other things, the country is enormously endowed with human, agricultural, petroleum, gas, and largely untapped solid mineral resources. Rather than recording remarkable progress in socio-economic development, Nigeria retrogressed to become one of the 25 poorest countries in the world

(Ekpe, 2011). The 2010 poverty index indicated that 60.9 percent Nigerians now live in absolute poverty (Baba-Ahmed, 2012). Most of these poor people reside in the rural areas.

Poverty is pronounced among the rural dwellers in Nigeria because the people are backward and underdeveloped in terms of minimum human standard of living. In the rural areas, the following are evident: the roads are bad, women and children walk barefoot and trek long distances to get water and firewood; pupils study under trees; there are dilapidated and ill equipped health centres, poor education, lack of facilities and opportunities, natural disasters and economic upheaval as well as crime and violence. These are due to neglect and inconsistency in the poverty reduction policies and programmes of successive governments since 1960 in Nigeria (Aderonmu, 2010).

The rural segment of the population in Nigeria is important in a number of ways. They provide the bulk of the food which is consumed nationwide and sometimes exported. They constitute the resource base of the nation and provide needed labour for industries and other service organizations located in the urban areas (Jibowo 1992). It is unfortunate that these substantial human and material resources in the rural areas are allowed to waste away.

The problem of the rural areas is however rooted in the immanent nature of post-colonial Nigerian state which created rural-urban dichotomy during the colonial period. The rural people that form 73 percent of Nigeria's population with vast wealth are left in waste because of neglect (Yakubu and Aderonmu, 2010). This is due to imperialism of the British that colonized Nigeria. The development patterns that the colonial masters fashioned out were for the accumulation and development of the imperial nations. This involved the concentration of development programmes in the urban areas. Only resources were taken from the rural areas and no efforts were made to develop them. This laid the foundation of the structural underdevelopment of rural Nigeria. The elite that took over from the colonial masters imbibed the ideology of development practised by their predecessors. They were equally

urban biased in the distribution of their development programmes. They deliberately developed the urban areas and neglected the rural areas (Akeredolu-Ale, 1975).

The Nigerian colonial state did not lay a solid foundation for the development of post-colonial state as it was fashioned to fail. This argument is in itself controversial because the fact remained that the post-colonial state inherited weak structures from the colonial state. However, one would have thought that 52 years after independence would have been adequate enough to lay a good foundation for economic transformation. The character and the nature of post-colonial state were such that the development issues were not properly articulated by the leaders. The Nigerian leaders were preoccupied with local politics as well as the struggle for power and who gets what to the detriment of fashioning out economic policy that would engender national development.

The discovery of crude oil in commercial quantity and its accruing petrol dollars that would have improved national economy and the living standard of rural inhabitants did not approximate reality. Rather, it worsened the problem of rural poverty. Indeed, it led to the neglect of agriculture and cash crops productions that contributed 70 percent to the economy before the discovery of crude oil. The government no longer gives primary importance to rural development through agricultural fed industrialization and self sufficiency in food production (Jega and Waliki, 2002). This has led to the rural-urban migration as people are no longer interested in residing in rural areas. The drift of the youth and school leavers to urban areas compounds the issue in the sense that, youths who constitute the productive force in rural areas now reside in the cities looking for non-existing white collar jobs. This has led to the increase in violence, crime and youth restiveness in urban centres.

As a result of constant public outcry on the state of rural poverty, successive Nigerian governments embarked on a number of programmes geared towards poverty reduction in Nigeria. Some of these include but are not limited to Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural

Infrastructure (DFRRI) in 1986, Better Life for Rural Dwellers in 1987, National Directorate of Employment (NDE) in 1986, Poverty Alleviation Programme (PAP) in 2000, National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) 2001 and National Economic Empowerment Development Strategy (NEEDS) in 2004 and the current transformation agenda of President Goodluck Jonathan's administration in this regard.

All these programmes failed as they could not meet their set objectives because of poor policy implementation, corruption and inability of the government to explore the democratic approach to governance. The various poverty alleviation programmes were not deep. There was no sincerity in the Nigerian elite's development programme agenda in the rural areas. Much attention seemed not to be given to the fact that beyond government's efforts, the rural people themselves can meaningfully contribute to the development of their welfare (Alila, 1998).

It is therefore, imperative to investigate the factors which may have impeded effective policy implementation and development of the rural areas over the years in Nigeria.

The thesis of this study therefore, is that poor implementation of government's policies over the years have contributed greatly to rural poverty in Nigeria, using the case and conditions of Ado-Odo Ota rural communities, Ogun State as representative.

## **1.2. Statement of Problem**

The United Nations declared 1996, the international year of eradication of poverty and 1997 to 2006, decade of poverty eradication. The year of achieving Millennium Development Goal was also set for 2015. In pursuance of these targets, governments in both developed and developing countries became increasingly aware of poverty problems and several development efforts to alleviate poverty were embarked upon world-wide. Unfortunately, the issue of poverty eradication has proven to be the most difficult challenge facing less

developed countries where majority of the people live in abject poverty. However, governments have continued to respond in order to ameliorate the worsening conditions of the poor by shifting public expenditure towards poverty eradication (Agbiokoro, 2009).

In Nigeria, it is no longer news that the country is a poor. Perhaps, what is news is Nigerian's inability to affect its environment positively for development purposes. Since the 1990s, the country has been classified as a poor nation by the World Bank. The incidence of poverty is very high among the unemployed, the uneducated women and generally rural dwellers. In 1980, the poverty level was only 28.1 percent but by 1996 it had jumped to 66.6 percent and in 2010 the poverty level has increased to 69.0 percent in relative term (NBS, 2012). Different poverty eradication programmes and projects to cushion the effects of poverty have been initiated over the years. This was received with high hopes by the people. Poverty eradication was seen as a means through which the government could revamp the battered economy and rebuild self-esteem in majority of Nigerians.

In 1999, when the former President Olusegun Obasanjo administration came to power, a World Bank's report indicated that Nigeria's Human Development Index (HDI) was 0.416 and that about 70 percent of the population was below the poverty line (Maduabum, 2006). These alarming indicators prompted the government to review the existing poverty alleviation schemes with a view to harmonizing them and improving on them. It was discovered that there had been certain fundamental problems responsible for the inadequacy of anti-poverty measures over the years. The need to find lasting solution to the perennial problem of poverty culminated into the establishment of National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) in 2001.

In spite of huge resources devoted to NAPEP, deterioration in fiscal discipline, corruption and poor implementation which undermined past efforts still make poverty eradication in Nigeria a mirage. The rate of unemployment has continued to rise and the poverty situation

has exacerbated. Rahaman (2000) explains that the social scourge of poverty and joblessness are widespread and the incidence is increasing its negative impact on the economy and quality of life of the people. Unemployment is on the increase with attendant disaffection and restlessness among the youths who are faced with reduced job opportunities and idleness.

The situation has not changed as the number of poor people in Nigeria continues to increase especially in the rural communities. This raises questions on the way the Nigerian government has been implementing its various policies on poverty which leaves much to be desired.

The following money were said to have been expended for the purpose of poverty eradication in Nigeria between 2001 and 2008; #11.8 billion as budgetary allocation, #4 billion for procurement of Keke NAPEP, #10 billion from State Governments and commercial banks for multi- partnership programme and #8.2 billion from the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) (Agbiokoro, 2009). This amounted to #34billion and a lot more have been collected since after 2008. Despite the huge resources committed through budgetary allocation, the agency has not efficiently impacted on the lives of Nigerians. As a matter of fact, is the need to take a careful look at the issues of policy on poverty eradication in Nigeria in the light of continuing efforts on the part of the government to address it which has been without positive results. If over #30billion has been gathered for poverty eradication in 8years and these resources have been utilized efficiently, there should have been significant improvements in the living standard of the generality of the people and the poverty level should ordinarily be reduced. But on the contrary, the living standard of the Nigerian people deteriorated further to 60.9 percent absolute poverty level in 2010 (NBS, 2012), the year NAPEP was expected to have eradicated absolute poverty in Nigeria (Birdir, 2002).

The consequence of the high incidence of policy failures and neglect is reflected in high level of poverty in the rural areas in Nigeria. Policies have made little impact as the rural areas

remain in penury. Schools, portable drinking water, electricity, good access roads, health centres, markets and credit facilities are not available and where they are in existence, they are poorly built and managed (Omorogbe 2005). According to the UNICEF Report quoted in Oviasuyi (2010) on the state of world's children, only 39 percent of rural Nigerians have access to safe water. Besides, health-care facilities are poor and very inadequate in areas where they exist at all. According to the Fourth National Development Plan (Volume 1), about 95 percent of the entire population of rural areas in Nigeria is not covered by any form of modern medical facilities (Oviasuyi, 2010). The myriads of policies and programmes put in place to ameliorate the situation have remained either uncompleted or abandoned while substantial resources have been wasted.

The questions are what is the government doing to reverse this ugly situation? What are the factors that have impeded implementation of government policies on poverty over the years? These and others are issues and focus of this study using National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) in Ado-Odo Ota Local Government Area, Ogun State as a Case Study.

### **1.3. Objectives of the Study**

The main objective of this study is to investigate the effects of Policy Implementation on Rural Poverty Reduction in Nigeria: An Analysis of NAPEP in Ado-Odo Ota Local Government, Ogun State. Though this study uses Ado-Odo Local Government Area of Ogun State as a case study, the conclusions derived shall be used to generalize on its impact on the whole country. It is however, divided into the following sub-objectives:

1. to examine the effects of NAPEP on rural poverty reduction in Nigeria;
2. to analyze the constraints of effective implementation of NAPEP in the rural communities in Nigeria;
3. to investigate the extent of rural communities' participation in NAPEP in Nigeria and

4. to assess whether NAPEP has been implemented to achieve its objective as formulated.

#### **1.4. Research Questions**

1. What are the effects of NAPEP on rural poverty reduction in Nigeria?
2. What are the constraints of effective implementation of NAPEP in the rural communities in Nigeria?
3. To what extent do rural communities' participate in NAPEP in Nigeria?
4. How has NAPEP been implemented to achieve its formulated objectives?

#### **1.5. Research Hypotheses**

1. Ho: NAPEP has no effects on rural poverty reduction in Nigeria.  
Hi: NAPEP has effects on rural poverty reduction in Nigeria.
2. Ho: There are no constraints of effective implementation of NAPEP in the rural areas in Nigeria.  
Hi: There are constraints of effective implementation of NAPEP in the rural areas in Nigeria.
3. Ho: There is no participation of rural communities in the implementation of NAPEP.  
Hi: There is participation of rural communities in the implementation of NAPEP.
4. Ho: NAPEP has not been implemented to achieve its objective as formulated.  
Hi: NAPEP has been implemented to achieve its objective as Formulated



### **1.6. Significance of the Study**

The study is significant in that it identifies and recommends possible solutions to the problems often encountered in the implementation of government policies and programmes on poverty reduction in Nigeria.

To the Nigerian people, this study intends to popularize the activities of government policies especially the various programmes of NAPEP and the need for the rural people to begin to demand benefits and accountability from government policies through participation in the programme in order to improve their well being.

To the government and policy-makers, the study identifies and reveals the successes, failures, challenges and prospects and provides recommendations on how policy can be made and implemented effectively, efficiently. In addition, Policies should be people-oriented in order to make significant impact in terms of accomplishing improved quality of life of the rural communities. In this connection, government policy may be designed to suit socio political reality of the people to which the policy is targeted. Making people oriented policy will ensure sense of belonging and commitment on the part of the populace towards government policies.

The study will equally serve as a reference point for future researchers, students, policy makers and implementers in their efforts to provide new vistas on how to effectively and efficiently implement policies and programmes that will help to reduce poverty in Nigeria especially in the rural areas.

### **1.7.Scope and Delimitation of the Study**

The study is restricted to Policy Implementation and Rural Poverty Reduction in Nigeria: An Analysis of National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) in Ado-Odo Ota Local Government, Ogun State. It is limited to strategic issues involved in policies and programmes

on poverty reduction in Nigeria with emphasis on the activities of the National Poverty Eradication Programme in the rural areas in the past 12 years - 1999 to 2012.

Ado-Odo Ota local government, Ogun State is chosen for the study because the people of these areas have no reason to be poor but yet they are wallowing in abject poverty. Despite the fact that there are three universities (Covenant University, Ota, Bells University, Ota and Crawford University, Igbesa), Gateway Polytechnic, Igbesa, Agbara Industrial Estate, Free Trade Zone created by Chinese companies in Igbesa, Ado-Odo Farm settlements, Obasanjo's farms (a gigantic farm established in Ota by the two-time former Head of State of Nigeria) and many other industries, the rural people are totally disconnected from these elements of development. The rural people have been dispossessed of their land; they do not have access to education in the universities because they cannot afford the exorbitant fees charged by the private Universities. Many of them cannot even work at the industrial estates because of poor education. The infrastructure available is built around the sub-urban areas occupied by these institutions and industries. It is disheartening to note that there is no visible major developmental programme for the rural communities of Ado-Odo Ota. To worsen the situation, majority of the areas occupied by the local people are denied basic infrastructure like electricity, water, good roads and health facilities. Then, one begins to ask questions regarding the contributions of NAPEP to eradicate poverty in the rural communities for the past 12 years.

### **1.8. Operational Definition of Terms**

The following terms are applicable in the context of this study:

**Bottom-Up Policy-** Policy making begins at the bottom and ends at the top, the policy problem is identified at the local level then, it gradually assumes a larger dimension and is ultimately solved at the higher level, after passing through some phases.

**Bureaucrats-** These are government officials that are responsible for the implementation of policies. They are expected to do this by following the prescribed rules and regulations in an impersonal manner and also ensure that the rules are obeyed for the smooth running of the administrative machinery of the government.

**Development-** It generally means the improvement of people's life styles through improved education, incomes, skills acquisition and employment.

**Discourse Analysis-** There are two meanings for this term as used in this study. First it is used to mean a particular way of thinking and arguing which involves the political activity of naming and classifying with attempts to make explicit the implicit values and ideologies in discourse in order to depoliticize the value-laden terminology. The second relates to the analysis of language used in policy-making by labeling in policy discussions such as: 'the rural poor'.

**Epistemic/policy Community-** These are a group of technical experts with access to privileged information who share and discuss ideas and can have powerful influence on policy making. Those without access to this information are therefore excluded.

**Escape Hatches** – These describe the way policy makers avoid responsibility for policies they make. In this case, the dichotomy between policy making and implementation is seen as an avenue which can be used to this end. For example, policy makers who see implementation as a separate process to policy-making may attribute policy failure to poor implementation rather than poor policy formulation.

**Effectiveness-** It refers to the level of attainment or realization of a programme goal. It provides answers to the question of whether stated intentions, plans and projections have not been met. Also, it evaluates activities, efforts and accomplishments.

**Efficiency** – It refers to the input or resources expended and the results obtained. An efficient programme is the one that achieves high output with minimum input. A performing programme then is that which achieves efficiently intended targets, output and purpose.

**Evaluation** – An assessment of policy to determine its effectiveness and efficiency. In this study, it also includes impact assessment to determine whether a particular policy under implementation is meeting its desired result or making the necessary impact.

**Model** – It is an abstraction from reality that is intended to simplify our view of that reality without losing its essential characteristics. It is used by policy analysts to identify important aspects of policy, as well as explain and predict policy and its consequences.

**Participation**- This means the involvement of the target beneficiaries in the formulation, implementation, evaluation and monitoring of government policies that are made to affect their lives.

**Policy Impact**- This refers to the effect of a policy on real world conditions or consequences on every facet of the society and includes impact on the target situation or group, impact on unintended group and on the future, as well as, the immediate condition. But the major concern is on the target group due to policy objectives.

**Policy Narratives**- They are distinct from discourses, which refer to a wider set of values and a way of thinking. A narrative can be part of a discourse if it describes a specific ‘story’ which is in line with the broader set of values and priorities of a discourse.

**Policy Performance** – Policy performance refers to how well a policy is doing in relation to intended purposes, objectives, targets and intended consequences. It comprises the assessment of the effectiveness and efficiency of the policy or programme.

**Programme** – A programme is a means through which policy objectives are realised. A policy may contain different programmes and is more comprehensive. Programmes and

Projects can be used interchangeably. Programmes or projects are packages of activities upon which human and material energies can be employed in the achievement of policy objectives.

**Rural Community-** This refers to the local agrarian areas where majority of Nigerians live to perceive common needs and problems, as well as acquire a sense of identity and common set of objectives with their social relationships found within these areas.

**Street-Level-Bureaucracy-** A concept developed as a result of time constraints and other practical considerations, as well as political opinion. In this case, those who work in bureaucracies influence the practical working out of a policy to produce an outcome which may be substantially different from that originally intended by a policy maker.

**Technocrats-** These are government officials with technical expertise gained over a long period of time at top level management and administrative level of government. They are skillful in the application of initiative and highly competent in the interpretation of rules and regulations in an impersonal manner.

**Theories-** these are attempts to provide a general description of a fact of life. In the context of social sciences, they are general explanations of the natural ways in which we perceive social issues. Theories are developed by the policy analysts to help us understand the practice of policy making.

**Top-Down Policy-** Policies enunciated from the government and not from the people are derived from the top and received down the line at the local level at the bottom without the people making any input into the policy.

## **1.9. Organization of the Study**

The thesis is organized into six chapters. Chapter one is the introduction that discusses the problems, objectives, research questions, hypotheses, scope and delimitation of the study and its significance, definition of terms and organization of the study. The second chapter

reviews the relevant literature starting from the concept of poverty, classification of poverty, measurement of poverty, phenomenon of poverty in the world, poverty in Nigeria, the cause of rural poverty in Nigeria. Others include: the concept of public policy, factors influencing public policy, approaches to public policy, public policy making process and public policy analysis. The study also reviews major works on the problems of policy implementation in a developing country like Nigeria, past policy initiatives at tackling rural poverty in Nigeria; National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP). The last is the gaps in the literature review.

In the theoretical framework, the study has designed a Policy Analysis Model of Participation and Change Management to explain the importance of effective policy implementation as a pre-condition for rural poverty reduction in Nigeria. System Theory and Process Theory serve as background knowledge to the model. They are however combined with three other models which include Policy Formulation Process Model, the Model for Roles and Involvement of Local Communities in the Development of Projects and Programmes and the Model of Change Management.

The third chapter describes the methodology used in data collection and analysis while the fourth chapter presents the analysis of the data. The fifth chapter highlights and discusses the findings of the research and their implications. The last chapter includes the summary of the thesis, conclusion and the recommendations derived from the findings, contributions to knowledge and suggestions for further studies.

## REFERENCES

- Aderonmu, J. A. (2010). "Local Government and Poverty Eradication in Rural Nigeria". *Canadian Research & Development Centre of Sciences and Culture*. Canada: Social Science. [http:// www.fags.org/periodicals](http://www.fags.org/periodicals).
- Agbiokoro, T. C. (2009). "The Impact of National Poverty Eradication Programme NAPEP on Economic Development of Nigeria". *Unpublished Work Submitted to Economics Department, Ebonyi State University, Abakaliki*: <http://chtuaeeconomist.blogspot.ca/search/label/scoopters>
- Akeredolu-Ale, E.O. (1975). "Poverty as a Social Issue: A Theoretical Note". In O. Teriba (ed.) *Poverty Alleviation in Nigeria*. Ibadan: Nigerian Economic Society.
- Alila, P.O. (1998). "Strengthening Local Social Systems and People's Organization Capabilities for Local and Regional Development". *Regional Development Dialogue*, 19(2): 69- 84.
- Anyanwu, J.C. (1997). "Poverty in Nigeria: Concepts, Measurement and Determinants". in O. Teriba (ed.), *Poverty Alleviation in Nigeria*. Ibadan: Nigerian Economic Society.
- Baba-Ahmed, A. (2012). "The Nigeria Profile 2010 Reprort". *National Bureau of Statistics*, Abuja: <Http://www.peopledaily-online.com> 14, February.
- Babatunde, R. A. Olorunsanya, E. O. and Adejola (2008). "Assessment of Rural Household Poverty: Evidence from South-Western Nigeria". *American-Eurasian J, Agric. & Environ. Sci.* 3(6): 900- 905.
- CBN/World Bank (1999). "Study of Poverty Assessment and Alleviation, Federal Government of Nigeria 1997 Report of the Vision 2010". *Committee Main Report*. Abuja: September.
- Ekpe, A. E. (2011). "Poverty Alleviation in Nigeria through Capitalism Economic Framework: Problems and Challenges". *Journal of sustainable Development in Africa*, Pennsylvania: Clarion University of Pennsylvania.
- Jega A. M. and Waliki, H. (eds.) (2002). "The Poverty Eradication Programme in Nigeria: Problems and Prospects". Kano: *Centre for Democratic Research and Training*,
- Jibowo, G. (1992). *Essentials of Rural Development*. Abeokuta: Sodipo Press.
- Maduabum, C. P. (2006). *The Mechanics of Public Administration in Nigeria*. Lagos: Concept Publications Ltd.
- Omorogbe, S. K. (2005). "Community Development Associations as Agents of Rural Development: A Study of Edo State". *Ph.D Dissertation, Unpublished .Submitted to the Department of Sociology*. Ambrose Alli University, Ekpoma.
- Oviasuyi K. (2010). "Model for Roles and Involvement of Local Communities in Development Projects and Programmes of Local Government Authorities in Nigeria". *Kamla-Raj: J Hum Ecol*, 31(2): 103-109.
- Rahaman, O. (2007). "Millennium Development Goals and the Nigerian Youths". [www.searchwarp.com](http://www.searchwarp.com).

Yakubu, O. D. and Aderonmu J. A. (2010). "Rural Poverty Alleviation and Democracy in Nigeria's Fourth Republic (1999 – 2009)". *Current Research Journal of Social Sciences*. New York: Maxwell Scientific Organization, 2(3) 191.

Zupi M (2007). "The Multi-D-Dimensions of Poverty: Some Conceptual and Policy Challenges", *Social International Development*, 50 (2).



## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW/THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

#### **2.1. Literature Review**

In order to place the study in proper perspective, the literature review is arranged in the following order: the conceptual discourse, the review of relevant literatures and the gaps in the literature review. On the conceptual discourse, it includes the concept of poverty, classification of poverty, measurement of poverty, poverty in the world, poverty in Nigeria, the causes of rural poverty in Nigeria. Others include: the concept of public policy, factors influencing public policy, approaches to public policy, public policy making process and public policy analysis. On the review of relevant literature, the study reviewed the major works on the problems of policy implementation in developing country like Nigeria especially why policy fails at implementation stage; past policy measures at tackling rural poverty in Nigeria and National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP). The last is the gaps in the literature review.

##### **2.1.1. The Conceptual Discourse**

This is divided into two. The first discusses the concept of poverty, classification of poverty, measurement of poverty, poverty in the world, poverty in Nigeria, the cause of rural poverty in Nigeria. The second examines the concept of public policy, factors influencing public policy, approaches to public policy, public policy making process and public policy analysis.

##### **2.1.1.1. The Concept of Poverty**

According to Encyclopedia Britannica (Encarta, 2000), poverty is a state of one who lacks usual or socially acceptable amount of money or material possessions. Poor people are often forced to make difficult and agonizing choices- feed the family or send children to school, buy medicine for a sick family member or feed the rest of the family, take a dangerous job or

starve. This implies that the poor cannot afford all the basic needs of life at the same time. They have to forgo one in order to have the other. Moreover, poverty is said to exist when people lack the means to satisfy their basic needs. In this context, the poor are identified by a determination to what constitute basic needs. These needs such as nutrition, housing, clothing, health and education are necessary for survival.

This is supported by Egwuatu (2002) that poverty is inability of people to meet the economic, social and other standard of well-being. Also Oladunni (1999) in his own view sees poverty as not having enough to eat, poor nutrition, high infant mortality rates, low educational opportunities and many others. Babatunde, et' al (2008) in their article entitled; "Assessment of Rural Household Poverty: Evidence from South-Western Nigeria", add that poverty manifests in many ways which include the lack of capability by individuals or groups to function and feed well in society. Therefore, poverty is a complex human phenomenon with unacceptable low standard of living. It has multiple dimensions, manifestations and causes.

Poverty is dynamic. According to Shaffer (2000 quoted in Ugoh, et' al, 2009), the concept of poverty has undergone four changes over the past decade. First, there has been a shift from a physiological model of deprivation to a social model of deprivation. The social model is about incorporating issues of political and economic rights and social justice into the anti-poverty programmatic framework. Second, there has been renewed emphasis placed on the concept of vulnerability and its relationship to poverty. Third, the concept of inequality and its relationship to poverty has re-emerged as a central concern and fourth, the idea that poverty should be conceptualized as the violation of basic human rights has been painstakingly argued by UN system agencies. Similarly, it is believed that meaningful onslaught against poverty must be focused on these dimensions in order to be seen and complete. Efforts and resources needed to address the physiological needs of citizens alone is prodigious enough, not to talk of waging an all – inclusive campaign against poverty, which

shows that the socio-economic problems that policies address cannot be solved by governments acting on their own, nor are they exclusive domain of one sector. Poverty is a general condition of deprivation that consigns its victims to the level of their societies.

Zupi (2007) who agrees with poverty dynamism analyzes the fact that poverty has been seen as a dynamic process rather than a static phenomenon, one that captures the various forms of deprivation in well-being. It implies an observable disadvantage in relation to the local community or the wider society or nation to which a deprived individual, family, household or group belongs. The concept of poverty is also linked to distribution in terms of economic distance, that is, inequality.

However, distribution alone cannot identify the ability to achieve a decent level of living. Distribution must be regarded as an important correlated but different concept to poverty. As a general rule, a better distribution will be more pro-poor but opposed the view that poverty and inequality are correlated. Castel (1996) defines poverty as a static or dynamic concept. The definition of poverty as a cycle projects its dynamic nature and its linkage to marginalization and social exclusion. After decades of social policies based on the inclusion of the poor, poverty is again being treated as a problem of marginalization. Marginalization puts poverty further apart from the whole of society. As far as poverty is concerned, the fundamental right to a minimum of resource for not starving is not enough for organizing a social response to its increase. Social exclusion confirms a dual society and appears more as a symptom of a social fracture than as a solution against it.

#### **2.1.1.2. Classification of Poverty**

Poverty can be classified into five: absolute poverty, relative poverty, chronic/structural poverty, conjectural transitory and spatial/location. Absolute poverty occurs when human beings live in a state of deprivation due to meager income or lack of access to basic human

needs which include food, safe water, sanitation, health, shelter, education and information. **Relative poverty** is from a comparative point of view, that is, poverty is not absolute but relative. Relative poverty refers to the position of household or individual compared. It is measured in three ways: through the low income family statistics; through income and through disposable income. **Chronic/Structural poverty** means that it is persistent or long term. Its causes are more permanent and depend on a host of factors such as limited productive resources, lack of gainful employment, vocational disadvantage or endemic socio-political and cultural factors. **Conjectural transitory** which means poverty is temporary or short-term and cause mainly by factors such as natural or man-made disasters – wars and environmental degradation or structural changes induced by policy reforms which result in loss of employment, loss in value of real income assets, etc. **Spatial/location** means depending on geographical or regional spread and incidence. It involves urban squalor/poverty typified by the existence of ghettos, slums and shanties in metropolitan cities and characterized by environmental degradation, inadequate welfare services and social deprivations, low per-capita income, over-crowded accommodation, engagement in informal business, rural poverty characterized by poor conditions of living. (Hettne, 2002 quoted in Ugoh and Ukpere, 2009). The essence of the explanation is helpful in contrasting the poor and non-poor in a particular society. In fact, there is a common thread in all these varieties of poverty.

Sachs (2005) in his own classification identifies three degrees of poverty - extreme or absolute poverty, moderate poverty and relative poverty. Extreme poverty according to Sachs, means that a household cannot meet basic needs for survival. They are chronically hungry, unable to access healthcare, lack safe drinking water and sanitation, cannot afford education for their children, lack rudimentary shelter, clothing and shoes. Moderate poverty on the other hand, generally refers to conditions of life in which basic needs are barely met.

The third category of poverty, relative poverty is generally construed as a household income level below a given proportion of average national income. From the above classification, it will not be out of place to conclude that the rural dwellers in Nigeria fall into the category of the first classification of extreme or absolute poverty.

One deduction that could be made from the above definitions is that poverty has many dimensions such as inadequate income, malnutrition, lack of access to social services, and lack of social and political status. And that for a given country in given circumstances, poverty must be conceived, defined, measured in absolute quantitative ways that are relevant and valid for analysis and policy making in that given time and space (Uniamikogbo,1997).

#### **2.1.1.3. Measurement of Poverty**

There are different measurements of poverty. Some of them include Absolute poverty, Relative poverty and Human Development Index (HDI).The theory of absolute poverty was later developed further as the theory of poverty line. This is usually defined as the cut off living standard level below, which a person is classified by counting the people whose income is below the poverty line. The condition can be described as poor if per capital income and consumption of the individual is below 370 US dollars or, very poor if it is below 275 US dollars (Oladunni, 1999). The major advantage of absolute definition and measurement of poverty is that it is clear and unambiguous. However, it is difficult to define necessities or minimum standard of living. This clearly changes over time and places.

Relative poverty stresses social exclusion from normal pattern of life in a society through lack of income. It is measured in three ways. First, through the low income family statistics, second, through income and, third, through disposable income. Measurement of poverty through low income family statistics is to first take the government's own level of income support plus an allowance for housing as a guide. The amount added up to approximately 140

percent of income support. The reason behind this is that income supports reflect the minimum level of income the government believes is reasonably possible to live in; this was particularly used by the British government in the period of 1972 and 1978. The income measurement under relative poverty is done by drawing a line at a certain percentage below which people are said to be poor. This may be at 50 percent or 80 percent of an average income. In a society based on inequality of income therefore poverty will always exist. (Moore, 2000)

Moore (2000) explains further that there are problems with statistics of poverty based on income. This is because first, only a snap shot of poverty at one time is shown. It does not show how long people have been living in poverty. The longer people have been in poverty the worst is their situation. Second, all statistics underestimate the extent of poverty; they exclude the homeless and those in residential care.

Human Development Index (HDI) is another way of measuring poverty. HDI was introduced by the United Nations in 1999 to measure a country's socio-economic condition such as life expectancy, access to education, shelter, electricity; potable water, etc. Based on these indicators, the HDI is computed for a specific welfare and suppressed to a value of between 0 and 1; the country with HDI below 0.5 is low country. Between 0.5 and 0.8 HDI is at the medium range while 0.8 and above have high level of HDI. This approach is a simple average of three deprivation indices longevity represented by life expectancy; knowledge-based on weighted average of literacy rate and means years of schooling and income which is computed using per capital data, this is a good measure but difficult to assess.

However, N.B.S (2012) has used the above categorization and others in the determination of the level of poverty in Nigeria. Other categories are dollar per day and Gini coefficient

measurement and Subjective measure. All these are adopted in the determination of poverty in Nigeria in this study especially in the rural areas.

In measuring poverty in Nigeria in 2010, the N.B.S uses different measures:

- Relative measure was used in summing the expenditure of the household. This household expenditure was deflated using the Consumer Price Index (CPI). The objective of deflating the figures obtained was to correct for seasonal and regional variations of the expenditure data items; Capita household expenditure. Households with expenditure greater than two-thirds of the Total Household Per Capita expenditure are non-poor whereas those below it are poor. Further desegregation showed that households with less than one-third of total Household Per Capita expenditure are core poor (extreme poor) while those households greater than one-third of total expenditure but less than two-thirds of the total expenditure are moderate poor. In the end, the relative poverty measure showed that 69% or 112,470,000 of Nigerians are living in poverty.
- The Absolute (Objective) Measure of Poverty is otherwise known as Food Energy Intake measure of poverty. In this case, the food basket of the poorest 40 percent of the population (using quintiles) was obtained. Then, the computation of the food expenditure was done which gives 3000 calorie per day based on the national food basket for the poorest 40 percent. With the application of adult equivalence per capita expenditure, the amount in Naira that can be used to purchase food that will meet 3000 calorie was obtained. The addition of non-food component using average non-food expenditure of plus or minus 100 households around the core poverty line gives the objective (absolute) poverty measure. The total expenditure of food and non-food produce a poverty incidence of 60.2 percent or 89,096,000 Nigerians living in poverty.

- The application of dollar per day was used in the computation of poverty. This measure was achieved by adopting the World Bank 2002 of Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) which placed on US\$1 to be equivalent to N46.2. When this figure was further adjusted to 2003 using CPI and the exchange rate it gave N59.2 to one U.S \$1. When N59.2 per day is annualized, it gives a poverty incidence of 51.6 percent. In computing for 2009/2010, the exchange rate of Naira to U.S \$1 which stood at N150.00 was used. When annualized, it gives a poverty incidence of 56.6%.
- Subjective Poverty Measure- This approach is referred to as self assess poverty measure. It is the opinion of members of households. The outcome here is not different from the other measures of poverty. It is evident that poverty incidence is on the increase in Nigeria. The self assessment poverty measure sought to find out from the household on whether they are very poor, poor, moderately poor, fairly rich and rich. In 2003/2004, the incidence of poverty was 75.5 percent while in 2009/2010; the perception index of household living in poverty had risen to 92.5 percent (N.B.S., 2012).

#### **2.1.1.4. Poverty in the world**

Mule (2001) explains that in the world today, more people are richer, live longer and are in better health than at any other time in recorded history. Despite this, poverty in all its manifestations remains deep, pervasive, and intractable. Its eradication is, therefore, the primary challenge facing the development community today. Indeed, poverty is widespread in developing countries. Although major gains in its eradication were made during the closing decades of the last century, particularly in East and South East Asia, the magnitude and intensity of poverty still remains unacceptably high. Today, more than 1.2 billion people in absolute poverty subsisting on less than \$1 a day live in Africa, Asia, and Latin America.



Of all regions of the world, poverty is most intractable in Africa one half of its population of 300 million people, lives on less than \$ 0.65 per day. Income inequality is also high. The Gini index (a measure of income inequality) at 45.9, is only exceeded by that of Latin America at 51. Food insecurity is high, and increasing. Food availability on a per capita basis has decreased drastically, and by all indications, it has worsened. The World Bank projections indicate that Africa will have food shortages of 250 million tons by 2020 (Mule, 2001).

Indications show that numbers of poor people are increasing every day. But poverty is not just about statistics. It is about misery, under-nourishment, ill health, lack of education and other basic needs for decent living, shortened life expectancy, and lack of hope. It is about people's inability to achieve their full potential. It is about missed opportunities. It is a negation of humanity. Low and highly skewed incomes and inadequate nutrition have had major negative impacts on the health status of the population. The burden of disease is a daunting challenge. The incidence of tropical diseases is very high. There are 2 million deaths from malaria reported every year. An equal number of people are dying every year from HIV/AIDS. Other diseases, including TB, diarrhea, diseases and measles are similarly pandemic. The costs of ill health in terms of medical costs, opportunity cost of labour, physical impairment and poor schooling are on the high side (IFAD, 2007).

Beyond income, nutrition and education, poverty has other dimensions. The poor are excluded and isolated from mainstream development activities. They are also particularly vulnerable to insecurity. And in Africa, insecurity is a major problem, one fifth of the population of Africa lives in countries severely disrupted by conflict. More than one third of all African countries have experienced at least one period of strife in the last 40 years. Poverty in Africa cuts across all sections of the population. But in terms of numbers and severity, African poverty is first and foremost a rural phenomenon. More than 70 per cent of the African population is rural, and, of these, an overwhelming majority is smallholders. The

underperformance of agriculture over the years has increased the numbers, and exacerbated the plight, of the rural poor. Poverty reduction strategies in Africa must, therefore, address the rural population and especially the rural poor (Mule, 2001).

The causes of increasing poverty have been analyzed extensively by the World Bank, IFAD and other organizations. Within Africa itself, a growing number of African researchers have come forward with an increasing body of research diagnosing the nature, magnitude and causes of poverty in the region. At the centre of the cause of African poverty is underperforming economies. There has been a secular decline in Africa's GDP per capita, and today it is lower than it was in 1960. The causes of this economic underperformance are many and varied. The levels of investments have been low and declining. Efficiency of capital, as measured by Incremental Capital Output Ratios, (ICORs) has been low. The low-efficiency rates of capital were caused by poor infrastructure, inappropriate policies, weak institutions and poor governance. The inappropriate policies, in particular had a major impact on poor economic performance. (IFAD, 2007)

For many years after independence, the majority of African countries pursued import, substituting industrial policies, which impacted negatively on domestic terms of trade for agriculture. Furthermore, agriculture was subjected to direct taxation in the form of export taxes, commodity cases, etc. This was in contrast to practices in the industrial countries where the reverse is the case, and agriculture enjoys an annual subsidy of \$300 billion - equivalent to total Africa's GDP. Finally, there was public underinvestment in agriculture. In most of the African countries, public expenditures on agriculture, in both capital and recurrent amounted to less than 10 per cent of total government budget. This is a low rate of investment considering that, for the majority of countries, agriculture accounts for more than one third of GDP.

Globally, the international environment was not conducive. As primary commodity exporters, African countries experienced secular and substantial decline in their terms of trade. Foreign direct investment is negligible. Official Development Assistance (ODA) which reached its peak in the late eighties and early nineties has been declining. Net ODA transfers per capita to Africa have fallen by more than 40 per cent, from \$ 32 in 1990 to \$ 19 in 1998. And in response to poor economic performance and insecurity, there has been substantial capital flight, together with unmanageable external debt over-hang which currently is equal to 80 per cent of Africa's GDP.

In 1996, there was a five-year review of the MDGs which disaggregates results by region. In all the ten categories, results for Sub-Sahara Africa are of serious concern. In extreme poverty reduction for example, the proportion of people living on less than \$ 1 per day declined marginally, from 44.6 percent in 1990 to 44 percent in 2002. (For South Asia, the decline over the same period was from 39.4 percent to 31.2 percent). When taking the population growth into consideration, this represents a substantial increase in number of persons in poverty. Further modest decline in the case of Sub-Saharan Africa are equally registered in areas such as hunger decline, clean water provision, Universal Primary Education (UPE) (now Universal Basic Education in some countries) and child mortality. There have been major increases in the spread of AIDS and other contagious diseases such as TB. Progress has been registered mainly in South and East Asia. The causes of the above problems have been attributed to state collapse, ethnic rivalry, violent conflict and warfare in Africa. Conflict zones in Africa have been the major contributing factor to the poor performance in achieving the interim MDGs target. Conversely, improving state stability and reducing conflict and poverty would contribute to improving MDGs performance. (Mullen, 2008)

According to Mullen (2008), Sub-Sahara Africa appears to be the core geographical areas of extreme poverty. This is further reinforced by high level of involuntary flows of population

within Africa either across international boundaries as refugees or within national borders as internally displaced persons (IDPs). The majority of transient populations are located in the rural areas, often contributing to environmental stress due to intense water land and energy usage, and forming pockets of extreme poverty and vulnerability, with a disproportionate representation of women and children (often as high as 80%). IDPs outnumber refugees by 2 to 1; they fall under the responsibility of National Government for security and wellbeing. However, as weak state tends to generate the highest numbers, the capacity to fulfill their obligation is problematic. Africa is the most affected continent generating an IDP population of 11.8 million across 21 countries (IDMC, 2007).

The agreement by the G8 countries and their commitment to increasing overseas aid, particularly in Africa, should, in principle, reduce rural poverty. However with the diversion of substantial sum originally committed to poverty reduction into debt reliefs and prevarication among donors, the aid package appears less attractive than was first thought. (Mullen, 2008)

Is there any hope? Given the pessimistic environmental scenario for the poor, and the debilitating events such as conflict and corruption that are beyond the immediate power of change of actors in the international and national scenes, any new scenarios are obviously limited. Agriculture has been the mainstay of the rural poor in terms of food and sources of income and employment. The protectionism of EC and US agricultural markets seriously constraints growth in this sector; there is a very pessimistic prognosis for the sector emerging from IPCC (2007) on climate change. Food production is likely going to be seriously compromised because of climate variability which may affect the earth surface suitable for agriculture. The increasing deterioration between arid and semi- arid areas, decreasing yield potentials may further lead to deteriorating food security. This will in turn affect rural poor who depend on agriculture for its sustenance. In this respect, Africa is considered to be one of

the most vulnerable continents to climate variability and change because of multiple stresses and low adaptive capacity- up to 250 million people could be adversely affected (IPCC, 2007). It is the opinion of this study that Africa needs an urgent people-oriented policy intervention that will particularly be directed at tackling the problem of rural poverty.

#### **2.1.1.5. Poverty in Nigeria**

Nigeria is a relative large country which occupies about 923,768 square kilometres. Nigeria lies between 4°16' and 13°53' north latitude and between 2°40' and 14°41' east longitude. Nigeria is bordered in the South by approximately 800 kilometres of the Atlantic Ocean, in the west by the Republic of Benin, in the North by the Republic of Niger and in the East by the Republic of Cameroon. The climate of the country generally falls within the humid tropics, since; the country is located close to the equator. The vegetation of the country ranges from mangrove forest on the coast to savannah grass in the far north. Nigeria is the most populous country in Africa and, indeed in the black nations of the world with a population of 140 million people, based on the 2006 National Population Census and 163 million based on National Population Commission's estimates for 2010. Nigeria's population is largely dominated by three ethnic groups – Yoruba, Hausa-Fulani and Igbo. The Yoruba are in the West, the Hausa-Fulani in the North and Igbo in the East. However, there are hundreds of other ethnic groups of a wide ranging population sizes. Among these are Urhobo, Itsekiri, Bini, Ishan, Isoko, Ijaw, Ukwuani, Idoma, Igala, Igbira, Kanuri, Ibibio, Efik, Ogoni, Oron (NBS, 2012).

Nigeria became an independent country on 1st October, 1960. It became a Republic in 1963. Between 1967 and 1996 several restructuring exercises were conducted to create development across the nation. Currently, Nigeria is a federation of 36 states comprising a total of 774 Local Government Areas and the Federal Capital Territory, (FCT) Abuja. Nigeria's 36 states have been regrouped into six geopolitical zones - North-Central zone,

North-East Zone, North-West zone, South-East zone, South-South zone and South–West zone. This arrangement is generally accepted and used by the political class to facilitate the balancing of the distribution of appointments and nominations within parties and governments, to reflect the Federal Character. The Nigerian government is made up of three arms which include the executive, legislative and judiciary.

The Executive arm is the Presidency and Federal Executive Council. The executive at the national level is made up of a president directly elected and an executive Council appointed by the President subject to the screening by the Senate. The Legislative branch is the National Assembly, (Senate and House of Representatives) administering the laws and laid down rules in relation to policy formulation and execution. Judiciary interprets the laws of Nigeria.

At the state level, the executive Council is made up of the Governor, directly elected and the commissioners appointed by the governor subject to the screening of the State House of Assembly. At the local government, the head of government is the elected chairperson assisted by supervisory councilors that are also directly elected.

Nigeria is endowed with abundant natural resources and is a major mineral oil producer. Among other things, the country is enormously endowed with human, good weather condition for agriculture, petroleum and gas resources and large untapped mineral resources. Nigeria remains a foremost actor in sub Saharan Africa, the country accounts for an investment level that represents more than 50 percent of the regional total (Eguwuatu, 2002).

In spite of its substantial economic progress and social advancement, there is still much human suffering and the country faces tremendous challenges in pursuing its development (Gana, 1996). Nigeria has been classified as poor country by the World Bank since 1996, thus, becoming one of the poorest countries in the world with over 70% of the population classified as poor and 54.4% living in absolute poverty (UNDP-HDI, 2006; Ekugo, 2006).

Poverty in Nigeria has however increased further to absolute poverty of 60.9% in the 2010 incidences of poverty released in 2012 by Nigerian National Bureau of Statistics.

The level of poverty in Nigeria since the implementation of SAP in the 1980s has tremendously increased (World Bank, 1999). The poverty profile in Nigeria showed that the incidence of poverty increased from 28.1% in 1980 to 43.6% in 1985 but declined to 42.7% in 1992 and rose again to 65.6% in 1996 (FOS 1999). In absolute term the number of poor people in Nigeria increased four-fold between 1980 and 1996. The poverty situation in Nigeria worsened in the late 1990s and the country was classified among the 20 poorest countries in the world. On Human Development Index (HDI), the level of poverty fell marginally in 2004 and the country was ranked 159 out of 177 countries. Recent poverty assessment survey has shown that over 73% of the population is living on less than a dollar per day and over 50% living below the national poverty line. It has also been revealed that poverty is especially higher in the rural areas where majority of the people are resident and are deriving livelihood from agriculture (Yakubu and Aderonmu, 2010).

Rural poverty tends to be evenly distributed across the country rather than concentrated in specific geographical area. However, the level of poverty is higher in some zones, such as in the northern zones which are arid, marginal to agriculture, environmentally damaged and densely populated. The fishing communities in the mangrove swamps along the Atlantic coast are also among the poorest in Nigeria.

### **Poverty Trend in Nigeria**

Despite the fact that Nigerian economy is paradoxically growing, the proportion of Nigerians living in poverty is increasing every year as shown in Table 1. The proportion of the population living below the poverty line increased significantly from 1980 to 2010.

**Table 1: Relative Poverty Headcount from 1980 – 2010**

<b>Year</b>	<b>Poverty incidence (%)</b>	<b>Estimated Population (Million)</b>	<b>Population in Poverty in (Million)</b>
1980	27.2	65	17.1
1985	46.3	75	34.7
1992	42.7	91.5	39.2
1996	65.6	102.3	67.1
2004	54.4	126.3	68.7
2010	69.0	163	112.47

**Source: National Bureau of Statistics. HNLSS 2010**

The above table shows that poverty in Nigeria has been on the increase despite various policy measures that have been put in place to tackle the menace. In 1980, the population in relative poverty was 17.1 million but in 2010 this figure has increased to 112.47 million with estimated population in poverty for 1980 was just 65 million while the estimated population for 2010 is 163 million.

The distribution of population into extremely poor, moderately poor and non-poor in Table 2 below shows the proportion of the core poor increased from 6.2 percent in 1980 to 29.3 percent in 1996 and then came down to 22.0 percent in 2004. For the moderately poor, the picture was quite different as the proportion recorded increased between 1980 and 1985 from 21.0 percent and 34.2 percent respectively. It went down between 1996 and 2004, from 36.3 percent to 32.4 percent. On the other hand, the proportion of non-poor was much higher in the country in 1980 (72.8 percent) compared to 1992 (57.3 percent) and 1996 (34.4 percent). Although it rose to 43.3 percent in 2004, it dropped to 31 percent in 2010.



**Table 2: Relative Poverty: Non poor, Moderate Poor and Extremely Poor, 1980 – 2010**

<b>Year</b>	<b>Non poor</b>	<b>Moderate poor</b>	<b>Extreme Poor</b>
1980	72.2	21.0	6.2
1992	57.3	28.9	13.9
1996	34.4	36.3	29.3
2004	43.3	32.4	22.0
2010	31.0	30.3	38.7

Source: NBS, Harmonized Nigeria Living Standard Survey, 2010

**TABLE 3: Prevalence of Poverty in Nigeria 1980-2010**

	<b>1980</b>	<b>1985</b>	<b>1992</b>	<b>1996</b>	<b>2004</b>	<b>2010</b>
	<b>Percentage of poor people in total populace</b>					
<b>TOTAL</b>	28.1	46.3	42.7	65.6	54.4	69.0
<b>SECTOR</b>						
<b>URBAN</b>	17.2	37.8	37.5	58.2	43.2	61.8
<b>RURAL</b>	28.3	51.4	46.0	69.3	63.3	73.2

Source: NNBS, 2012

The above poverty statistics shows a national relative poverty level of 69.0% for 2010. This indicates that the poverty situation in Nigeria has worsened. With 73.2% relative rural poverty compared with the urban relative poverty level of 61.8% shows that the incidence of poverty is even worse in the rural areas than the urban centres. The absolute poverty level in Nigeria for the same period is put at 60.9%. Absolute poverty for the rural poverty in the same period is 66.1% while the urban is 52.0%.

In addition, the United Nations' Human Development Index (UNHDI) for Nigeria in 2000 before the establishment of NAPEP was 0.433. The UNHDI for 2010 was 0.453 (NBS,

2012). This shows clearly that the poverty level in Nigeria has increased even after many years of implementing NAPEP.

#### **2.1.1.6. Causes of Rural Poverty in Nigeria**

There are factors that are within the rural communities that make them prone to poverty. There are problems which have to do with the total neglect by the successive government policies over the years. All these problems combined together have perpetuated poverty in the rural areas.

There are myriads of causes of rural poverty in the communities. First, in the rural areas, agriculture is subsistence. It is designed to provide food for the individual family rather than crops sold for cash. Rural overcrowding, small land cultivation and low agriculture yield per acre predominate. The relegation of agriculture to the background in reference to crude oil contributed greatly to the problem of rural poverty in Nigeria (Jega and Waliki, 2002).

Second, the rural areas in Nigeria are dominated by unproductive population. This is one of the most striking features of the rural areas in developing countries. There is high birth rate; this is because the women marry soon after puberty and because they have few economic alternatives except marriage. The resultant effects are that they also produce children early. The wealth of a man is measured by the number of his children. The most important consequence of this high birth rate is that a large proportion of the population is unproductive. Almost 60% of the populations are children below 15 years; these children have to be fed and clothed, but produce very little output.

Third, the illiteracy rate is still very high in Nigeria. It has been observed that about 60% Nigerians are illiterates, 90% of this percentage is found in rural areas. Education is a luxury that the family cannot afford. The reason for this is that it is a subsistence economy- everyone

must work to support the family. The uneducated workforce is a less productive workforce. Therefore, poverty is inevitable.

Fourth, inability to do away with old culture is also standing as a cog in the wheel of progress of the rural populace. The rural people cling to old ways of life which are in conflict with economic development. In rural areas, superstition plays a key role in success in agriculture and they still dependent heavily on spirits for good yield in their farming. These spirits are consulted to ensure success, instead of handwork, innovative and initiative technology.

Fifth, the attitude of rural people to developmental programme is bad. In most rural areas economic development may not be their primary goal. These values manifest themselves in an acceptance of the status quo. Take for example in Nigeria, there were instances where loans were given to farmers to improve their agricultural products, most of the farmers divert the money to taking additional wives. This made it difficult for them to pay back the money.

Other problem responsible for rural poverty included lack basic infrastructure. Over the years the provision of social and economic infrastructure has been markedly skewed in favour of the urban areas. This severely constraints the access of rural dwellers to these services thereby aggravating the incidence, depth and severity of poverty in rural Nigeria. The above is coupled with infant mortality, maternal mortality, malnutrition and diseases. Therefore, the people in the rural areas are living in abject poverty. In the view of Omorogbe (2005), most rural areas in Nigeria lack good water supply, motorable roads and electricity, lack of good health facilities and many others.

Alila (1998) explains that the cause of rural poverty is lack of good governance in the rural/local areas in Nigeria. These reasons include inadequate programmes design, poor management/implementation, corruption, lack of commitment by government and inadequate development support institutions for this segment of the society. However, beyond these reasons, the dismal failure of past regimes in Nigeria to tackle the problem of poverty and

living conditions of the local/rural populace is traceable to the inability of the government to explore the democratic approach to governance in local government administration.

However, the importance of the rural population in Nigeria is immense. This is because they provide the bulk of the food, raw materials and other consumables which are consumed in the urban centres and sometimes exported. In fact, the rural areas constitute the resource base of the country. Other important things that the rural people contribute to the national economy include the needed labour for industries and other service organizations located in the urban areas. If all these potentials are put in good use, it will not only improve the lives and conditions of the rural people, it will also contribute positively to the national development in Nigeria (Jibowo 1992).

Akeredolu-Ale (1975) explains that there are four extremely varied theories evolved over the year for the explanations of persistent poverty in both the rural and urban areas in Nigeria. They include functionalist theory, Natural- circumstantial theory, power theory and urban bias theory. The functionalist theory places the blame for poverty on the poor individual themselves stating that they are lazy and unable and unwilling to provide adequately for their own well being. The natural circumstantial theory locates the reason for poverty on the geographical locations and natural endowment of the environment in which a person live. This also includes a condition of unemployment, old age and physical disabilities. (Telia, 1977).

The power theory of poverty posits that the structure of political power in a society determines the extent and distribution of poverty among the population. In this case, the ruling elite, constituted by the few, establishes and legitimizes an exploitative property system, through which it determines the allocation of opportunities, income and wealth, relying on the use of state power, including the use of oppressive state agents such as the police and armed forces (Kuren, 1978).

In the urban-biased theory, the governing elite and decision makers concentrate their development efforts in the urban centres to the total neglect of rural areas. The rural dwellers

have no equal opportunity to basic needs of life as their urban counterparts. This explains why poverty is more pronounced in the rural areas than urban centres. This theory captures the reality in Nigeria, where virtually all government development programmes are concentrated in the urban and semi-urban areas to the total neglect of rural areas.

However, Oviasuyi (2010) states that although, the rural/local communities' inhabitants remain the life-wire of the Nigerian economy, it has not attracted the needed attention from the government in terms of resource allocation. There is very little evidence to suggest that past policies of government made significant impact in terms of accomplishing improved quality of life for these categories of Nigerians.

Olateju et'al (2008) argue that many Nigerians are unaware of the policies designed to eliminate or reduce poverty from society let alone the particular knowledge embodied in such policies and its consequence for the reduction of poverty. One of such consequences is inability of the people to contribute to the policy process from the vantage point of their experience. Olateju, et'al contend further:

The poor linkage between community and government further weakens people's lured poverty knowledg the implication of the above stated fact is government's relative ineffectiveness in formulating enduring policies on poverty alleviation. Our policy lack local content, we have not been considering socio economic condition before making our policy.

Most of our policies is externally motivated and the target populations are not considered and this often resulted into low participation.

The questions to be asked are what is policy? How is it made, analyze and implemented?

#### **2.1.1.7. The Concept of Public Policy**

Public policy is important for a variety of reasons. It reflects government long range plans and values that should be adopted in various fields of national life. It serves as a goal attainment instrument. Through policy, government seeks to provide goods and services to

the people. It also serves as a mechanism for regulating the activities of individuals and groups in the society in the public interest. Policy gives concrete shape to the general and often vague objectives of administration and concerns with moving society towards achieving societal goals (Jeffrey, 2005).

Public policies not only have far reaching consequences in determining the future shape of the society but also involve enormous cost to the nation. They affect people in their social, economic and political spheres of life. The larger the scope of government activities, the more important is the role of public policy in the affairs of the people. They affect the general public, legislators, interest groups and the media. Policies are also useful to administrators in more than one way. A policy serves as a basic guide to action that is adopted and followed by an administrator. Policies help administrators to act in line with legal requirements in realizing the desired objectives.

According to the Dictionary of Public Administration by Doers (1998:277), “policy refers to the objectives or goals which a group (organization, state, nation, international organizations) sets for itself plus the means adopted towards the postulated goals”. Sambo (1999) defines policy as that which regulates one’s behaviour or action. Hence, we talk about private policy which helps to regulate the conduct of people in the private domain. Policy is however related to organizations in both private and public sectors.

Webster’s New Explorer Encyclopedic Dictionary (2006) defines policy as definite course or method of action selected from among alternatives and in light of given conditions to guide and determine present and future decisions. In an attempt to differentiate private policy from public policy the same encyclopedic dictionary goes further in defining policy as a high-level overall plan embracing the general goals and acceptable procedures especially of a governmental body. This is also expressed by Dye (1997:285) who defines policy as

“whatever government chooses to do or not to do”. The introduction of government into the definition gives it a sharper focus.

In the opinion of Maduabum (2006) “it could therefore be asserted that, what makes policies distinctively public is that they are developed by governmental bodies and officials. This does not intend to mean that whatever policy that is made in the public sector does not affect the private sector. In fact, at micro level of the economy; public policy tends to affect private sector. For instance, the policy document of Vision 2010 stipulated that the private sector would serve as the engine of growth while the public sector will provide the enabling environment”.

Public policy emanates from the public sector including both the institutions of central, state, local governments and governmental agencies such as water and health authorities, commissions, and corporations etc. Public policy may be implemented through a wide variety of individuals and organizations which may not be part of the state apparatuses, and which, to a greater or lesser degree, be independent of state influence or control. From the foregoing, public policy is designed to affect a particular “target population” in a geo-politically defined entity (Barrett and Fudge, 1981).

The term public policy refers to policies that are made and implemented by government with a view to achieve certain goals and objectives of government. For instance, if eradication of poverty is a goal, rural development, urban development and industrial development are then various policies shaped to attain that broad goal (Naidu, 2006).

To Dror (1973: 14), “public policy, in most cases, lay down general directives, rather than detailed instructions, on the main lines of action to be followed”. From this, not all decisions are part of ‘policy’. But the key or strategic aspect, which is like a guideline in nature, represents policy.

Public policy is directed at the future and constantly concerned with probabilities and uncertainties, not only in relation to what physical, technological and economic conditions will prevail, but also about how values, norms and tastes may (or may not) change. Policies are exercises in power and rationality in an attempt to anticipate the future. One of the important features of public policy is that its articulated aims are the consolidation or furtherance of public interest. This may be true of almost all policies pursued by almost all political regimes, at least in advanced industrial societies. Although a closer examination may reveal self-seeking or sectional motives behind many policies, or when the notion of a public interest turns out to be philosophically flawed. But the fact remains that; most public policies are assumed to be made in the society's general interest (Oruku, Oyedepo and Onwe, 2010).

Chandler and Plano (1988) explain that public policy has as its hallmarks an effective planning. Conceiving meaningful goals and developing alternative choices for future action to achieve these goals needs proper planning. Planning involves a systematic procedure for the reduction of many alternatives to an approved course of action. It determines not only goals but also the sequential order in which they are pursued, the need for co-ordination and the standard for maintaining control. Their viewpoint and those of others is that society is beset with various problems as earlier mentioned. It is however, the responsibility of the political actors to decide which of them can be tackled at any point in time and how to achieve them within a specified period of time. This is where the relevance of planning comes in.

On the whole, some common characteristics of public policy as explained by the above-mentioned authors are that they perceive the concept from goal-attainment point of view: they all consider planning as an essential ingredient of public policy; a policy is tied to a particular societal problem; policy as a concept has a target population in view; policies commonly involve exchanges of information, resources, and bargaining between and within



agencies; policy is directed at increasing the probability of occurrence of a desired state of the world in the future and the state institutions which claim responsibility for public policies almost invariably legitimize their activities by claiming that their policies are in the general (public) interest rather than for any group, section or individual.

However, it is the opinion of this study that most of the above authors did not conceive policy from the perspective of the people but purely from the perspective of policy imposition by the government and the bureaucrats. Take for example, Dye (2008) who defines policy as what the government intends to do and what it does not want to do. This was also emphasized by Ikelegbe, (1996) when he defines policy as a statement of what an organization wants to do, what it is doing, what it is not doing and what will not be done. But Pfiffner (1953) takes a people- oriented view of the concept of public policy when he posits that it is “the determination, declaration and crystallization of the will of the community; and the proper role of public administration is to actualize this will or bring it to fruition. This is the perspective we want to situate our study. Policy in terms of making, analysis and implementation must be people-oriented. The people must be involved for the policy to achieve its desire objective.

Policy must be seen as being made by the government on behalf of the people with their consent and for their benefit. For the policy to make necessary impact, there should be the participation of the target beneficiaries in the formulation, implementation, evaluation and monitoring of the policy that will affect their lives.

#### **2.1.1.8. Factors Influencing Public Policy**

There are several factors influential in determining a particular policy. They are political, economical, social, and cultural forces. These factors determine a given policy’s major characteristics such as size of its budget, and the priorities of those administering it as well as

the technical procedures used by social scientists or administrative practitioners to assess its impacts. Therefore, the policy maker is bound to take into consideration a number of factors that influence policy making. The following are some of the factors put forward by Naidu (2006).

- Public policy must be in accordance with the provision of the constitution and the laws made by the legislature, court decision etc
- Existing social values, ethos, customs, traditions, beliefs and public opinion have serious influences on public policy.
- External factors like international law and international institutions such as the UNO, IMF at times exert influence on policy making. At present, no country can make policies in isolation without giving due consideration to these external variables.
- The various government departments must give clearance to a policy, if they are affected by it. Such clearance is useful for the smooth implementation of a policy concern with the work of two or more departments.
- Pressure groups such as trade unions; chamber of commerce, professional associations, etc. constantly influence public policy to serve their interest. Policy making in liberal democracy is, therefore, an exercise in reconciling diverse pulls and pressures.

#### **2.1.2.9. The Major Approaches to the Study of Public Policy**

Policy has to be made before it can become a policy document to be implemented. Essentially, policy must be analyzed properly to determine its viability. It normally follows certain strategies, procedures or approaches.

Bührs and Bartlett (1993), identify three general approaches in policy making which can be distinguished. They are (i) The Anal Centric Approach (ii) The Policy Process Approach and (iii) The Meta Policy approach.

- (i) The Anal Centric Approach focuses on individual problems and solutions; its scope is the micro scale and its problem interpretation is usually of a technical nature. The primary aim is to identify the most effective and efficient solution in technical and economic terms (e.g. the most efficient allocation of resources).
- (ii) The Policy Process Approach puts its focal point into political processes and involved stakeholders; its scope is the Meso-Scale and its problem interpretation is usually of a political nature. It aims at determining what processes and means are used and tries to explain the role and influence of stakeholders within the policy process. By changing the relative power and influence of certain groups (e.g., enhancing public participation and consultation), solutions to problems may be identified.
- (iii) The Meta Policy Approach is a system and context approach; that is its scope is the macro-scale and its problem interpretation is usually of a structural nature. It aims at explaining the contextual factors of the policy process; i.e., what are the political, economic and socio cultural factors influencing it, as problems may result, due to structural factors (e.g., a certain economic system or political institution), solutions may entail changing the structure itself.

This study adopts the policy process and the Meta Policy Approach. This is because it is not only that policy making and implementation must take into consideration the policy process but also that the various structures that form the policy context in form of certain economic system and political institution must be considered.

#### **2.1.2.10. Public Policy Making Process**

To Ikelegbe (1996), a policy process refers to the methods, conditions, procedures, activities, interactions and stages by which policies are made. Henry (2007) outlines five stages in

public policy process. These include Agenda Setting, Policy Formulation, Policy Legitimization and Adoption, Policy Implementation, Policy Evaluation and Monitoring.

**Agenda setting-** This begins with the awareness of and priority given to issue or problem in a given social context or society; deciding what issues will be decided and what problem will be addressed by the government. Policy problem is a condition or situation of dissatisfaction, self-identified or identified by others for which relief is sought. Egonmwon (1991) asserts that a policy problem is a social situation, which many people considered adverse or intolerable in its effects on a large number of people over a long period of time. Therefore, people consider such situation that needs a constructive change. Many problems occur to individuals, groups or some communities and these problems will elicit private solutions before they can be solved. But before a social problem can become a public problem Egonmwan opines that the following conditions need to occur:

- i. That a large number of people are in unfortunate conditions, suffer deprivation, and are dissatisfied with an undesirable situation;
- ii. These adverse conditions are recognized by some or a large number of people;
- iii. In addition to those who suffered the unsatisfactory situation, the government is aware of the situation as it has responsibilities for coping with it;
- iv. People outside the immediate social problems (third party) and the number of people who think that something should be done recognize the undesirable situation. Conflicting interest and cognitive disagreements should be presented by different groups. This will motivate the government to step in and make necessary investigation and take appropriate action and
- vi. Apart from objective situations, the values and perception of people also determine what a public problem is. The value and perception of policy makers is one of the

problems confronting policy making in any nation. What is allowed in a society may be forbidden in another.

**Policy Formulation-** In the policy formulation, policy proposal is developed to resolve issues and ameliorate problem. This includes how analytical and political option and strategies are constructed (Dye, 2008). In practical term, options are formulated to allow the choice of best alternative. Each of the options is assumed to have been generated in systematic mode. This is characterized by data gathering and analysis, inducing policy options that are feasible and rational, and refining the options. The incremental mode of generating policy options considers only marginal changes at a time. This may lead to only trivial or inconsequential policy options. Events in some systems apparently unrelated to poverty can arise and cause a need for a policy. This is an ad hoc way of generating policy options. When the source of policy options is foreign, such as when foreign consultancies submit novel suggestions that form the bedrock of new policy initiatives, the policy options are emerging in an importation mode (Lindblom, 1983).

**Policy legitimating adoption:** This involves selecting a proposal, developing political support for it, enacting it into law and deciding on its constitutionality. In other words, it involves the presentation of the selected policy option for legislative approval by the policy makers or the bureaucrats. This is necessary so that the policy will have legitimacy.

**Policy Implementation-** This is the process of putting policy choice into action or the form and nature of policy administration and activities on ground, i.e. organizing department and agency to carry out agenda (Jega, 2007). Every policy needs to be implemented since its objective is to effect and sustain a change. It is a statement of fact that the most elegantly designed policy can run aground at the level of implementation if it is not properly implemented. Policy implementation is a complex process operating also in an equally complex and dynamic environment. Implementation is essentially an exercise and it takes

place within the sector of government. The success of implementation depends on the fulfillment of a number of conditions: an adequate and appropriate institutionalized framework, an adequately designed operative processes, availability of requisite resources in good quantity and quality, a high commitment to success by the implementation body, a high level of public support and the institution of an adequate and appropriate control measures and mechanism.

All these measures constitute creditable parameters for policy analysis at the implementation stage. Every policy must be implemented by an agency of government. Clarity of jurisdictional overlap between an agency and the other agencies in the same project area is essential. The less the area of jurisdiction the more energy that will be committed to the implementation. But if two agencies are to implement the policy, there is need to build linkages. Under resources, we have human materials, legal or jurisdictional process. It is not possible to make something out of nothing and any responsibility given needs resources. By control mechanism, is meant a system whose work is carried out in a level with specification and monitoring operation or correct gap in the process, just for the objectives to be achieved (Oruku, Oyedepo and Onwe, 2010)..

In Nigeria, implementation of government policies takes two principal forms:

**Direct Implementation-** This is when government agencies are directly involved in the implementation of the policies. This responsibility informs the employment of those to carry out policy implementation.

**Implementation through contracting -** Here, government awards contracts because it has no skills to do it and at this point, the government has the responsibility to monitor the contractors so as to see that they keep to specification. Jobs contracted out may not at times be well executed due to laxity on the part of the civil servants. The bureaucrats implement

and the degree of correspondence between the bureaucrats and policy makers says much on how well a policy is. They are also empowered to even make changes by subsidiary legislation, regulations, rules and established guidelines, for the purpose of relating the general to the specific.

In fact, policy is implemented in form of programmes. This is to say that the content and direction of policy is contained in programmes. Some people refer to programme as a project or policy instrument. A programme is a package of action upon which resources, both human and material, can be used in pursuing a policy objective. A programme is smaller in content and scope than policy.

In this study, policy and programme are used interchangeably. This is because NAPEP is a translation of policy on poverty eradication into programme. In other words, policies are programmes under implementation.

**Policy Evaluation-** This means reporting outputs of government programmes, evaluating impacts of the policies on the target group and proposing changes and reform (Dye, 2008). There must be public approval – this has to do with the way in which a policy is received as distinct from what it really does. The word “public” may mean those at whom the policy is directed. There must be fairness – this should reflect in the distribution of burdens imposed by a policy or the benefits it confers. There must be effectiveness – this means the extent to which a policy achieves the effects for which it is designed. There must be efficiency – this measures the cost of effort or money – at which policies achieve the objectives. Central among these criteria are effectiveness and efficiency. One important thing an evaluation should do is to find out what decision makers actually want from studies and how the results would be effectively utilized (Owolabi, 2005).

Evaluation therefore, can be done if there is need to know how a programme is fairing in order to justify the financial grants; to explain the implementation of policies and programmes whether it conforms with its stated guidelines and the extent to which a policy or programme is executed according to its stated guidelines. Impact Evaluation concerns itself with the extent to which a policy causes a change in the intended directions. Comprehensive Evaluation involves both process and impact evaluation and one in which appropriate technique and ideas have been brought to bear so that it is possible to:

- a. Define whether a policy or programme is carried out as planned.
- b. To assess whether or not a programme resulted in changes or modification with intended outcomes. Thus, policy or programme evaluation in Public Administration is not in most cases free from political influence. The need to score a political point may dictate or warrant evaluation exercise. Oruku, Oyedepo and Onwe (2010) identifying problems of evaluation explain that it includes:
  - i. Staffing – This requires adequate technical competence of diverse kinds.
  - ii. Budgets – Inadequate budgetary allocation of funds can hamper effective evaluation
  - iii. Community Relations – programme officers need rapport with the beneficiaries if success is envisioned or desired.

According to Sutton (1999), policy process is variously called the linear, mainstream, commonsense or rational model. This model is the most widely-held view of the way in which policy is made. It outlines policy-making as a problem solving process which is rational, balanced, objective and analytical. In the model, decisions are made in a series of sequential phases, starting with the identification of a problem or issue, and ending with a set of activities to solve or deal with it. Juma and Clarke (1995) argue that if policies do not achieve what they are intended to achieve, blame is often not laid on the policy itself, but



rather on political or managerial failure in implementing it. Failure can be blamed on a lack of political will, poor management or shortage of resources.

#### **2.1.1.11. Public Policy Analysis**

Owolabi (2005) explains that, for any policy to achieve its aim or goal it must be properly analyzed right from the time of generating the policy to the time of formulation to implementation, and impact. To Shafriz (1968:409), “Policy Analysis is a set of techniques that seek to answer the question of what the probable effect of a policy will be before they actually occur”. This is what has been termed “before the fact” analysis of public policy.

Chandler and Plano (1996), say Policy Analysis is intended for three major activities: (i) for problems assessment and monitoring (ii) as a “before the fact” decision tool; and (iii) for evaluation. In his own view, Roberts and Edwards (1991: 98), argue that “Policy Analysis is the study of the formulation, implementation and evaluation of public policy, the values of policy makers, the environment of the policy making system, the cost of policy alternatives and the study of policies for improving policymaking”. To Nagel (1999), Policy analysis is determining which of various alternative policies will most achieve a given set of goals in light of the relations between the policies and the goals.

Many theories and models exist to analyze the creation and application of public policy. Analysts use these theories and models to identify important aspects of policy, as well as explain and predict policy and its consequences. A theory is an attempt to provide a general description of a fact of life. In the context of social sciences, they are general explanations of the natural ways in which we perceive social issues. Theories are developed by the policy analysts to help us understand the practice of policy making. A model is a physical representation of a phenomenon under analysis. It is an abstraction from reality that is intended to simplify our view of that reality without losing its essential characteristics.

Essentially, building a model of decision-making involves developing a “mind-picture” of the processes of decision making. This mind-picture is then substituted for reality. (Owolabi, 2005)

There are four major theories which have been built to understand the practice of public policy. They are the system theory, institutional theory, elite theory and the group theory.

**System Theory-** This theory is modeled on the Eastonian Systems framework for the analysis of the political system. The environments of the political system comprising: the economic system, the cultural system, the educational system, institutions and personalities, place demand on it. Demands are the articulated needs, problems and desires which are brought to bear upon the political system. A synthesis of the definitions of a system theory given by various scholars some of whom include Almond (1960); Easton (1965); Adamolekun (1983) and Offiong (1996), sees it as a phenomenon of whatever type, including physical, biological, social, political, etc., which is an organized whole with identifiable, interrelated structures delineating it from the environment in which it is located and with which it interacts, processing the inputs from it into outputs for it. The general systems theory contend that every system, including political system, has sub-systems which make up the entire system. They are assigned functions and provided with enabling empowerment and environment, including resources, appropriate authority, etc. to enable them discharge their responsibilities optimally. Where this is the case, there is said to be stability in the political system.

Consequently, instability reigns in the political system where the contrary is the case and the sub-systems and entire system are also unable to function optimally. Input and output analysis of a political system is very important. A political system is said to obtain its inputs (demands, supports, liberty or autonomy, cooperation, criticisms, resources, information, direct labour, etc.) from its environment. Suffice to say that input, such as cooperation, is not

specified in the original analysis of the general systems theory, but it is important. This input is what the sub-systems utilize in discharging their responsibilities, so that the political system can send out its outputs into the environment and obtain further inputs for its operations. Adopting this brief exposition of the political systems analysis to the public policy process in a country constitutes a sub-system (Offiong (1996).

The main impart of the system approach to the study of public policy is that society does not operate in a vacuum. Rather, it has many components and interrelated parts. Each functions properly for the wellbeing of the whole. Any deficiency in any of the results falls short of expectation. This is the crux of the systems theory. Any successful government policy elicits support for government, particularly when the needs of the people are being met. But people will automatically withdraw support when the reverse is the case.

**Institutional Theory** – It focuses on the normal institutions of government – Legislature, Executive and Judiciary. The major assumption of the institutional theory is that public policies are made with authority and then implemented and enforced by governmental institutions. Policies made by governmental institutions are regarded as legal obligations. Governmental policies also apply to everyone in a social system. While people are at liberty to accept or not to accept policies of voluntary organizations, governmental policies have to be accepted willy-nilly. Government can legitimately punish violators of its policies. Only the government monopolizes coercive power. It ensures compliance by force, not just by conviction. Since public policies are made by governmental institutions the characteristics of such institutions have a great impact on policy outputs.

The way the institutions of government are structured can impact negatively or positively on certain policy proposals. It can facilitate or obstruct policy outputs for some interest groups in a society. But both the structure and policy are largely determined by the economic and

political forces. Therefore, institutional changes may not bring about changes if the underpinning forces remain unchanged (Owolabi, 2005).

Oye (1977) further explains that institutions may be so structured as to facilitate certain policy outcomes. They may give advantage to certain interest in the society and withhold advantage from other interest. This is relevant to contemporary politics in Nigeria and its local government in particular. There is often a situation where some individuals or groups enjoy comparative advantages of patronage or benefits more than others. In most cases, the relative advantage of such groups usually stem from the way the organization/institution is structured. For example, where a new organization is established by the government of a state, and the governor appoints, say, the chief executive and locates the organization in his hometown, one would not be too surprised if 90% of the employees are from the home town of the governor – the result of the appointment of the head and the location is already predetermined – which will invariably result in employment opportunities for his community in most cases through a provisional law/edict allowing for higher percentage employment/admission of catchment areas.

**Elite Theory-** Parry (1977), in his study of ‘Political Elite’ explains that ‘Elite’ could be regarded as decision makers of the society whose power is not subject to control by any other body in the society”. He, therefore, defines Elite as the small minority who appears to play an exceptionally influential part in political and social affairs of that group. In the field of Political Science, the elite theory is basically a class analysis approach to the understanding of public policy analysis. According to Olaniyi (1998), two classes of elite can be identified thus: Government elite and Non-government elite. He goes further to identify the hypothesis underlying the elite theory such as:

- a) That in every society, there exists a minority of the population, which takes major decisions. Such decisions are usually referred to as political decision.

- b) The elite includes those who occupy political power or seek to influence governmental decisions.
- c) That there is a circulation of elite.
- d) That there are no changes in the society about the composition or structure of the elite.

Consequently, a major feature of the elite theory is that it believes that the structure of elite remains the same. However, the central contention of the elite theory is the issue of “government by the people”. This theory is of the view that it is a fallacy to say that everybody takes part in decision-making. Instead, what we have in practice is government by a minority or clique, protecting the individual or group interest of the ruling class. Indeed, in public policy analysis, decision-making is by a small group who struggle to ensure that their interest is protected. On their part, the members of the ruling elite always argue that they are not anti-masses, but that they are the leaders of their various communities who have the right to determine the direction of public policy.

**Group Theory-** The argument of this theory presupposes a significant role of the group as opposed to the individual in public policy analysis. For example, prominence is given to a cabinet and not a Minister. Another important input to the Group Theory is that man cannot live alone. As a gregarious ‘animal’, he tends to live and work in a group. It is in line with this assertion that Roberts and Edwards (1991) explain a group as a relatively persistent pattern of human activity and interaction or an aggregate of persons who share some set of characteristics. Through the study of groups in society, one should be able to have a picture of the entire society. In policy analysis, we need to study the activities of a group and with the mindset that the individuals in the groups are rational and self – interested.

However, this premise has attracted criticisms that it is wrong for the Group Theorists to assume that individuals who are rational and self-centered will pursue group interest.

Individuals will rather pursue individual interest under three conditions such as: if the group is small; if the individuals are offered incentive and if the individuals are coerced.

Another assumption of the Group Theory is that it centers on the Zero – sum game. The theory also assumes “cross-cutting membership” and “cross cutting cleavages”. By ‘cross-cutting membership’, we mean a situation in which an individual member of the group belongs to two or more associations. On the other hand, ‘cross-cutting cleavages’ mean that members of a group often have divergent interests (Oruku, Oyedepo and Onwe, 2010).

In summary, in policy-making, decisions of policy makers can be regarded as group decisions, but during the process of policy formulation, each policy maker will be out to ensure that his interest or those of his constituents/cleavages are protected. Therefore, in the final analysis, what is often desired as “group decision” may be a decision taken to satisfy just a section of either the community or the local government. This further confirms the opinion that there are countless number of interests not represented in a society at any point in time.

A major link that needs be observed here is the erroneous impression, commonly given by our elite that they are fighting for the masses. Consequently and more often than not, most political agitators, usually hide under the group or nationalist toga to feather their own nests when given the mandate to rule. This is why most government policies often fail to achieve desired objectives.

Some models have also been very useful to explain policy decisions. The major ones can be categorized into three: the rational model, incremental model and mixed scanning.

**The Rational Model-** Dror (1968) explains rational model that, in the search for alternative options to any given policy issue, one should endeavour to consider many additional but satisfactory alternatives. Chandler and Plano (1988) describe rational model as a system

analysis approach based on principle of scientific investigation and scientific problem solving. The problems faced when using the rational model arise in practice because social and environmental values can be difficult to quantify and forge consensus around. Dye (2008) however states that the rational model provides a good perspective since in modern society, rationality plays a central role and everything that is rational tends to be prized. Thus, it does not seem strange that we ought to be trying for rational decision making.

**Incremental or Disjointed Model:** Lindblom (1963) describes it as the science of muddling through. He argues that administrators muddle through in response to current events and circumstance rather than by the will of those in policy-making positions. The model is too simplistic and pedestrian a model to adopt towards the sophisticated issues confronting mankind in a rapidly developing world. On the other hand, it is this very nature of complexity and the rapidity with which events are daily unfolding themselves in today's space and computer age, that dictates the use of the disjointed approach to policy formulation and implementation rather than the more elaborate and complex model.

**Mixed Scanning:** Etzioni (1967) combines the attributes of both the disjointed model of Lindblom (1963) and the pure rational model of Dror (1968) in some mixed grill to explain policy making. He believes that in complex situation where pressure and time were not favourable, the policy maker could make do with the limited information available at his disposal to guide policy decisions, while at the same time training himself to be as scientific and fore-sighted as humanly possible. This is a mid-way house between the system of muddling through and that of scientific empiricism implied in the respective policy models of Lindblom and Dror. It, therefore, improves incrementally by being less concerned with how similar problems were solved previously, leading to a more creative search for alternatives. In conclusion, mixed scanning is meant to correct the shortcomings of the incremental model.

However, Sani (2008) argues that in reality, conflict and instability is an inbuilt feature of the policy making and implementation in a federal system of government. In order to proffer solutions to the inbuilt conflicts and instability, policy model such as “Bottom- Up”, “Top- Down” and “Diffusion” developed. On Bottom- up model, he reports that policy making begins at the bottom and ends at the top, the problem may be identified at the local level then it gradually assumes a larger dimension. It is ultimately solved at the higher level after passing through some phases.

Sani (2008) explains further that, the Top-down model is where a broad national consensus is obtained over an issue. It can be safely assumed that a national policy can be developed from that issue. He gave the example that the president of the Federal Republic of Nigeria is constitutionally elected by all the Nigerian citizens. Once elected, the president and his electoral promises enunciated in his manifesto can be said to have received the national mandate to rule the country. In a case such as this, the policies he enunciates for the nation while in office may be said to derive from the top and received down the line by the electorate at the bottom. What this means in effect is that the programmes are initiated from the presidency at the national office and handed down to the lower levels of government, the states and local government, for implementation.

Other governmental body that is involved in Top-down policy, apart from the executive arm, is the legislature which is capable of initiating its own policy. Pious (1975) explains that individual legislators, particularly committee chairmen, are also source a of policy initiative in the top to bottom syndrome. They do this through the use of the media to generate debate on certain issues which may eventually coalesce into policy. The point of interest, therefore, is that both the executive and the legislature can be potent forces for policy initiative from top-down.



In developed countries like United States, the bottom-up policies are preferred and are more fashionable given the level of development in that country. The reverse is the case in developing countries like Nigeria and many third world countries where policy making has been top-down.

There are also some situations and cases in which, for example, programmes are formulated by the three tiers of government, federal, state and local government as equal participants. Some other programmes may be formulated first on the initiative of one level, and then another level joins. Take for example, NAPEP which was initiated by the Federal Government but needs the cooperation of the State and the Local Governments for proper implementation of the programme. There are even others where a multitude of agencies are involved with similar programmes at the same time on a consultative basis.

Walker (1969) uses diffusion model to explain the patterns of policy initiatives that characterized the behaviour of different American States. The same scenario can be traced in the Nigerian federal arrangement and policy making processes arising from the implementation of the legislative lists contained in the Constitution. Programmes such as housing, administration of secondary and tertiary institution of learning. Local government, agriculture and rural development are some notable examples where we can find the application of a diffused policy model. While some states may be early, others may be consistently late in initiating policy actions in respect of these matters. Some may be generally lukewarm in their attitudes towards some of these programmes. Some states may be influenced by what others have done before them while some may establish common ties of relationship (Sani, 2008).

### **2.1.2. Review of Relevant Literature**

In the review of relevant literature, the study reviewed the major works on: the problems of policy implementation in developing country like Nigeria especially why policy fails at implementation stage; past policy measures at tackling rural poverty in Nigeria and National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP).

#### **2.1.2.1. Problems of Policy Implementation in Developing Countries like Nigeria**

It has often been argued that Nigeria has no problem with plan and policy formulation; rather the difficulties are usually policy implementation. However, it is imperative to note that policy formulation and implementation are complementary facets of policy process and unless we appreciate this complementarily and take a holistic perspective of the policy process, we can hardly guarantee the desired policy success.

To Mbieli (2006), implementation of policy is the action side of the government. It provides the operational area of function in carrying out public policy declared by competent authority. In the execution of public policy, the combination of human, material, machine and money is highly necessary. He argues further that the agencies involved in the implementation exercise are classified into two broad categories namely: the government and the non-governmental agencies. These agencies are responsible for providing the required goods and services and developing the people.

Policy implementation is critical to the success of any policy since it constitutes the epicenter of the policy process. It involves the identification of policy plans, programme, projects and activities; a clear definition of the distinct roles of implementation organizations or agencies; details of strategies and necessary linkages and coordinating mechanisms; as well as resources (human, financial, material, technology, information acquisition and utilization). Efficient and effective policy implementation would require inputs of sound managerial and

administrative capabilities in terms of proper activity scheduling, resource mobilization and rationalization, network analysis, budgeting, supervision, problem- solving, decision making and cost/benefit analysis. At the stage of policy implementation, there is the need to set performance standards and targets in accordance with specified guidelines, plans and time frame in order to avoid the policy implementation gap (Maduabum, 2008).

Randel (2010) shares the view that policy implementation is the epicenter of the policy process. He agrees that at implementation stage, performance standards must be set along with policy targets, guidelines, plans and time frame in order to avoid implementation gap. He describes implementation gap as the difference between well-stated and articulated policy objectives or expected outcomes and the actual outcome which is a consequence of inefficient or poor policy implementation.

Sani (2008) focuses on the civil service as the nerve center on which policy implementation hinges, apart from its strategic advisory role in policy formulation. It is the civil service that provides the substantial goods and services needed as catalysts for development by both the public and private sectors of the economy. It helps to prepare the national and local development plans as well as their ultimate implementation as concrete projects in the location centers decided for them by the government. He added that apart from the human factor, one essential instrument in policy implementation is the institutional and structural arrangement for achieving the desired policy goals. It is essential because without the effective and efficient application of the instruments for implementing policies, such policies will only be as good as the paper on which they are formulated. It is in this context that the administrative structures and facilities for policy implementation become very critical in the policy making process.

Actors who work in bureaucracies have a role to play. They are not merely clogs in an automatic transfer of policy-making to outcome. In practice, due to constraints on their time,

and bureaucratic procedures at the local level, field level workers otherwise called street level bureaucrats may exercise considerable flexibility in implementing instructions. Yet administrative issues can affect the outcome of a policy and make it different from its original intention. First, policy makers may generally underestimate the complexity and difficulty of coordinating the tasks and agencies involved in implementing programmes. Second, there may be lack of coordination or inadequate communication which can hinder effective implementation- If intentions are not well spelt-out through the right channels established for the transmission of policy to those involved in policy formulation, then the policy will not be put into effect. Third, a policy or a programme may be implemented by agencies whose interests do not necessarily coincide with those of the policy makers. Their inactions may frustrate the intentions of the policy (Lipsky, 1980).

Adamolekun (1983) argues that policy implementation must be approached with maximum flexibility taking into consideration the fact that many assumptions and probabilities characterize policy formulation techniques. As a matter of fact, he clearly states that the formulation and implementation of policies are not completely distinct phases of activities and that there is no definite end to policy implementation. He concludes that sometimes, new demands emerge that have to be transformed into one or more policies that in turn have to be implemented and, this may become cyclical.

The key activity in policy formulation and implementation process is goal setting. Sambo (2008) explains that policy makers in developing countries engage in the elaborate exercise of goal setting by creating structures for planning. As policy makers make a fetish of planning as basis for development, he stated that the more they planned, the less development is achieved. According to him, developing countries are guilty of trying too much to plan and set goals and targets for national development which often create lag between the expectations and realization of policy makers in developing countries.

Setting unrealistic goal is an attribute of policy makers of the developing nations. This is because their policy formulations are always comprehensive and engender expectations among the people and which can hardly be matched by the capacities of the system to adequately implement them. This however may be due to lack of reliable information in which to base their calculation and sometimes, because the possibility of expressing alternative policy options is either suppressed or non-existent. Other causes of policy failure in the developing countries include: administrative, economic and political constraints and conflict of roles between elected political office holders and appointed officials in the civil service bureaucracy (Bertsch, 1978),

Hirschman (1963) argues that it is fashionable for developing countries to opt for comprehensive or fundamental solution to policy problems. The choice that these countries make, compounds the failure of policy for two reasons; first, developing countries hardly possess governments with the policy making apparatus adequate to the task of producing a comprehensive programme. Second, this inadequacy is met with the introduction of policy solution from elsewhere, usually from advanced developed economies which is hardly suitable to local problems. The adoption of foreign solutions in turn undermines the capacity of local intellectual resources to act on local problems deepens the underdevelopment of local talents and deprives them of the opportunity to master the problem on their own terms.

Honadle (1979) tries to link the problem associated with policy implementation to that of social carpenters and masons who fail to build to specification and thereby distort the beautiful blue prints. This shows the importance that is attached to policy implementation and those that are responsible for implementing these policies. It also shows that no matter how beautiful the blueprint of a programme, a defective implementation of it will make nonsense of the whole programme.

Grindle and Thomas (1990) explain that overambitious policies are frequently beclouded in ideological context in which the actual problem of implementation may not be known. If, at the planning stage, consideration had been given to the fact that the source of income depended on international market forces which may swindle up and down, perhaps, the project would have been pruned down to a size that would be manageable whichever way the market forces go. The comprehensiveness of some policies may experience implementation bottlenecks arising from any, or a combination of the following; lack of appropriate technology for implementation, inadequate human and material needs and over-stretching of available resources for maximum visibility and impact; at the end of which nothing concrete may be achieved.

Edward (1980) however, explains that there are four factors operating simultaneously and they interact with one another to aid or hinder policy implementation. These include communication, resources, dispositions or attitudes and bureaucratic structure. First, inadequate communication can confuse the policy implementers as to what exactly are required of them and consequently results into policy failure. Second, inadequate human and material resources can mar policy implementation. Third, attitude can affect policy implementation, for example; the implementers can deliberately frustrate a policy if their interests are not protected and fourthly, ineffective and fragmented bureaucratic structure may hinder the coordination that is necessary for a successful policy implementation.

Grindle and Thomas (1991) report that policy implementation is an ongoing nonlinear process that must be managed. It requires consensus building, participation of key stakeholders, conflict resolution, compromise, contingency planning, resource mobilization and adaptation. New policies often reconfigure roles, structures, and incentives, thus changing the array of costs and benefits to implementers, direct beneficiaries, and other stakeholders.

Egonmwan (1991) attributes the problem of policy implementation to implementation gap which he claims is peculiar to developing countries. He notes that the problem of implementation gap arises from the policy itself, the policy maker, or the environment in which the policy has been made when such a policy emanates from government rather than from the target groups. By this, it means that planning is top-down, and by implication, the target beneficiaries are not allowed to contribute to the formulation of the policies that affect their lives. He further observes that another cause of implementation gap is the failure of the policy makers to take into consideration the social, political, economic and administrative variables when analyzing policy formulation. He gave example that a policy maker in a Muslim dominated community who formulates a policy that offends the tenets of Islam is likely to face implementation problems.

Brinkerhoff (1996) adds that, policy implementation is often much more difficult than envisaged during formulation. Experience has shown that an inwardly focused 'business as usual' approach will fall short of achieving intended results.

However, Jega (2007) explains that, historically, the processes of policy making and implementation in Nigeria have been erratic, irrational and muddling through, they fail to be responsive to public demand and, therefore, hardly ever meet set goals. This is not surprising in view of the level of confusion that now pervades NAPEP which has not achieved its set goals. The incapacitation of Nigeria to get its policy right has colonial undertone.

Under British colonial rule (1900-1960), the policy making process was essentially circumscribed by the exigencies and intricacies of colonialism and aimed at satisfying the prime interest of the colonial power which was essentially economic. The process was relatively closed, restricted and hardly addressed the fundamental needs and aspirations of the colonized people. It was controlled, guided, directed by the colonial administrators and

shrouded in the philosophy or ideology of modernization and westernization (Adebayo, 1989).

During the First Republic (1960-1966), the pattern of public policy making which obtained during colonial rule continued, it was a period of transition from colonial rule to civil democratic rule. It was a period of a continuation of the learning period for elected officials and they relied heavily either on expatriate permanent secretaries or on newly appointed and inexperienced indigenous administrators. Generally, low educational qualifications of the elected officials were additional hindrance to their ability to initiate policy or exercise control over administrators executing policies (Jega, 2007).

During the Second Republic (1979-1983), the policy making arena remained constrained by inherited legacies. Elected officials had little if any idea of the working of the policy making process and had to rely on a scarred bureaucracy inherited from many years of military rule. The new rulers were more interested in the democratizing processes of private capital accumulation than in empowering the people in the political and public policy making arena (Joseph, 1987).

Under a succession of military regimes (1966-1979; 1983-1999) the policy making process became increasingly closed, restricted, arbitrary and authoritarian, arguably more so than under previous colonial and civilian regime. As military rule became prolonged with dictatorship, policy making became imbued with patronizing and primordial loyalties or penalized opponents and perceived enemies. Jega (2007) maintains that in the present dispensation of civil rule and democratization (1999 till date) we are still grappling through and the policy process is as crisis-prone as ever, in spite of spirited attempts at reforming the system. But the situation has to change and for this to happen, the monumental challenges, which pervade the system, have to be effectively confronted.



#### **2.1.2.2. Past Policy Measures at Tackling Rural Poverty in Nigeria**

Ugoh and Ukpere (2009) explain that successive governmental efforts at eradicating the endemic poverty in Nigeria date back to pre-independence era. During the period, the colonial administration drew up programmes and strategies and laid out resources for the first 10 year development plan 1946 - 1955. The policies were targeted at local processing of raw produce such as groundnuts, palm oil, hides and skin.

At independence, the periods from 1962 - 1968, 1970 -1974, 1975 - 1980 and 1981 - 1985 were designed by various governments to provide basic infrastructure, diversify the economy, reduce the level of unemployment, achieve dynamic self-sustaining growth and raise the living standard of people. Many of these programmes include Operation Feed the Nation (OFN) in 1977, Free and Compulsory Primary Education (FCPE) in 1977, Green Revolution in 1980, etc. The OFN and Green Revolution were established to boost agricultural production and efficiency in the general performance of the agricultural sector. FCPE was set up to reduce mass illiteracy at the grassroots level. Most of the programmes made some laudable impacts by enhancing the quality of life of many people but were not anti-poverty measures. In essence, government only showed concern for poverty reduction indirectly. However, the programmes could not be sustained because of lack of political will and commitment, political instability and insufficient involvement of the poor people in these programmes.

The policy on Green Revolution was particularly made to focus on the agrarian sector of the economy especially with regards to achieving self sufficiency in food production. At the launching of the programme, the Federal Government announced the initial release of about 18.3 millions Nigeria naira. And under this arrangement, various projects, such as land clearing schemes, farm mechanization centres, agro-service centres, river basin development schemes, national accelerated food production programmes and tractor hiring services

received increased development funds. Also included were the increased supply of fertilizers and other material inputs, as well as more micro-credit guarantee schemes for farmers in the agro-sector. The major policy focus of the green revolution, as introduced by the Federal Government, includes improving nutritional balance of food intake of urban/rural dwellers; improving urban/rural housing and environment; creating opportunities for human resource development and self employment, particularly in both farming and non-farming sectors; improving urban/rural health; promoting production and consumption of a wide range of agricultural goods and services; utilizing urban/rural resources to lay a solid base for security, socio-cultural, political, economic growth, and development activities of the country by linking rural development to governmental activities at local, state and federal levels and providing self-sufficiency of food within a stipulated frame.

The strategy of implementation of the Green Revolution involved the total mobilization of plant and animal resources within a food policy for Nigeria. In addition, it included expertise engineering of the factors of production and prudent monitoring of the supportive institutions, like marketing, storage, processing, etc. The areas of involvements were seed marketing, land clearing, control of soil erosion, rural integrated projects, development of grazing reserves, etc. These were done with the aim of self sufficiency in food production within five years. Green Revolution could not achieve its objective as the level of poverty in Nigeria increased during the period. There were declining food production, poor transportation system, poor healthcare delivery, rural-urban migration, squalor, high rate of illiteracy, and non-existing and decaying infrastructural facilities. The abysmal performance of the programme necessitated the introduction of other programmes by subsequent administrations.

Okosun, Siwar, Hadi and Nor (2010) discuss some other policies aimed at alleviating poverty in Nigeria such as:

- (i) Directorate of Food, Roads, and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI) which was put in place by General Babangida Administration, to complement the efforts of the Green Revolution. Due to declining food production, poor transportation system, poor healthcare delivery, rural-urban migration, squalor, high rate of illiteracy and non-existing and decaying infrastructure facilities. In its implementation strategy, DFRRI concentrated on social mobilization, infrastructure development, and productive activities. It was charged with using the local and state government's ministries, Local Government, Cooperative and Community Development, Lands and Survey, River Basin and Rural Development authorities, Federal Department of Agriculture and Rural Development, National Electricity Power Authority (NEPA), Rural Electrification Boards, etc., through which the government hoped to accomplish the mandates of the programme. The programme was a sham and could not meet its objective.
- (ii) The Better Life programme (BLP) for Rural Dwellers also focuses on the rural areas. It came into being in 1987, under the military rule of General Ibrahim Babangida to stimulate women in rural areas towards achieving a better and higher standard of living. The programme was initiated by Late Mrs. Mariam Babangida and was designed to promote the declaration of women right in 1975 by the United States Government. The programme was to pay attention to all forms of discriminatory practices against the women by mobilizing women for effective national development. BLP could not achieve its expected results because the target populations were not responsive, participatory, and sustainable. This merely reduced BLP activities to slogans and jamborees by those at the corridors of power who used electronic and print media to popularize the programmes.

- (iii) Family Support Programme in Nigeria was inaugurated in 1996, following the demise of the Babangida's administration, by the wife of the, then, Head of State, Mrs. Maryam Sani Abacha. This programme was a shift of policy thrust to the role of family in national development, particularly, as it affects major social sectors such as health, education, and economic empowerment, amongst others. The objective of FSP is to improve and sustain family cohesion through the promotion of social and economic wellbeing of the Nigerian families. However, the Family Support Program (FSP) also fell in the same ditch like its predecessors and the death of then head of state General Sani Abacha abruptly terminated the programme.
- (iv) The National Directorate of Employment (NDE) programme was established to complement the efforts of other poverty and rural development measures. Specifically, it was mandated to train unskilled young Nigerians towards skill acquisition and entrepreneurship development. Thus, it is hoped, that backed by the micro-business funds and micro-soft loan put together by the Federal Government of Nigeria, NDE could boost employment generation in the informal sectors. It is however, observed that the NDE programme has been marred by corruption, nepotism and political patronage.

Aderonmu (2010) identifies some of the reasons for the failures of past policy choices at poverty eradication to include:

- (i) A low level of participation by the poor: even though the ultimate stakeholders in the poverty alleviation process are the poor, all too often they are denied a voice in the formulation and even implementation of the programmes.
- (ii) Most poverty alleviation programmes have had a single vector of intervention and have failed to confront the multidimensionality of poverty. Priorities are usually set

from 'the outside', thus being top-down rather than bottom-up approach and unable to respond to the particular needs of the poor.

- (iii) Lack of political will
- (iv) Corruption and poor accountability
- (v) Discrimination based on gender, ethnicity, religion and party affiliation.
- (vi) Most programmes have tended to rely on grants and loans from international financial institutions and other donor agencies whose conditionality for facilities often ended up undermining the needs of the poor.

Okosun et'al (2010) also identify some of the factors responsible for the failures of the past policies on poverty which include the following:

- (i) Frequent policy changes and inconsistent implementation have prevented continuous progress and have created a climate of uncertainty, resulting in most operators having very short run perspective of the objectives of the programmes,
- (ii) Virtually all the programmes lack targeting mechanisms for the poor and do not focus directly on the poor,
- (iii) Severe budgetary allocation, mismanagement, and bad governance have affected the programme resulting in facilities/infrastructure not being completed or, even, established,
- (iv) Fraudulent activities and mismanagement. This results in wastage of resource and failure to achieve cost effective results. Funds earmarked for programmes are not judiciously utilized. They are either misapplied within the programme or diverted to other uses outside the programme and

- (v) Many intervention programmes are developed on the rather erroneous assumption that the poor generally constitute a homogenous group and, therefore, relatively uniform prescription could be applied across board.

To Ajakaiye (2002), most past government attempts at poverty reduction failed to produce the desired positive impact on the poor due to several factors. They include:

- i. Policy inconsistency and poor governance,
- ii. Ineffective targeting of the poor (leading to leakage of benefits to unintended beneficiaries),
- iii. Unwieldy scope of programmes resulting in resources being thinly spread among project,
- iv. Overlapping of functions which ultimately led to institutional rivalry and conflicts,
- v. Lack of mechanisms in various programmes and projects to ensure sustainability,
- vi. Lack of complementarity from the beneficiaries,
- vii. Uncoordinated sectoral policy initiatives,
- viii. Lack of involvement of social partners and other stakeholders in planning, implementation and evaluation, and
- ix. Poor human capital development and inadequate funding.

Oyemoni (2003) explains that the return of Nigeria to democratic government in 1999 marked the introduction and repositioning of poverty reduction strategies in Nigeria by President Obasanjo's administration. First, was the Poverty Alleviation Programme (PAP) which was set up in 2000 to urgently create jobs for the unemployed in the face of increasing

youth restiveness. The programme was designed to stimulate economic activities and improve the environment. The beneficiaries engaged in direct labour activities such as patching of potholes, vehicle control along high-ways, maintenance of public buildings and environmental sanitation.

The implementation of PAP generated public outcry and was mired in shoddiness and corruption. As a result of this, the government had to set up a committee headed by Prof. Ango Abdullahi to review the programme. There were a plethora of problems identified with the PAP which included: over centralization, over politicization, irregular payment, uncoordinated management as well as high-level of corruption (Oyemoni, 2003). Thereafter, the committee came up with a blueprint recommending National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP).

#### **2.1.2.3. National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP)**

National Poverty Eradication Programme was established in 2001. It was designed to address the aspects of absolute poverty and to eradicate them. It was discovered that there were certain fundamental factors responsible for the inadequacies in the previous poverty reduction strategies over the years such as the absence of a policy framework, inadequate involvement of stakeholders, poor implementation arrangements and lack of proper co-ordination. All these were said to have been considered in designing NAPEP to make it more relevant than the past efforts (Okoye and Onyukwu, 2007).

##### **2.1.2.3.1. The Major Objective of NAPEP**

According to Okoye and Onyukwu, (2007), NAPEP's major objective entails the monitoring and coordinating of all poverty eradication initiatives in order to harmonize and ensure better delivery, maximum impact and effective utilization of available resources. NAPEP was arranged into four schemes as follows:

1. Youth Empowerment Scheme (YES) - It is concerned with providing unemployed youth opportunities in skills acquisition, employment and wealth generation. To achieve this, the scheme was further subdivided into Capacity Acquisition Programme, Mandatory Attachment Programme and Credit Delivery Programme. The Capacity Programme is designed to enable participants, notwithstanding their different levels of formal education, acquire skills, vocational capabilities and performance enhancing attributes on their chosen areas of engagement. These programmes include training apprenticeship, investment inducement seminars.

The concept of CAP is to recruit, retrain, and redeploy the creative capacity of youths so that they can play more productive and self fulfilling roles in the emerging economic dispensation. Government takes responsibility for the upkeep of participants while in training. A recruit receives #3,500 per month.

The Mandatory Attachment Programme (MAP) is an intervention initiative under the Youth Empowerment Scheme (YES) designed to attach graduates (who have completed their mandatory National Youth Service and yet to secure full time employment even after having undergone NAPEP's capacity building training courses) to organizations to provide them with the job training and expose them to skills in their fields of specialization. The attachés receive the sum of #10,000 per month. The Credit Delivery Programme is intended to provide minimum required credit to the graduates of the other programmes of YES in order to enable them to set up, expand or upgrade their own businesses (Elumilade et al, 2006).

2. Rural Infrastructure Development Scheme (RIDS) - The objective of this scheme is to ensure the provision and development of infrastructural needs in the areas of transport, energy, water and communication especially in rural areas. The RIDS was sub-divided into



four parts: the Rural Transport Programme, the Rural Energy Programme, the Rural Water Programme and the Rural Communication Programme.

3. Social Welfare Services Scheme (SOWESS) - It aims at ensuring the provision of basic social services including quality primary and special education, strengthening the economic power of farmers, providing primary health care, and so on. The scheme consists of four broad sub-categories which are the Qualitative Education Programme, Primary Health Care Programme, Farmers Empowerment Programme and Social Services Programme. The main programme to be implemented under SOWESS according to Ugoh and Ukpere, (2009) are:

- Qualitative Education to boost the number of standard primary and secondary schools and raise enrolment figures, to provide skilled teachers, teacher incentives and regularize remunerations and entitlements, to provide, develop and sustain qualitative special education and mass literary.
- Primary health care programme is to provide: clinics/health centres in every ward and local government council; provision of hospitals and rehabilitation of existing ones in every state of the federation; provision of essential drugs, medical personnel and other infrastructure to all clinics and hospitals; control and prevention of communicable diseases; free healthcare delivery to the poor; population control programme; provision of national health and social insurance scheme for all Nigerians.
- Farmers Empowerment Programme which includes: provision of agricultural extension service and strategic grains reserve programme.
- Social Services Programme includes rehabilitation of destitute and disabled, provision of enlightenment campaign and entertainment facilities, development of parks, gardens and communal recreation centres, coordination and control of NGOs activities.

- Other Social Services include credit delivery for establishing community services facilities; oil producing areas development scheme; gender development schemes; special services for youth empowerment. Provision of mass transit; development of maintenance culture for rural infrastructure facilities; harnessing development and commercialization of local technologies.
4. Natural Resources Development and Conservation Scheme (NRDCS) - The vision of this scheme is to bring about a participatory and sustainable development of agricultural, mineral and water resources through the following sub-divisions: Agricultural Resources Programme which include: the development of modern farms in rural areas and maintaining grazing resources, Water Resources programme which include the development of water resources for public use and irrigation and aquaculture development. Solid Minerals Resources Programme including the opening up of mining sites. Environment Protection Programme include refuse and garbage management, establishment of a forestation barriers to desertification, legislation and enforcement of law on industrial waste, erosion control and flood land and industrial safety, control of desertification, environmental control of rivers, lakes and coastal areas, forest development and conservation. (Birdir, 2002)

#### **2.1.2.3.2. Institutional Arrangement for the Implementation of NAPEP**

Birdir (2002) explains that in order to ensure an effective implementation of the scheme's objectives, an organizational structure was outlined as follows:

- The National Poverty Eradication Council (NAPEC) is the apex organ responsible for the formulation, coordination, monitoring and review of all poverty eradication activities in the Nigeria. It is chaired by the president while the vice president is the deputy chairman. The secretary to the government of the federation is the secretary of the council. The participating ministries in the scheme are the following: Ministry of agriculture and rural

development; ministry of education; ministry of works and housing; ministry of women affairs and youth development; ministry of industry; ministry of science and technology; ministry of solid mineral development; ministry of water resources; ministry of health; ministry of power and steel; ministry of employment labour and productivity; ministry of environment and ministry of finance. The chief economic adviser to the president and national coordinator of NAPEP are also members of the council.

- The second most important organ in the structure of NAPEP is the National Assessment and Evaluation Committee (NAEC). This committee which serves as a forum for regular monitoring of the activities of NAPEP is chaired by the vice-president, and draws membership from representatives of the Economic Policy Coordination Committee (EPCC), The National Economic Intelligence Committee (NEIC), the Federal Office of Statistics (FOS), The National Planning Commission, Non-governmental Organizations, the World Bank (Nigeria), The United Nations Development Programme (Nigeria) and the European Union (Nigeria). The National Planning Commission is the secretariat of the council.
- The third organ is the National Coordination Committee (NCC) which is chaired by the Federal Coordinator of the Programmes and is saddled with the task of executing the directives of the national poverty eradication council and ensuring that activities of ministries and agencies involved in the poverty alleviation programmed are coordinated. Members are drawn from representatives of the ministries, parastatals and agencies participating in NAPEP who should not be below the rank of director and president of the Manufacturing Association of Nigeria. Others are the president of the Nigerian Association of Chambers of Commerce, Industry Mines and Agriculture (NACCIMA), President of the Nigerian Employers Consultative Association (NECA), representatives of

registered political parties and the permanent secretary of the National Poverty Alleviation Programme who will serve as the secretary of the committee.

- There is also state coordination committee in all the 36 states in Nigeria, including the Federal Capital Territory, Abuja. The state coordinating committees have chairmen appointed by the president. Similarly, local government monitoring committees were established in all the 774 local government areas in the country. The National Poverty Eradication Programme is not under any ministry parastatals or agency. But these bodies are the major executors of its programme. NAPEP in turn also periodically executes what is called intervention projects to complement the efforts of MDAs that are involved in poverty alleviation initiatives.
- The Poverty Eradication Fund (PEF) which is administered by the National Poverty Eradication Council directly funds the NAPEP. 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 government, 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, United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). The European Union (EU), the Department for International Development (DID) the Japanese International Cooperation Agency (JICA) and the German Technical Assistance (GTA).
- Budgeted efforts for implementation by the Federal Ministries, Parastatals and Agencies in the States and Local Governments shall be extracted yearly from the main budget ledger. Details of these along with their implementation schedules shall regularly be obtained via the NCC and/or the SCCs. Ideally; these details shall partly form the basis of

monitoring schedules on the relevant efforts of the Federal Government in the States through the LGMCs.

- NAPEP was also mandated to extend scaled intervention programmes and projects on stressed, critical and sensitive sectors of the economy periodically to supplement and provide relief in the sector with a view to enhancing the efforts of the statutory implementing Ministries, Agencies and Parastatals. Details of these intervention projects along with their implementation timetables shall regularly be obtained through the NCC, SCC and the LGMC for monitoring, evaluation and impact assessment.
- Details on relevant efforts of the State Governments through the specially created poverty alleviation/eradication agencies and the relevant State Ministries & Parastatals shall be provided and monitored through the instruments of SPEC and SCC. Hence, information on efforts in the area of water supply, primary healthcare, education, etc. shall be provided along with the details of implementation in reports presented to SPEC and the SCC by the relevant State Ministries/Agencies representatives. These shall accordingly form the monitoring basis of such projects.
- Detailed reports presented at the LGMC meetings on Programmes and projects embarked upon by the various Local Governments that have poverty eradication contents shall form the basis for monitoring such through the Local Government Monitoring Committees. The submissions and reports shall highlight details on project location, budgets and actual implementation schedules and status of the projects.
- Details on foreign aids and assistance given by IDAs to the critical sectors of the economy prone to poverty shall be provided to form the basis of monitoring such projects. The representatives of the donor agencies and partners on the LGMC shall provide the relevant detailed information in this regard.

- Details of all sundry efforts by these bodies meant to complement other efforts in reducing the incidence of poverty in communities shall be provided to form the basis for monitoring such projects. The details shall be obtained through the representatives of these bodies on the LGMC.

#### **2.1.2.3.3. NAPEP's Monitoring Strategies and Guidelines**

According to Birdir (2002), the NAPEP monitoring philosophy of bottom-up approach hinges on physical inspection and monitoring of all relevant efforts periodically to identify project location, confirm project implementation as per plans provided, ensure the status of project delivery, note functionality of facilities, assess impacts on livelihood of communities, ensure equitable distribution and fair spread of basic necessities of life through coordination, and review the actual poverty status of communities with a view to setting further targets for total eradication of absolute poverty in Nigeria.

To achieve all of the above, the field monitoring strategies of NAPEP was set up and they involve a participatory functional team's formation, careful and sensitive team's member selection and composition, and logical field monitoring methods and operations. The details are as follows:

- Functional Teams- All physical projects as implemented by the Federal, State, Local Government, IDAs, NGOs CBOs, etc. shall be pooled, sectorised and schemed under YES, RIDs, SOWESS and NRDCS and identified in the local government areas for monitoring by specifically and carefully selected team members who are experienced professionally relevant and have wide knowledge of the areas.
- Intervention Projects Monitoring Teams (CAP, MAP, CDP and SSP projects) - All intervention projects of NAPEP shall naturally be specific and strategically located.

Special teams shall be composed to undertake the monitoring of these projects at set regular periods.

- Financial Monitoring Teams. - To ensure financial compliance on the projects as stated in (i) and (ii) above, financial monitoring members shall be included in the teams to carry out detailed quantitative evaluation of the projects extended.
- to ensure the monitoring of the collective efforts of all projects on the rate and level of poverty eradication, specialized teams shall be composed to regularly assess the impacts of interventions on the benefiting communities.
- Technical assessment and project recommendation teams (for priority intervention and social services projects)- For projects that are highly technical in nature, specialized teams shall be made to specifically monitor the projects. Also, the teams shall conduct assessment work on areas of needs of communities for priority projects and other social services projects.
- Teams Composition- As much as practicable, monitoring teams shall generally be composed using the following resources:

NAPEP secretariats staff for team facilitation, guidance, support and supervision (NCC, SCC and LGMC) also include the following: private resource persons, consultants from enlisted and recommended pool at all levels, data of which is primarily regularly updated and maintained at the NAPEP headquarters; NGOs, CBOs and Community Heads from lists of registered and accredited at the local government level whose pooled data is regularly updated and maintained at the NAPEP headquarters.

Monitoring Methodology- monitoring methodology includes:

- i. Team formation to be regularly articulated as the need arises by the NCC with relevant inputs from the SCC and the LGMC,

- ii. Development of standard relevant log books by carefully selected resource persons closely facilitated by NCC,
- iii. Field work scheduling and execution to be articulated by the NCC with contributions and facilitation by the SCC,
- iv. Data compilation and collation to be conducted at all levels but most particularly at the SCC and the LGMC,
- v. Information/data harmonization by the SCC and the NCC,
- vi. Data analysis, target attainment assessment and Evaluation by the SCC and the NCC,
- vii. Impact assessment reports by the LGMC, SCC and the NCC and
- viii. Review structures by the NCC.

#### **2.1.2.3.4. NAPEP's Performance Targets**

NAPEP sets targets to be achieved. The first of the targets is to be achieved in short, medium and long terms (See Appendix 4). Ajakaiye (2002) explains that the following targets were specific performance indicators to be achieved before the end of 2003.

#### **The targets for the YES programmes for 2003**

- National Unemployment Rate	30%
- Graduate Self-employment Rate	50%
- Non –Graduate Self-employment Rate	60%
- Skills Acquisition Rate for School Leavers	60%
- Skills Acquisition Rate for Graduates	70%
- Traditional Agricultural Production	
Techniques with Improved Technology	15%



## Annual Growth Rate of Development of

Relevant Technology

15%

NAPEP is also to establish 5 Units of Local Resource Based Cottage Industry per LGA per Annum.

### **RIDS Target 2003 are as follow:**

- Attaining 85% access to safe water in urban areas.
- Attaining 50% access to safe water in rural areas
- State capitals to be fully linked to NEPA national grid by 2003.
- Rural electrification rate to increase from current 30% to 50% by 2003.
- At least 100 km asphalt surface roads to be constructed per LGA per annum up to 2003.
- Every Local Government Area to have a desk office for integrated Poverty Eradication Programme (IPEP).
- The desk office of IPEP to record all relevant manuals on IPEP programmes in the Local Government including feasibility reports, surveys, recommendations etc. and
- At least 30% of new houses in rural areas to be constructed with more modern and improved materials.

### **SOWESS Targets for 2003**

- |  |        |
|--|--------|
| - Number of Primary School                                 | 66,147 |
| - Primary School Enrolment                                 | 90%    |
| - Post-Primary School Enrolment                            | 60%    |
| - Adult literacy   | 70%    |
| - Complete Immunization Coverage before the first birthday | 100%   |

- Access to Health Services	75%
- Delivery by Trained Attendants	70%
- Maternal Mortality Rate	400/100,000
- Infant Mortality Rate	50/1000
- Life Expectancy at Birth Years	35
- Population Growth Rate	2%
- Gross Output of Major Crops	75MMT
- Annual Fish Production Livestock production	80%
- Strategic Grains Reserves	1.0

Other targets to be attained are as follows:

- All NGOs and CBOs operating in the country will be fully registered and documented by 2003.
- A multipurpose cultural and youth centre be established in each LGA by 2003
- At least, one destitute rehabilitation scheme be implemented in each LGA by 2003

In the case of the NRDCS, the targets to be attained by 2003 are as follows:

- Cultivation of 30.8 Mha
- Irrigation of 3.5 Mha
- Attaining production level of 75 MMT for major crops
- Attaining fish production level of 450, 000MT
- Attaining annual growth rate of 80% for livestock production
- Attaining growth rate of 10% value in addition to agricultural produce

- Cultivation of 1000 hectares of arid land with ecologically suitable economic trees in each LGA areas per annum up to 2003
- Development of 1000 Ha officially recognized grazing lands in each LGA in the country by 2003
- Full survey of erosion threatened lands in five districts of each LGA by 2003
- Full survey of erosion threatened lands in five districts of each LGA by 2003
- Proper and effective documentation of mineral resources and reduction of illegal mining
- Promotion of the establishment of small scale industries.
- Production of a comprehensive report on water resources.
- Effective waste utilization and management
- Enforcing regulation against bush burning, erosion and illegal exploitation of land resources
- Increased re-population and fish regimes
- Accelerated land reclamation
- Enhanced pollution remediation
- Reduction of gas flaring
- Effective protection by small scale operators and the immediate community
- Promotion and appropriate enforcement of operational and safety standards in resource development and use
- Evolving a sustainable resource use through local and community participation
- Complementation of efforts in the scheme by other relevant stakeholders such as NGOs and CBOs in the locality (Ajakaiye, 2002).

### **2.1.2.3.5. Implementation of NAPEP**

#### **YES' programmes**

Okoye and Onyukwu (2007) explain that the implementation of NAPEP commenced in January 2001 and 6 billion Naira was given to the agency by the government. The agency officials claimed that the money was used to establish NAPEP structures in 36 states, the federal capital territory, Abuja and in 774 local government councils. NAPEP started its implementation with YES programmes especially on the skills acquisition and mandatory attachment scheme. There were employment generation intervention programmes which translated to the training of 100,000 youths, attaching 50,000 unemployment graduates in various places of work, training of over 5000 people in tailoring and fashion design and establishment of rural telephone networks in 125 local government areas. Other uses to which the money was put include the delivery of the Keke-NAPEP- three-wheeler vehicle project involving 2000 units in all the state capitals of Nigeria. 147 youth information centers across senatorial districts were established. There was also the delivery of informal micro credit ranging between #10,000 and #50,000 to 10,000 beneficiaries most of whom were women and so on.

Appendix 3 indicates the allocations of the Keke NAPEP in 36 states in 2002. 5000 tricycles were allocated and out of this figure, 3,286 were delivered. Only in states like Adamawa, Edo, Enugu, Gombe, Imo, Lagos, Ogun and FCT that had their complete tricycles delivered. Most of the states were only able to claim part of the tricycles while allocated, the balance could not be traced.

#### **COPE and VEDS Programmes**

In, 2006, NAPEP under Magnus Kpakol introduced two programmes: Village Economic Development Solution (VEDS) and COPE. COPE was specifically to provide grants to

qualified poor households on the condition that they engage in investments in the human capital development of their children or wards. Specifically, qualified households were 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 was to help in breaking the intergenerational transfer of poverty. #5 billion and #2.265 billion were earmarked for the programmes respectively. The implementation of these programmes and other previous programmes by NAPEP came under serious criticisms. This is because the programmes have not impacted positively in the lives of the poor Nigerians talk less of the rural populace where there were the highest number of poor people (Adekoya, 2010).

### **The Promise Keeper Programme**

The Promise Keeper Programme [PKP] is a NAPEP interventional project in partnership with Faith-Based Organizations (FBOs) mainly Churches and Mosques. Funds were mobilized to economically empower the active poor in the FBOs. It is a scheme which NAPEP claimed rightly targets the poor and enables the religious leaders monitor their growth and development. In 2005, #10 million was allocated to each state, except the metropolitan states. Lagos and FCT, however, got #20 million each (NAPEP, 2012).

PKP is an interest free loan disbursed to the participants through Micro Finance Banks/Micro finance Institutions. According to the NAPEP, the programme took place in 26 states while 335 churches and 256 mosques participated, making a total number of 591. The FBOs contributed N226, 667 which was said to have been matched with an equal amount by NAPEP which made available a total sum of about N453, 354 to the poor masses. (See appendix 5 for the contributions of 36 states, FCT and FBOs towards the Promise Keeper Programme).

## **The Village Solution Programme**

Village solution programme is a new programme of NAPEP which is said to be local community-driven. The development programme was 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. The programme has commenced and some states in Nigeria have made contributions towards the programme. The sum of approximately #5.67B has so far been approved and disbursed to the participating cooperative societies through micro finance institutions and banks. A total of 4,300 cooperative societies are participating in the programme. (For details, see Appendixes 6 and 7 showing the States' Contributions towards the Implementation of Village Solution Programme).

### **2.1.2.3.6. The critique of NAPEP**

The implementation of the various programmes and other previous programmes by NAPEP has been under serious criticism. This is because the programmes have not impacted positively on the lives of poor Nigerians; talk less of the rural populace where there are the highest number of poor people. NAPEP's objective to completely wipe out absolute poverty from Nigeria by the year 2010 could not be achieved. All the performance indicators to be achieved in 2003 became tall orders. The general performance indicators also could not be met (See appendix 3). Instead, Nigerians have witnessed a deteriorating situation in health, education, corruption, transportation, agricultural produce, electricity, access to drinkable water and the general wellbeing of Nigerian people.

The Nigeria profile as indicated in Wikipedia network (2012) shows that health care and the general living conditions in Nigeria have become poorer. The Wikipedia network indicates

further that life expectancy in Nigeria is now 47 years (average male/female) and just over half the population have access to potable water and appropriate sanitation, the percentage of children under five has gone up rather than down between 1990 and 2003 and infant mortality is 97.1 deaths per 1000. Live births HIV/AIDS rate in Nigeria is much lower compared to the other African nations such as Kenya or South Africa whose prevalence (percentage) rates are in the double digits. In 2003, the HIV prevalence rate among 20 to 29 year-old was 5.6%. Nigeria suffers from periodic outbreak of cholera, malaria, and sleeping sickness. It is the only country in Africa which has never eradicated polio which it periodically exports to other African countries.

Education is in a state of neglect. After the 1970s oil boom, tertiary education was improved so that it would reach every sub region of Nigeria. The education system has been described as "dysfunctional" largely because of decaying institutional infrastructure. 68% of the population is literate, and the rate for men (75.7 percent) is higher than that for women (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Nigeria>, 2012).

According to 2009 estimates, HIV prevalence is about 3.6 percent of the adult population in Nigeria. The 2011 UNAIDS Report indicates that Nigeria has the second highest number of new HIV infections in the world and lacks the necessary capacity to combat the disease. Nigeria is also pervaded by political corruption. It is ranked 143 out of 182 countries (Transparency International's 2011 Corruption Perceptions Index).

However, broad-based progress in tackling the problem of corruption has been elusive and has not yet become evident in international surveys of corruption. In fact, Nigeria ranked 147 out of 179 countries in 2007 on the Transparency International's 2007 Corruption Perceptions Index and placed 108 out of 178 countries in the World Bank's 2008's Ease of Doing Business Index. All these are pointers that the living conditions of Nigerians have deteriorated after many years of implementing NAPEP.

Ugoh, et al, (2009) identify factors that have contributed to the failure of NAPEP. These include poor targeting mechanisms, failure to focus on the poor, programme inconsistency, poor implementation and corruption.

On poor targeting mechanisms, NAPEP was articulated to make life more meaningful for Nigerians. The programme was intended to involve partnering in micro-finance for women and youth empowerment. It also collaborates with states and local governments, the private sectors, religious bodies and nongovernmental organizations (NGOS) to reduce unemployment by creating jobs. However, apart from renting tricycles to young Nigerians for transport business, there have not been serious and identifiable efforts at empowering the beneficiaries with enduring skills. Also, there have not been observable attempts at embarking on extensive farm settlements and elaborate agricultural programmes. As a result, it has lost focus and direction.

NAPEP was designed to circumvent many of the problems of poverty alleviation. However, there have been some lacunas that devalue the programme delivery. In fact, one significant flaw in NAPEP is lack of focus on community education. This is one area where adult education could have come as community education which is one of the important foci of education for poverty alleviation. Ironically, the role of adult and non formal education in poverty alleviation had not been fully appreciated by the designers of the programme. This can be seen as a fundamental oversight.

Political and policy interference have undermined the institution's credibility and effectiveness. In other words, political instability has resulted in frequent policy changes and inconsistent implementation which turn out to prevent continuous progress. Also, NAPEP top-ranking officers are political appointees and therefore, subject to political loyalties to those who appointed them. Thus, it is still the usual top-down approach and not bottom-up approach as emphasized in the design of the programme.



The severe budgetary and governance problems afflicted the full implementation of the programmes. It has resulted in facilities either not being completed or broken down and abandoned. Furthermore, inappropriate programme and lack of involvement of beneficiaries in the formulation and implementation had resulted in the unsuccessful implementation of the programmes. Again, given the fact that more women than men are poor, the programme has not made tangible effort that engenders this imbalance in the society.

Corruption has bedeviled various anti-poverty programmes of government including NAPEP. The manifestations and problems associated with corruption in Nigeria have various dimensions. Among these are project substitution, misrepresentation of project finances, diversion of resources, conversion of public funds to private uses, etc (Okoye and Onyukwu, 2007).

It is interesting to note that lack of accountability and transparency made the programmes to serve as conduit pipes for draining national resources. Thus, the effect of corruption is both direct and indirect on poverty increase.

Adekoya (2010) reports that the Nigerian Senate probe on the activities of NAPEP in 2009 revealed the following:

- (i) NAPEP was a creation by an executive fiat with no legal backing whatsoever to regulate its activities,
- (ii) There have been breaches of Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) and operational guidelines by NAPEP and some micro finance banks,
- (iii) There had been abuse of office by NAPEP officials: it was discovered in some states that NAPEP officials used their influence to approve for themselves directly or through their cronies funds which they used with no intention to repay,

- (iv) It is established that cases of funds approved for certain beneficiaries were diverted to different beneficiaries, thus making it impossible for such funds to be recovered,
- (v) NAPEP funds were used for politicking as the monies were given out as succour to loyal party members with no plans for recovery. It was a clear case of politicized micro-financing,
- (vi) Lack of proper 'monitoring and evaluation' by NAPEP- From investigations, it is established that despite the sum of N1.850bn provided between 2006 and 2008 on monitoring and evaluation, this aspect of the programme was very weak and ineffective,
- (vii) Misappropriation of funds by benefitting cooperative societies,
- (viii) Unfit micro finance institutions engaged in loan disbursement. In many instances, incompetent, unqualified and even unregistered micro finance institutions (MFI) were engaged by NAPEP in the disbursement of funds to beneficiaries; in other cases, the micro finance institutions absconded with money. In another direction, some of the micro finance institutions became distressed with huge amount of NAPEP funds trapped and
- (ix) Faceless names and fake addresses: In this case, it is established that NAPEP in their submissions to the committee provided fake names and unverifiable addresses. These anomalies are most noticeable in the Capacity Acquisition Programme (CAP) and Mandatory Attachment Programme (MAP) (Adekoya, 2010).

Lazarus (2010) notes that despite the sum of N1.850bn provided between 2006 and 2008 on monitoring and evaluation, this aspect of the programme was very weak and ineffective. He attributed other problems to: misappropriation of funds by benefitting cooperative societies; unfit micro finance institutions engaged in loan disbursement. In many instances,

incompetent, unqualified and even unregistered Micro Finance Institutions (MFI) were engaged by NAPEP in the disbursement of funds to beneficiaries; in other cases, the MFI absconded with the money. In another direction, some of the MFI became distressed with huge amount of NAPEP funds trapped.

To Eze (2003), the management of Poverty Eradication Programme was worsened by the adoption of a top-bottom approach in the implementation of the policy. The target groups, who are the poor in the society, predominantly in the country side, were hardly reached due to the fact that the programme existed at the state and local government headquarters, but failed to have linkage with the traditional community leaders for effective penetration of the grassroots.

Yakubu and Aderonmu (2010) contend that in spite of the various programmes put in place to address the perennial problem of grinding poverty in the country especially in the rural areas, there had not been substantial achievements at the local level as most of the people in rural areas remained impoverished and socio-economically and politically subjugated and demeaned.

### **2.1.3. Gaps in the Literature Review**

The study has attempted a conceptual discourse that includes the concept of poverty, classification of poverty, measurement of poverty, poverty in the world, poverty in Nigeria, the causes of rural poverty in Nigeria. Others are the concept of public policy, factors influencing public policy, approaches to public policy, public policy making process and public policy analysis. There was also a review of relevant literatures that involves the major works on the problems of policy implementation in developing country like Nigeria especially why policy fails at implementation stage; past policy attempts at tackling rural poverty in Nigeria and National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP).

Most authors emphasized that poverty level in Nigeria has increased despite the plethora of efforts that have been put in place to ameliorate the situation. NAPEP with multifarious approach to eradicate poverty could not make much impact. The author however attributed the problems to constraints in policy implementation. Policies have been top-down resulting in implementation gaps between the policy makers and implementers on one hand and the policies and the target populations on the other hand. The gap is widened by inability of the bureaucrats to take into consideration the socio-political and economic environments in analyzing policy implementation. These problems are compounded by factors which include unrealistic goal setting, defective planning process, political constraints, financial constraints, poor targeting mechanism, external influence, over centralization and statistical deficiencies. Most of the authors agreed that, none of the government's efforts at poverty reduction including NAPEP has met its objective because of poor policy implementation.

However, in all, most authors did not conceive policy from the perspective of the people but purely from the perspective of policy imposition by the government and the bureaucrats. Less effort have been made by authors and writers to link the cause of ineffective implementation of policy to repackaging of policy to discover the peculiarities of the needs of the target populations and the best way the needs can be met, lack of participation by the target population in the formulation and the implementation of policy and the role of Change Management to engender an effective policy implementation through bridging the gap between policy formulation and implementation. These are the lacunas that this study will try to fill.

## **2.2. Theoretical Framework**

This study has designed a Policy Analysis Model of Participation and Change Management to explain the importance of effective policy implementation as a pre-condition for rural poverty reduction in Nigeria. This is inevitable because the available theories and models in

most literatures are too abstract to fully capture and understand the efficacy of this work. System Theory (Easton, 1965) and Process Theory (Grindle and Thomas, 1990) serve as background knowledge to the model. They are however combined with three other models: Policy Formulation Process Model by Dimock and Dimock (1983), the Model for Roles and Involvement of Local Communities in the Development of Projects and Programmes by Oviasuyi, (2010) and the Model of Change Management by Sutton (1999).

### **2.2.1. Relevance of System Theory**

The relevance of the System Theory of policy making to this study is based on the Easton's analysis of political system. He explains that demand and supports from the environment constitute inputs into the political system. These are converted into output. The inputs are in form of demand from groups, individuals for policy outcome. The policy outcome takes the form of determination of societal values and allocation of resources. A feedback loop exists by which the output alter the future inputs. This theory relies on concept of information theory (Naidu, 2006). The system theory is concerned with such questions as what are the significant variable and patterns in the public policy making system? What constitutes the 'black box' of the actual policy making process? and what are the inputs, outputs, feedback of the process? (Easton, 1965) The systems concept suggests the working together of a set of interdependent units in order to respond to forces in their environment and preserve the units.

This system theory is criticized because it assumed that all policies are environmental inputs transformed by the political system. It fails to recognize that policies are often times the result of the interrelations, lobbying, bargaining and building consensus within the elements of the political system itself (Owolabi, 2005).

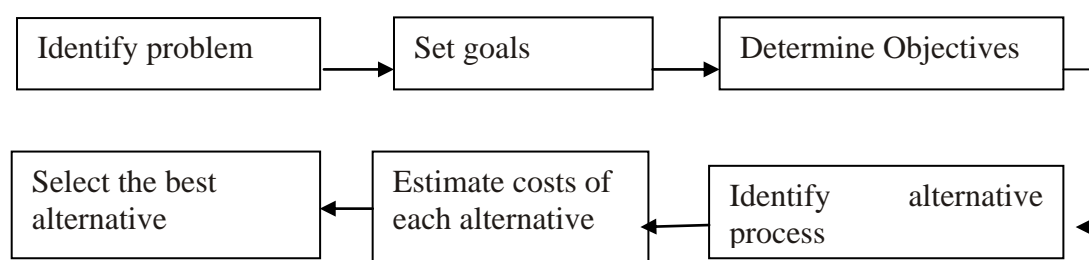
### 2.2.2. Relevance of Process Theory

To Grindle and Thomas (1990), Policy creation is a linear process following these steps: identification of a problem and demand for government action, formulation of policy proposals by various parties; selection and enactment of policy- this is known as policy legitimating, implementation of the chosen policy, evaluation and monitoring of policy. This model is relevant to the extent that policy making must follow stages from the identification of the policy problem to policy formation, implementation and evaluation. However, it has been criticized for being overly linear and simplistic (Young and Enrique, 2009). In reality, stages of the policy process may overlap or never happen. Also, this model fails to take the multiple actors attempting the process itself as well as each other, and its complexity.

### 2.2.3. Policy Formulation Process Model

The relevance of policy formulation model is the fact that policy must be properly formulated by setting a realistic goal that is implementable. Policy formulation according to them involves identification of problem situation, collection of all the relevant facts, an analysis of the alternative solutions or explanations, then a choice of the alternatives that appear to have the maximum chance of success and the largest amount of rationality behind it. However, the output of this process of policy formulation stage is usually expressed in legislative Acts, Decrees, Policy Statements, Directives, Circulars, Council Conclusions, Laws and Guidelines etc. (Dimock and Dimock, 1983). This is represented in the diagram below:

**Figure 1: Policy Formulation Process**



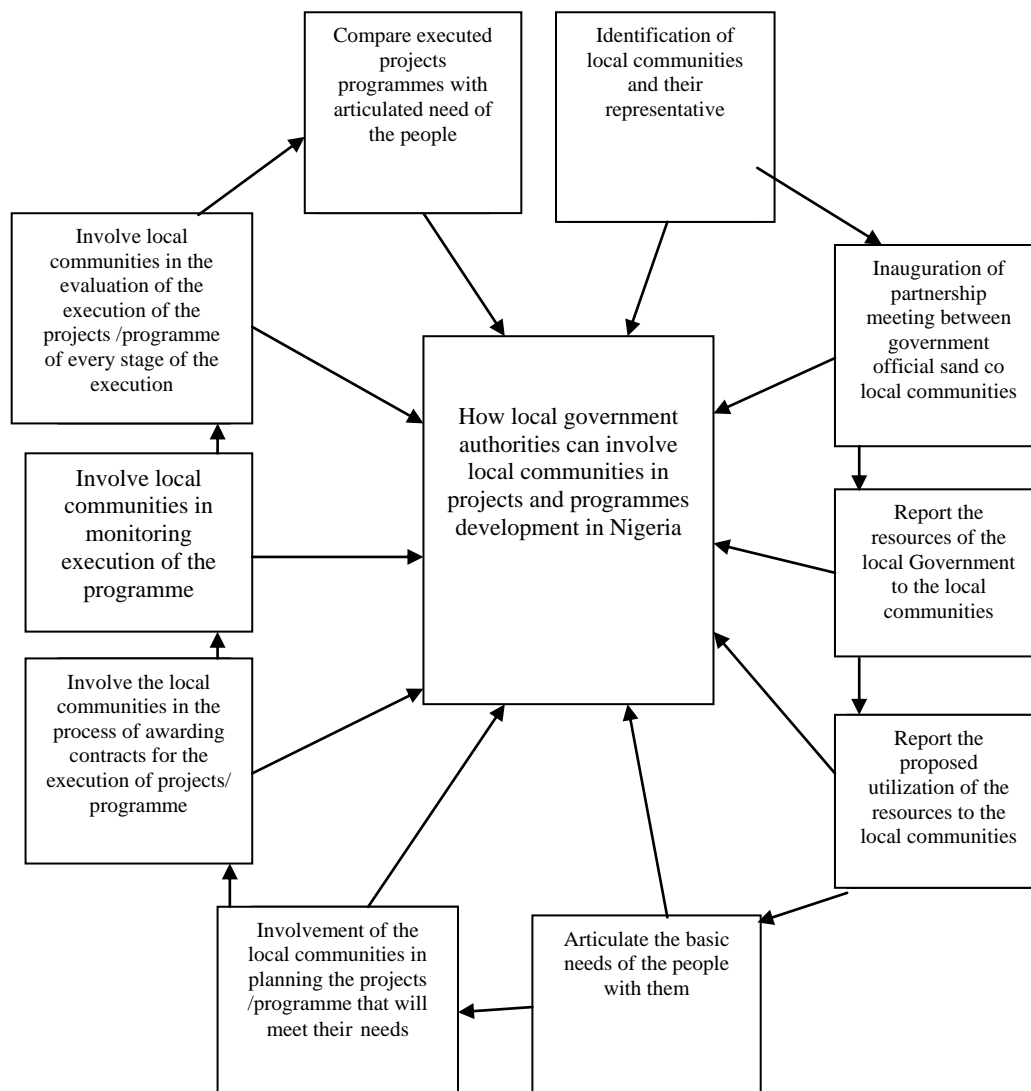
Source: Oruku, Oyedepo and Onwe (2010: 29).

From the above diagram, Dimock and Dimock (1983) explain how a realistic goal can be set through effective policy formulation but did not say much about policy implementation, change management as well as the involvement of the target population in the setting of the goal. This takes us to other authors who consider these important elements.

#### **2.2.4. Model for Role and Involvement of local Communities in the Development of Projects and Programmes of Local Government Authorities in Nigeria**

Oviasuyi (2010) in his work entitled, “Model for Roles and Involvement of Local Communities in Development Projects and Programmes of Local Government Authorities in Nigeria”, explains that in a truly democratic society where governance is supported by the will of the majority, the local government authorities ought to adopt the participatory approach to development and this will include the assignment of roles, responsibilities and the involvement of the local communities in projects and programmes planning, implementation and evaluation. He buttresses his argument diagrammatically as below:

Figure 2: Model for Role and Involvement of local Communities in the Development of Projects and Programmes of Local Government Authorities in Nigeria



**Source:** Oviasuyi, 2010:106

The above diagram shows how policy should be programmed for implementation by emphasizing the participation of the target population. In this case, if the problem of rural poverty will be solved, the rural people should be involved in the planning, analysis and implementation of the policy/ programme. Oviasuyi's model focuses more on programme implementation. He is of the opinion that the programme to be implemented should be discussed with the target population including the resources available to prosecute the programme. He contends that the beneficiary-community of the programme should be



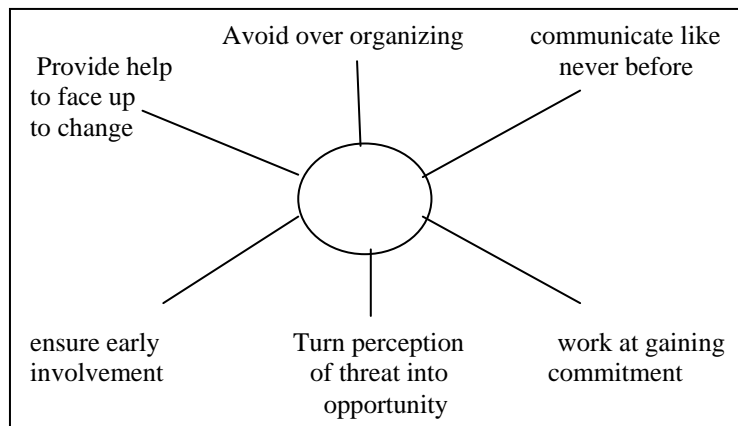
involved in every stage of the implementation. A programme that is implemented this way will definitely yield a positive result. According to him, it makes the programme accountable and there will be transparency and it will also reduce corruption to the barest minimum. Another merit derivable from his postulation is that it prevents the project from being sabotaged by the target population since they are fully involved.

However, Oviasuyi's model also falls short of our criteria for this study. It is only useful in the analysis of the implementation of programme. The problem with the treatise is the fact that it did not consider how the policy is made before implementation. No matter the preparation for the policy implementation, the policy will fail if it is not properly conceived and the goal set right from the onset. In addition, the model did not also consider the implementation change management in the policy process. This takes us to another model by Sutton (1999) which considers the importance of change management in the policy process.

#### **2.2.5. Change Management**

The third clue is derived from Sutton's 118 Working Paper (1999) entitled, "The Policy Process: An Overview". The key argument of the paper is that a 'linear model' of policy-making, characterized by objective analysis of options and separation of policy from implementation is inadequate. Instead, policy and policy implementation are best understood as a 'chaos of purposes and accidents'. A combination of concepts and tools from different disciplines can be deployed to put some order into the chaos, including policy narratives, policy communities, discourse analysis, regime theory, change management, and the role of street-level bureaucrats in implementation. In this study, the aspect of change management is of higher priority. This is because it explains how the change between policy formulation and implementation can be managed. Plant (1987) sets out six key activities for successful implementation in the Figure 3 below:

Figure 3: Change Management



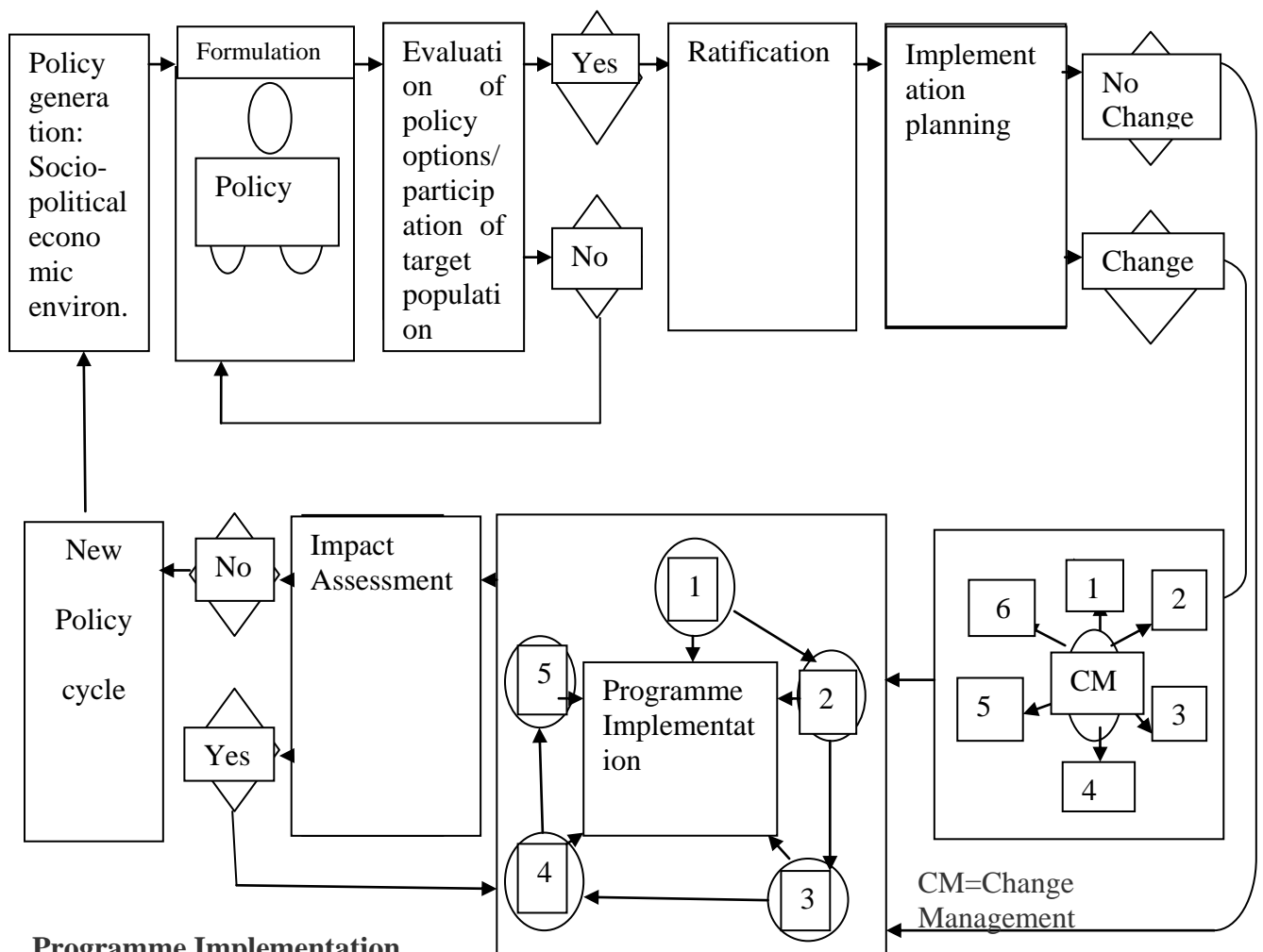
**Source:** Sutton, 1999:24.

In the above diagram, Sutton, warns of the consequences of the dichotomy between policy-making and implementation. Clay and Schaffer (1984) explain that one of the most important effects of the division between policy-making and implementation is the possibility for policy makers to avoid responsibility. The dichotomy between policy-making and implementation is dangerous. That is because it separates the ‘decision’, from the ‘implementation’ and thus opens up ‘escape hatches’ so that the policy makers can avoid responsibility. The solution to this lies in what Grindle and Thomas (1991) called the change management. This is reflected in the diagram in figure 3. It shows that one should (i) avoid over organizing (ii) communicate like never before (iii) work at gaining commitment (iv) Turn perception threat into opportunity (v) ensure early involvement and (vi) provide help to face up the change. These should be done by the policy makers and taken down the stakeholders of the policy. This will help to douse the tension that may arise as policy moves from formulation to implementation.

#### **2.2.6. The Policy Analysis Model of Participation and Change Management**

The above theories and models are therefore modified, constructed and packaged into Policy Analysis Model of participation and change management as seen below.

**Figure 4: Policy Analysis Model of Participation and Change Management**



### Programme Implementation

- 1 A Particular target population identified
- 2 Partnership meeting between the Programme implementers and the target population representatives on the people's needs and resources available
- 3 Involve the target population in the process of awarding contract for the execution of the programme
- 4 Involve the target population in the monitoring of the execution of the programme
- 5 Involve the target population in the evaluation of the programme

### Change Management

- 1 Avoid over organizing
- 2 Communicate like never before
- 3 Work at gaining commitment
- 4 Turn perception threat into opportunity
- 5 Ensure early involvement
- 6 Provide help to face up the change

The policy analysis model of participation and change management is an attempt to bring policy implementation closer to reality. It sees policy making and implementation not as a separate process but interwoven and interdependent. The model makes five assumptions that can lead to effective policy implementation in a developing country like Nigeria. They are:

- (i) Setting a realistic goal- This is done through effective policy formulation. From the model, this can be achieved by generating the policy through the considerations of the socio-political and economic environment, formulating the policies into options, evaluation of policy options especially through cost benefit analysis to determine the best alternative (Dimock and Dimock, 1983). The model also hypothesizes the need to involve the target population in the selection of the best alternative that will meet the needs of the people (Owolabi, 2005).
- (ii) Planning implementation- This is done by repackaging the policy for a particular target population within the confinement of available resources and technology. For instance, if a policy that is generally formulated for the whole country has to be implemented in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities, it has to be repackaged to meet the peculiar needs of the people and the best way these needs can be met through the determination of appropriate technology.
- (iii) The use of change management to manage the problem of implementation gap- In planning implementation, what is planned may be different from what is originally conceived. This is very common in developing countries like Nigeria. The gap created needs to be managed to have effective policy implementation. This involves six steps: avoid over organizing; communicate like never before; work at gaining commitment; turn perception threat into opportunity; ensure early involvement and provide help to face up the change (Plant 1987).

- (iv) Participation of the target population in every stage of the programme implementation- The model assumed five steps which can aid effective implementation of programme: a particular target population is identified; partnership meeting between the programme implementers and the target population representative on the people's needs and resources available; involve the target population in the process of awarding contract for the execution of the programme and involve the target population in monitoring the execution of the programme; involve the target population in the evaluation of the programme. Doing these will minimize corruption, political patronage and prevent the programme from being sabotaged by the target population because they are fully involved. (Oviasuyi, 2010). Oviasuyi had designed 10 steps to be followed for effective policy implementation. This is however reduced to five in the model.
- (v) The model allows policy to be evaluated twice, first, at the policy formulation stage to determine the best alternative and second, at the implementation stage for the impact assessment to determine the policy performance especially on how it has imparted on the target population. In both cases, the target population must be involved. The impact assessment will assist the government to know whether the implementation of the policy should continue or be adjusted or discontinue for policy re-cycling for the generation of a new policy.

### **The grey areas of the Model**

The grey areas of the model include: inability to get the actual representatives of the target population; it cannot be used in the time of emergency and government may find it difficult to meet the criteria of this model because of the selfish interest of the politicians and the bureaucrats who may prefer 'top down' policy by incremental model. Policy may be deliberately frustrated by the bureaucrats if it is antithetical to their interest.

### **2.2.7. The Relevance of the Model in the Analysis of NAPEP and its Relation to Rural Poverty**

The model is useful in the analysis of NAPEP and its relation to rural poverty in Nigeria because:

1. There were no policy alternatives formulated along with NAPEP to allow its choice as best alternative in 2001. The target population in the rural areas was not involved in the formulation of NAPEP; therefore the needs of the target population especially those in the rural areas could not be determined.
2. NAPEP was planned for the whole country without attempt to repackage the programme for a particular target population to discover their needs and the best way to meet the needs especially the needs of the rural populace that constituted the majority of poor people in Nigeria.
3. It helps us to discover the importance of change management to manage implementation gap. Such implementation gap in NAPEP includes unrealistic goal setting, over organizing, communication gap, urban bias in its programme delivery, mismanagement of resources, political patronage and corruption, etc. (Adekoya (2010)
4. The model also helps us to understand that the rural people who are the poor majority in Nigeria should have been involved in the implementation process of NAPEP. This has been the reason for non- participation of the rural people in the programme and NAPEP's inability to make impact in the rural areas.
5. It helps us to discover that NAPEP should have been ratified by the Legislature and not the executive arm of government. NAPEP was ratified by the federal executive council and therefore it has been very difficult to perform oversight function on the programme by the legislature. (Lazarus, 2010).

## REFERENCES

- Adamolekun, L. (1983). *Public Administration: A Nigerian and Comparative Perspective*. London: Longman.
- Adekoya, K. (2010). "How Senate Report Nailed NAPEP Management". *Business News*, 27 November.
- Aderonmu, J. A. (2010). "Local Government and Poverty Eradication in Rural Nigeria". *Canadian Research & Development Centre of Sciences and Culture*. Canada: Social Science. [http:// www.fags.org/periodicals](http://www.fags.org/periodicals).
- Ajakaiye, O. (2002). "Overview of the Current Poverty Eradication Programme in Nigeria". In Jega, A. M. and Wakili, H. (eds.). *The Poverty Eradication Programme in Nigeria: Problems and Prospects*. Kano: Proceedings of the Round-Table Discussion Organized by the Centre for Democratic Research and Training (CDRT),
- Ajulor, O. V. (2008). "Local Government Administration and Rural Poverty in Nigeria". In *International Review of Politics and Development*, Ilisan-Remo: Department of Political Science, Babcock University, Nigeria Special Issues, (6) 1-15.
- Akeredolu-Ale, E.O. (1975). "Poverty as a Social Issue: A Theoretical Note". In O. Teriba (ed.) *Poverty Alleviation in Nigeria*. Ibadan: Nigerian Economic Society.
- Alila, P.O. (1998). "Strengthening Local Social Systems and People's Organization Capabilities for Local and Regional Development". *Regional Development Dialogue*, 19(2): 69- 84.
- Almond, G.A. (1960). "Introduction: A Functional Approach to Comparative Politics". In Gabriel Almond and James S. Coleman (Eds.), *The Politics of Developing Areas*. Princeton: Princeton University Press.
- Babatunde, R. A. Olorunsanya, E. O. and Adejola (2008). "Assessment of Rural Household Poverty: Evidence from South-Western Nigeria". *American-Eurasian J, Agric. & Environ. Sci.* 3(6): 900- 905.
- Barrett, S. and Fudge, C. (1981). Examine the Policy Action Relationship. In Barrett, S. and Fudge (eds.), *Policy Action: Essays on the Implementation of Public Policy*, London and New York: Methuen.
- Bertsch, G.K. (1978). *Comparing Political Systems: Power and Politics in Three Worlds*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Bindir, U. B. (2002). "The National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) Monitoring Strategies". Paper Presented at *the Community-Based Monitoring and Evaluation Methodology Workshop*, jointly organized by Food Basket Foundation International and the World Bank, June 10 - 14.
- Brinkerhoff, D. W. (1996). "Process Perspectives on Policy Change: Highlighting Implementation". *World Development*. 24 (9).
- Bührs, T. Bartlett, R. V. (1993). *Environmental Policy in New Zealand. The Politics Clean and Green*, NewZealand: Oxford University Press.

- Castel, R. (1995). *Les Metamorphoses De La Question Sociale*. Paris: Fayard.
- CBN/World Bank (1999). "Study of Poverty Assessment and Alleviation, Federal Government of Nigeria 1997 Report of the Vision 2010". *Committee Main Report*. Abuja: September.
- Chandler, R. C. Plano, J. C. (1988). *The Public Administration Dictionary*. England: ABC CLIO.
- Clark, D. David, H. (2005). "Towards A Unified Framework for Understanding the Depth, Breadth and Duration of Poverty". *Working Paper 20, Global Poverty Research Group*.
- Dimock, M. E. and Dimock, A. (1983). *Public Administration*. Sussex: Holt Rhine Hart and Winston Ltd.
- Doer, J. E. (1998). *Dictionary of Public Administration*. Malaysia: Golden Books Centre.
- Dror, Y. (1973). *Public Policy Making Re-Examined*, London: Leonard Hill Book
- Dye, T. (2008). *Understanding public policy*, New Jersey: Pearson Prentice hall
- Easton, D. (1965). *A Framework for Political Analysis*. Eaglewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice Hall.
- Edward, G. C. (1980). "Implementing Public Policy". *Washington, DC: Congressional Quarterly press*.
- Egonmwan, J. A. (1991). *Public Policy Analysis: Concept and Applications*. Benin City: S. M. O. Aka and Brothers Press.
- Egwuatu, B. (2002). Strategies Towards Strengthening the Poverty Eradication Programme in Nigeria in Jega, A. M. and Wakili, H. (eds.). *The Poverty Eradication Programme in Nigeria Problems and Prospects*. Kano: Centre for Democratic Research and Training, Mambayya House Bayero University.
- Elumilade, D. O., Asaolu T. O. and Adenreti, S. A. (2006). "Appraising the Institutional Framework for Poverty Alleviation Programmes in Nigeria". *International Research Journal of Finance and Economics Euro-Journal*, (3)79 <http://www.eurojournals.com/finance.htm>.
- Encarta (2000). Encyclopedia Britannica. [www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/186436/Encarta](http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/186436/Encarta).
- Etziolini, A. (1967). Mixed Scanning: A Third Approach to Decision- Making. *Public Administration Reviews* 27 ( 5).
- Eze, P. (2003). *Sustainable Environments, a neglect Strategy for Poverty Alleviation in Nigeria*. Enugu: Jamoe.
- FGN National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP), ABUJA: Federal Government of Nigeria, 2012.
- Gana, A.T. (1996). "The Promise of Liberal Democracy in Africa: The Nigerian Betrayal". *African Centre for Democratic Governance, Abuja: (AFRIGOV) Monograph (1)1*



- Grindle, M. and Thomas, J. (1990). "After the Decision: Implementing Policy Reforms in Developing Countries". *World Development*.18 (8).
- Grindle, M. and Thomas, J. (1991) *Public Choices and Policy Change: The Political Economy of Reform in Developing Countries*. Baltimore: John Hopkins University Press.
- Henry, N. (2007). *Public Administration and Public Affairs*. New Delhi: Prentice Hall.
- Hirschman, A. O. (1963). *Journeys Toward Progress: Studies of Economic Policy Making in Latin America*, New York: Twentieth Century Fund.
- Honadle, G. (1979). "Implementation Analysis: The Case for Early Dose of Realism in Development Administration" in Honadle G. and Klauss (eds), *International Development Administration: Implementation Analysis for Development*. New York: Praeger.
- ICPC (2007). *Climate Change 2007: Impacts, Adaptation and Vulnerability*. Geneva: World Meteorological Organization/United Nations Environment Programme.
- IDMC (2007). "Internal Displacement: Global Overview of Trends". [www.internal-displacement.org/idmc/website/resources.nsf/htt](http://www.internal-displacement.org/idmc/website/resources.nsf/htt).
- IFAD (2001). *Rural Poverty Report: The Challenge of Ending Rural Poverty*. Rome: International Fund for Agricultural Development.
- Ikelegbe, A. (2005). "The Local Government System and Grassroots Development in Nigeria: Issues, Problems and Challenges" in A.G. Onokerhoraye and G.E.D. Omuta Eds., *Perspectives on Development: A Book in Honour of Pius O. Sada*, Benin City: Centre for Population and Environment Development.
- Jeffrey, D. (2005). *Investing in Development: A Practical Plan to Achieving the Millennium Development Goals*: U.K.: Earthscan Publication.
- Jega, A (2007). *Democracy, Good Government and Development in Nigeria*. Ibadan: Spectrum Books.
- Juma, C. and Clark, N. (1995). "Policy Research in Sub-Saharan Africa: An Exploration". *Public Administration and Development*, (15)121–137.
- Jibowo, G. (1992). *Essentials of Rural Development*, Abeokuta: Sodipo Press.
- Kaufman, D. (1999). "Anti- Corruption Strategies: Starting Afresh? Unconventional Lessons from Comparative Analysis". In R. Stepenburst and S.J. Kpuneh (ed). *Curbing Corruption*. The World Bank.
- Kuren K. (1978). "Quoted in Report on Poverty in Northern Nigeria, Concepts, Causes and Alleviation Strategies" (March 2007).
- Lazarus, S. (2010), "NAPEP Fund left Idle in Over #7.2 billion in Two Banks- Senate Committee". *Sunday Trust Online*, 24 October.
- Lindblom, C. E. (1963). *The Policy Making Process*. New Jersey: Prentice-hall, Inc. Engle Cliffs.
- Lipsky, M. (1993). "Street-Level Bureaucracy: Dilemmas of the Individual in Public Services", in Hill, M. *The Policy Process: A Reader*. London: Prentice Hall/Harvester Wheat Sheaf.

- Maduabum, C. P. (2006). *The Mechanics of Public Administration in Nigeria*. Lagos: Concept Publications Ltd.
- Maduagwu, A. (2000). "Alleviating poverty in Nigeria". *Africa Economic Analysis Publication*, 23 (2) 34-41.
- Mbieli, P. (2006). *Public Policy: Action Oriented Concept*. Lagos: Megavons (West Africa) Ltd.
- Moore, S. (2000). *Letts Study Guide, A- Level Sociology*. London: Letts Educational Ltd.
- Mule, H. M. (2001). Institutions and their Impact in Addressing Rural Poverty in Africa. [www.ifad.org/poverty](http://www.ifad.org/poverty)
- Mullen, J. (2008). "Rural Poverty. In Desai, V., and Potter, R. B. (eds). *The Companion to Development Studies*. 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition, London: Hodder Education.
- Nagel, S. S. (ed.) (1999). *Policy Analysis Methods*. New York: Science Publishers.
- Naidu, S. (2006). *Public Administration: Concepts and Theories*. New Delhi: New Age Publishers. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- National Poverty Eradication Programme (2012). "Events and Press Releases". Abuja: Office of the National Coordinator, NAPEP.*
- Offiong, O.J (1996) "Systems Theory and Structural Functionalism in Political Analysis" in A.O. Oronsaye (ed.). *Nigerian Government and Politics*, Benin City: Petersam Publishers.
- Okosun, I. Siwar, C. (2010). "The Urban Poverty Dilemma in Nigeria and Attempts Towards Poverty Alleviation". *Journal of Sustainable Development in Africa*. Pennsylvania: Clarion University of Pennsylvania, 12 (2).
- Okoye U. C., Onyukwu E. O (2007). "Sustaining Poverty Reduction Efforts through Inter-Agency Collaboration in Nigeria" in Kenneth Omeje (ed), *State, Society Relations in Nigeria, Democratic Consolidation, Conflicts and Reforms*. London: Adonis and Abbey.
- Olandunni, E. B. (1999). "The Dimension of Poverty in Nigeria Spatial Sectional". In Genela et al (eds). *Poverty Alleviation in Nigeria*. October, 1 (23).
- Olaniyi, J. O. (1995). "Democratizing Public Policy Making Process in Nigeria". In Danmole, H. O. et al. *Contemporary Issues in Nigeria Affairs*. Ibadan: SUNAD Publishers Ltd.
- Olateju, O. I., Alaka, N. S. and Adeyemi, O. T. (2008). "Measuring the Distributional Impact of Public Health Spending on Poverty in Nigeria. In Folarin, et al (eds.) *Environment, Values and Policies in Nigeria*. Lagos: EBAN Publication.
- Omorogbe, S. K. (2005). "Community Development Associations as Agents of Rural Development: A Study of Edo State". *Ph.D Dissertation, Unpublished .Submitted to the Department of Sociology*. Ambrose Alli University, Ekpoma.

- Oruku, M. Oyedepo, K. D. and Onwe, O. J. (2010). "Policy Implementation and Evaluation". *Open University Course Guide*. Lagos: National Open University of Nigeria. [centralinfo&nou.edu.ng](http://centralinfo&nou.edu.ng).
- Oviasuyi K. (2010). "Model for Roles and Involvement of Local Communities in Development Projects and Programmes of Local Government Authorities in Nigeria". *Kamla-Raj: J Hum Ecol*, 31(2): 103-109.
- Owolabi, J. (2005). *Policy Making and Educational Policy Analysis*. Uganda: Makerere University Printery.
- Oye T. R. (1976). *Policy Analysis*. Alabama: United States of America.
- Oyemomi E. O. (2003). "An Assessment of Poverty Reduction Strategies in Nigeria (1983-2003)", Being a Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Award of the Ph.D. of St. Clement's University, September.
- Parry G. (1977). *Political Elites*. London: George Allen.
- Pfiffner, J. M. and Presthus, R. V. (1953). *Public Administration*. Michigan: Ronald Press Co.
- Pious R. M. (1975). "Sources of Domestic Policy Initiatives". In the proceedings of the *Academy of Political Science*, (321) 448-449.
- Plant, R.. (1987). *Managing Change and Making it Stick*. London: Fontana/Collins.
- Rahaman, O. (2007). "Millennium Development Goals and the Nigerian Youths". [www.searchwarp.com](http://www.searchwarp.com).
- Randel, G. H. (2010). "Policy Making and Implementation: The Issues in Nigeria". 28(174) 126-133.
- Roberts, C. and Edwards, A. (1991). *A Dictionary of Political Analysis*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Sachs, J. (2005). *The End of Poverty, How we can make it Happen in Our Lifetime*, London: Penguin Press.
- Sambo, A. (1999). "What is Public Policy?". In Anifowose, Remi and Francis Enemuo (eds.) *Elements of Politics*. Lagos: Malthouse Press Ltd.
- Sani, H. A. (2008). *Public Policy Analysis: Theoretical and Applied Approaches*. Okene: Desmond Tutu Publishers. Science. [http:// www.fags.org/periodicals](http://www.fags.org/periodicals).
- Sutton, R. (1999). "The Policy Process: An Overview". London: *Overseas Development Institute*, August. Working Paper 118.
- Telia, S.A. (1997). "A Schema for Monitoring Poverty Alleviation". in *Poverty Alleviation in Nigeria* in O. Teriba (ed.), *Nigeria*. Ibadan: *Nigerian Economic Society*.
- Ugoh, S. C. and Ukpere, W. I. (2009). "Appraising the Trend of Policy on Poverty Alleviation Programmes in Nigeria with Emphasis on a National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP)" *African Journal of Business Management* .December 3 (12),
- UNDP's Human Development Report (2011). UNDP, Choices: *The Human Development Magazine*. World Development Report.

- Uniamikogbo, S.O. (1997). Poverty Alleviation Under Nigeria's SAP: A policy Framework, in O Teriba (ed.) in *Poverty Alleviation in Nigeria*, Ibadan: Nigerian Economic Society.
- United Nations Development Programme (2009). *Human Development Report Nigeria*. 2008- 2009. Abuja: UNDP Publication.
- Walker, J. L. (1969). Diffusion of Innovations among American States. *American Political Science Review*” September, (63) 880-889.
- Webster’s New Explorer Encyclopedic Dictionary, 2006.
- Yakubu, O. D. and Aderonmu J. A. (2010). “Rural Poverty Alleviation and Democracy in Nigeria’s Fourth Republic (1999 – 2009)”. *Current Research Journal of Social Sciences*. New York: Maxwell Scientific Organization, 2(3) 191.
- Young, J. and Enrique, M. (2009). “Helping Researchers Become Policy Entrepreneurs”. London: *Development Institute*, September.
- Zupi M (2007). “The Multi-D-Dimensions of Poverty: Some Conceptual and Policy Challenges”, *Social International Development*, 50 (2).

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHOD**

#### **3.1. Study Design**

This study is descriptive and it is both qualitative and quantitative. It is designed to collect and analyze data for the purpose of describing and evaluating current or prevailing practices and the inferential tool was used to test the hypotheses.

The study adopts correlation research design which is often used for investigating issues that relate to a large and heterogeneous population. It is easy to measure and for which independent and dependent variables are suggested by theory and or empirical evidence from previous study (Ahonsi and Soyombo, 1996). It is also used to determine whether a relationship exists or to what extent a relationship exists between two or more variables. The major aim was to estimate the degree of relationship between the variables under review and not necessarily to determine a cause/effect relationship. It is based on cross tabular analysis and driven by the expectation that similarities and differences between the units would help in explaining the determinate of the phenomenon being investigated (Nwanna, 2009).

The correlation design is particularly used in this study to demonstrate co-variation between the dependent and independent variable through the application of cross- tabulation, chi-square to test the hypothesis.

#### **3.2. The Study Location**

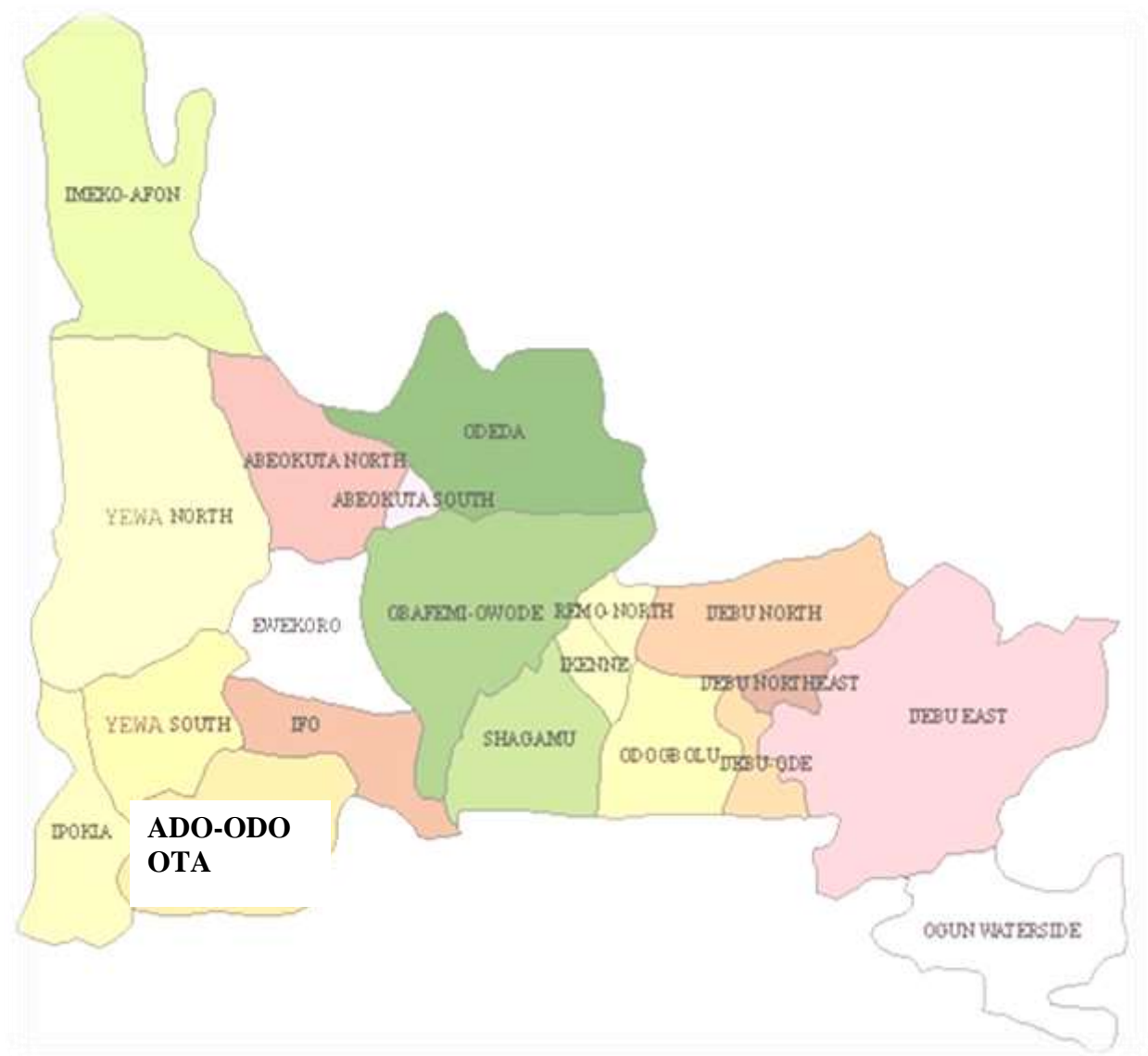
The study was conducted in Ado-Odo Ota Local Government Areas in Ogun State, Nigeria. An overview of Ogun State and Ado-Odo Ota Local government is presented below.

### **3.2.1. Ogun State**

Ogun State is a state in South-Western Nigeria. It borders Lagos State to the South, Oyo and Osun states to the North, Ondo State to the east and the Republic of Benin to the West. The common major food crops in this area include rice, maize, cassava, yam and banana. The main cash crops are cocoa, kolanut, rubber, palm oil and palm kernels. Ogun State is one of the largest producers of kolanut in the country. It also produces timber and rubber on a large scale. About 20% of its total area consists of forest reserve suitable for livestock.

Mineral resources available in Ogun State include chalk, phosphate, high quality stones and gravels for construction works. The State is made up of six ethnic groups viz, the Egba, the Ijebu, the Remo, the Egbado, the Awori and the Egun. Other tribes who are non indigenes also formed a reasonable percentage of the population like: the Igbo, Hausa, Edo, Ijaw, Ilaje etc. The language of the majority of the people of Ogun State is Yoruba and English. The state has 21 local government areas. They are: Abeokuta North, Abeokuta South, Ado-Odo/Ota, Egbado North, Egbado South, Ewekoro, Ifo, Ijebu East, Ijebu North, Ijebu North East, Ijebu Ode, Ikenne, Imeko-Afon, Ipokia, Obafemi-Owode, Ogun Waterside, Odeda, Odogbolu, Remo North, Shagamu.

**Figure 5: Map of Ogun State indicating the Local Government Areas**



### **3.2.2. Ado –Odo Ota Local Government**

Ado-Odo/Ota Local Government, a veritable industrial area in Ogun State with its headquarters at Ota, came into being in 1989 following demands for more local governments in the State. It is a product of the merger of the former Ifo/Ota local government and Ado-odo/Ota local government (Ado-Odo and Igbesa areas). It is a grade A local government and the third largest in Ogun State, The ethnic groups in the local government are: the Awori, the Egba, Yewas and the Eguns. The local government area is bounded by Lagos State in East and South, Yewa South and Ifo Local Governments in the North and Ipokia Local

Government in the West. The major towns are: Ota, Ilogbo, Atan, Alapoti, Ado-Odo, Ere, Igbesa, Ketu, Adie Owe, Agbara, Iju, Sango and Ijoko.

For development purposes, the people in Ado-Odo Ota local Government are organized into Area Community Development Committee (ACDC) and Community Development Associations (CDAs). The ADC consists of about 50 people coming together to form an association with the approval of the local government. 40 ADC coming together forms ACDC. In Ado-Odo Ota local government areas, there are 10 ACDC at the moment namely: Ota ACDC, Ajumoni-Ota ACDC, Itele-Awori ACDC, Agbara ACDC, Atan/ Iju ACDC, Sango ACDC, Igbesa ACDC, Ado Odo ACDC, Ilogbo ACDC, Ijoko ACDC.

Ado-Odo Ota Local Government is also a paradox. This is because with three universities, one polytechnic and many industries, the people in this area are still very poor. The 22 villages visited, lack basic infrastructure such as: light, good road, health centre, pipe borne water, etc. This goes a long way to show the level of poverty in Ado-Odo Ota rural areas. (See the delimitation of the study).

However, many nations have decentralized power to local government administration so that it can tackle the problem of rural poverty. With the devolution of powers by the various governments of nations in the world to local government, there has been not much impact in the rural areas by their development activities especially in the developing world like Nigeria. The people in the rural areas have become poorer. This has seriously contributed to the urban drift. The role of local government is inevitable at the local level, in that, it is the closest government with great impact to the people. (Ajulor, 2008) Most people relate with their local government than the central government. In local government, administration offices are decentralized and located close to the people. The decision makers are usually the local citizens who are known to the people. They can easily seek redress against governmental action. The local government understands the people better and is in the position to handle



their problems with dispatch. Essential is the fact that local government helps to decongest government at the centre, thereby, allowing the national government room to address national issues.

In Nigeria, the objectives of local government are stated in 1976 Reforms which were backed by the 1979, 1989 and 1999 Constitutions. The aim is to make local government as the harbinger of national socio-political and economic development and the hallmark of participatory democracy. As a result, local government was made the third tier of Nigerian federation with relative autonomy. This is also to enhance the service delivery capacity of the local government at the local level. (Awofeso, 2004)

However, local government administration in Nigeria has not been able to effectively deliver services to the people because the development responsibility of the local/rural areas given to local government is not matched with the provision of funds and resources to carry out its functions: other major problems are the interference by the state and the federal government in its activities and constitution's ambiguity which granted local government relative autonomy at the same time subject it to the control of the state. Nigerians have been crying foul for provision in the Constitution to grant local government relative autonomy. This is however yet to be granted..

### **3.3. Study Population, Sample Size, and Sampling Method**

The study population is Ado-Odo Ota rural communities. The total population of Ado-Odo local government areas was put at 526,565 in the 2006 population census figure. The study area was divided along the two State Constituencies in the local government – the Ota State Constituency and Ado State Constituency. Each of the two constituencies had more than 60 villages. Eleven villages were selected from each of the state constituencies for the study totaling 22 villages. The qualification for a village is the presence of village head called

‘Baale’. Samples of 10% of the population were selected from each of the 22 villages of agrarian rural communities’ type totaling 880 people. 10% was also selected from the Local Government Council secretariat staff and the staff of the NAPEP office at the Federal Secretariat respectively. The estimated population is 9600 while the sample size was 960 selected systematically using stratified sampling. The 960 copies of questionnaire were administered and 720 were retrieved and were used for the study.

Stratified sampling method was used for this study. Stratified sampling allows the researcher to divide the population into sub-groups on the basis of relevant characteristics possessed by members of the population. After the division into strata, the researcher proceeds to select equal members randomly or non-randomly within each stratum (Avwokeni, 2007). In the case of this research, 10% was taken from each sub-units amounting to every 10<sup>th</sup> person selected randomly from the study population as sample.

### **3.4. Data Collection**

There are two sources of data collection- (i) the primary source and (ii) secondary source

- (i) The primary source makes use of questionnaire with focus on collecting and analyzing data on National Poverty Eradication Programme in Nigeria. Key Informant Interview was also conducted.
- (ii) The secondary data were collected from the library and internet sources which include books, journals, newspaper articles and government publications from National Poverty Eradication Programme office, Abuja.

### **3.5. Administration of Questionnaire**

The questionnaire was constructed in two sections (A and B). Section A requested for the respondent’s personal data while Section B solicited for respondents’ opinion on the subject

matter. Options of response to the questionnaires were made up of five scales (Likert scale) as stated below:

SA- Strongly Agree

A- Agree

UN- Undecided

D- Disagree

SD- strongly disagree

The respondents were expected to rate the questions in the questionnaire according to the extent to which they agree or disagree with the underlying attributes being measured. The questionnaire was personally administered by the researcher with the assistance of three other research assistants to the respondents. This allowed them to explain the contents of the questionnaire to them and how to correctly fill the questionnaire objectively and without fear of victimization as they were assured of confidentiality. The researcher and his assistants also interpreted some of the questions in local language of the research population who were of Yoruba origin. 960 Copies of the questionnaire were distributed among 22 communities in Ado Odo Ota Local Government, Local government secretariat, Ota, and the NAPEP office at the Federal Secretariat, Ogun state. Only 720 copies were used for the analysis.

Key informant interviews were also conducted with 1 representative of Ado-Odo Ota local government on community development in her office at the Ado-Odo Ota local government council and one NAPEP official at the NAPEP office at Federal Secretariat, Ogun State. The key Informant Interview was particularly used to elicit information on the impact of NAPEP on rural poverty in Nigeria, the constraints faced by NAPEP officials in relations to tackling rural poverty in Ado-Odo Ota Local Government and the level of participation of the target population in NAPEP.

### **3.6. Validity and Reliability of Instrument of Data Collection**

Conceptually, validity implies the degree to which a good research instrument measures what it has been designed to measure while reliability is the degree to which a research instrument produces consistent results (Osuagwu, 2006). For the purpose of this study, the data collection instrument was tested, using content validity test. A pilot study was carried out to test the reliability of the data collection instrument.

### **3.7. Pilot study**

Pilot study was conducted to pre-test the study. The pre-test exercise was administered within an interval of five days on five participating communities who were purposively taken from the population. The aim of the pilot test is to improve on the quality of the questionnaire.

### **3.8. Method of Data Presentation and Analysis**

The data collected through the questionnaire were computer-processed using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS). A non parametric chi-square was used to test the hypotheses. The decision rule for the analysis of variance includes: Reject null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ) if the calculated F value is greater than the F critical value at 5% level of significance and accept the alternative hypothesis ( $H_i$ ) if otherwise. The findings of the qualitative study were used to validate those emerging through the quantitative analysis. It was on the basis of these that the conclusions were drawn.

## REFERENCES

- Ahonsi, B. and Soyombo, O. (1996). *Readings in Social Research Methods and Applications*. Ibadan: Caltop Publications (Nigeria) Ltd.
- Ajolor, O. V. (2008). "Local Government Administration and Rural Poverty in Nigeria". In *International Review of Politics and Development*, Ilisan-Remo: Department of Political Science, Babcock University, Nigeria Special Issues, (6) 1-15.
- Avwoke, J. A. (2009). *Practical Research Methodology: Design, Analysis & Reporting*. Lagos: Jovila Publishing.
- Awofeso, O. (2004). *Issues in Local Government Administration in Nigeria*. Lagos: Lisjohnson Resources publishers.
- Nwanna, C. R. (2009) "Socio-Economic Status and Discrimination against People Living with HIV/AIDS in Lagos State, Nigeria". A Thesis presented to the Department of Sociology, University of Lagos for the award of Ph. D Degree in Sociology, April.
- Osuagwu, (2006). *Business Research Methodology: Principles and Practice*. Lagos: Grey Resource Ltd.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS**

#### **4.1. Administration of Questionnaire in Ado-Odo Ota Rural Communities.**

The following people were considered for a wider coverage of various interests in the rural communities: rural women, youths, farmers, primary school teachers (it was not in all villages that there were primary schools), ‘Baale’ or his representative, members of Community Development Association (CDA) and the Area Community Development Committee. The Local Government Council and the staff of NAPEP stationed in Federal Secretariat, Ogun State. Copies of the questionnaire were distributed in all the villages and other places stated in the table 4 below:

The table 4 below represents the way the copies of the questionnaire were distributed. Please note that the population figures of the various villages were not available in the population census’ office and are not also available in official data of the state or local government. As a result of this, the study relied on the population figures of the various villages as were supplied by the various village heads and the leaders of the Community Development Associations in these villages. However, the population figure of the local government staff was obtained from the records of the local government council in Ota which include both the senior and junior staff. The record of the NAPEP staff in Federal Secretariat, Ogun State was also was obtained from the NAPEP’s administrative office located in the Secretariat. The CDA population figure was supplied by the representative of the CDA in the locality. All these are as shown in the table 4 below:

**Table 4: Distributions of Questionnaire in Research Locations**

S/No.	Rural communities, Local Govt. Council &NAPEP's Officials.	Estimated Population	Sample	Number of questionnaires distributed	Number of questionnaires returned
1	Erintedo	350	35	35	31
2	Ishagatedo	400	40	40	34
3	Ilori	450	45	45	25
4	Ilasa	300	30	30	29
5	Osuke	500	50	50	34
6	Abule Imota	500	50	50	33
7	Ewutagbe	350	35	35	28
8	Igbo-Odo	400	40	40	27
9	Ejila- Awori	600	60	35	26
10	Ipatira	350	35	60	32
11	Ajibowo-Ota	400	40	40	27
12	Oke- Ore	300	30	30	26
13	Owode- Yewa	400	40	40	32
14	Olaoparun	400	40	40	33
15	Iloro- Ado-Odo	300	30	30	28
16	Idi- Ota	350	35	35	29
17	Aromokala	450	45	45	31
18	Ijomu	300	30	30	30
19	Ibiri	500	50	50	32
20	Ajagboju	350	35	35	33
21	Ejigbo	450	45	45	32
22	Ere	500	50	50	26
24	CDAs' Members	150	15	15	10
23	Local Govt. Council, Ota.	500	50	50	35
24	NAPEP's Officials at Federal Secretariat, Ogun State.	50	10	10	7
	Total	9,600	960	960	720

**Source:** Field Survey, May – September, 2011.

Note: The estimated population is as obtained from the village heads and the Community Development Associations of each village which was collaborated by the Department of Community Development in Ado-Odo Ota Local Government Council in Ota. See the Map of Ado-Odo Ota Local Government in Appendix IX indicating the villages.

#### 4.2.Presentation and Analysis of Data

Eighteen questions were designed based on the 4 research questions and were computer-processed using SPSS. Two questions each were used for cross tabulation in the test of the hypotheses. The results are presented below:

##### SECTION A

**Table 5: Statistics of Bio Data**

		Sex	Age Group	Marital Status	Number of Children	Educational Qualification	Occupational Status
N	Valid	720	720	720	720	720	720
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		1.4000	2.0667	1.9333	1.7167	2.3500	1.9833
Std. Deviation		.49403	.82064	.25155	1.05913	1.11728	.46910

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

The above shows at a glance the bio information 720 respondents.

**Table 6: Sex of Respondent**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	442	60.0	60.0	60.0
	Female	278	40.0	40.0	100.0
	Total	720	100.0	100.0	

(Source: Field Survey, 2011).

The above data show that there are 442 male and 278 female representing 60% and 40% of the total 720 respondents respectively.



**Table 7: Age Group of Respondent**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	25-35	216	30.0	30.0	30.0
	36-50	240	33.3	33.3	63.3
	above 50	264	36.7	36.7	100.0
	Total	720	100.0	100.0	

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

The above data show that 264 representing 36.7% are of the age range of 50 and above, while 240 representing 33.3% are between 36 and 50. The other 216 representing 30% are between 25 and 35.

**Table 8: Marital Status of Respondent**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Single	48	6.7	6.7	6.7
	Married	672	93.3	93.3	100.0
	Total	720	100.0	100.0	

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

The above data show that singles are 48 respondents accounted for 6.7% while married are 672 respondents accounting for 93.3% meaning that most of the respondents are married and mature people capable of giving accurate information on the subject matter.

**Table 9: Number of Children of Respondent**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1-4	384	53.3	53.3	53.3
5-8	252	35.0	35.0	88.3
8-12	36	5.0	5.0	93.3
None	48	6.7	6.7	100.0
Total	720	100.0	100.0	

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

The above data show that those respondents with children are 93.3% and those without children are 6.7%.

**Table 10: Educational Qualification of Respondent**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid No western education	204	28.3	28.3	28.3
Primary School	180	25.0	25.0	53.3
Secondary School	252	35.0	35.0	88.3
OND\NCE	48	6.7	6.7	95.0
B.Sc	36	5.0	5.0	100.0
Total	720	100.0	100.0	

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

The above data show that percentage of majority of the respondents who have no formal education up to B.Sc. level is 95% while those with formal education from B.Sc. level and

above is 5%. It is, therefore, apparent that majority of the respondents are either semi-illiterate or illiterate.

**Table 11: Occupational Status of Respondent**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Employed	84	11.7	11.7	11.7
Self Employed	564	78.3	78.3	90.0
Unemployed	72	10.0	10.0	100.0
Total	720	100.0	100.0	

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

The above data show that self employed is 78.3% while 11.7% is gainfully employed and 10% is jobless.

## SECTION B

**Table 12: Poverty is inevitable in the rural area in Nigeria because the people are lazy**

### Statistics

N	Valid	720
	Missing	0
Mean		1.4500

(Source: Field Survey, 2011).

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	492	68.3	68.3	68.3
	Disagree	204	28.3	28.3	96.6
	Agree	12	1.7	1.7	98.3
	Strongly Agree	12	1.7	1.7	100.0
	Total	720	100.0	100.0	

(Source: Field Survey, 2011).

The above data show that 96.6% of the respondents disagreed while 3.4% agreed. This indicates that poverty is inevitable in the rural areas not because the people are lazy.

**Table 13: The rural people have been neglected by government's policies over the years.**

**: Statistics**

N	Valid	720
	Missing	0
Mean		4.5167

(Source: Field Survey, 2011).

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	36	5.0	5.0	5.0
	Disagree	12	1.7	1.7	6.7
	Agree	168	23.3	23.3	30.0
	Strongly agree	504	70.0	70.0	100.0
	Total	720	100.0	100.0	

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

The above data show that 6.7% disagreed while 73.3% agreed. This indicates that the rural people have been neglected by various governmental policies over the years.

**Table 14: Skill acquisition training programmes have been carried out by NAPEP's officials in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities.**

**Statistics**

N	Valid	86
	Missing	0
Mean		3.3140

(Source: Field Survey, 2011).

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	40	5.5	5.5	5.5
	Disagree	120	16.6	16.6	22.1
	Undecided	420	58.3	58.3	80.4
	Agree	72	10.0	10.0	90.4
	Strongly Agree	68	9.6	9.6	100.0
	Total	720	100.0	100.0	

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

The above data show that 22.1% disagreed, 19.6% agreed while 58.3% undecided. This indicates that the respondents are undecided as to whether skill acquisition and training programmes have been carried out in the rural areas.

**Table 15: “Keke” NAPEP are available in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities.**

**Statistics**

N	Valid	720
	Missing	0
Mean		3.2093

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	80	11.1	11.1	11.1
	Disagree	64	8.9	8.9	20.0
	Undecided	360	50.0	50.0	70.0
	Agree	124	17.2	17.2	87.2
	Strongly Agree	92	12.8	12.8	100.0
	Total	720	100.0	100.0	

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

The above data show that 20.0% disagreed, 30 agreed while 50.0% is undecided. It indicates that the respondents are undecided as to whether “Keke” NAPEP are available in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities.

**Table 16: Rural farmers in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities have been supported with seedling and fertilizers by NAPEP.**

**Statistics**

N	Valid	720
	Missing	0
Mean		4.1395

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	200	27.7	27.7	27.7
	Disagree	176	24.4	24.4	52.1
	Undecided	176	24.4	24.4	76.5
	Agree	168	23.5	23.5	100.0
	Total	720	100.0	100.0	

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

The above data show that 52.1% disagreed, 23.5% agreed while 24.4 is undecided. Based on this, the rural farmers have not been supported with seedling and fertilizers by NAPEP officials.



**Table 17: Infrastructure (such as roads, pipe borne water and electricity) has been provided by NAPEP in Ado-Odo Ota rural.**

**Statistics**

N	Valid	720
	Missing	0
Mean		4.0233

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	312	43.3	43.3	43.3
Disagree	220	30.6	30.6	73.9
Undecided	140	19.4	19.4	93.3
Agree	48	6.7	6.67	100.0
Total	720	100.0	100.0	

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

The above data show that 73.9% disagreed, 6.7% agreed while 19% is undecided. Based on this, Infrastructural facilities (such as roads, pipe borne water and electricity) have not been provided in the rural areas by NAPEP officials.

Table 18: Implementation of policies on poverty has impacted positively on the lives of Ado-Ota rural people.

Statistics

N	Valid	720
	Missing	0
Mean		1.7500

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	408	56.7	56.7	56.7
Disagree	228	31.7	31.7	88.3
Agree	24	3.3	3.3	91.7
Strongly Agree	60	8.3	8.3	100.0
Total	720	100.0	100.0	

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

The above data show that 88.4% disagreed while 11.6% agreed. It indicates that NAPEP has not impacted positively on the lives of the rural poor.

**Table 19: The representatives of the Ado-Odo Ota rural people were consulted in the formulation and implementation of NAPEP.**

**Statistics**

N	Valid	720
	Missing	0
Mean		1.9333

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	240	33.3	33.3	33.3
	Disagree	348	48.3	48.3	81.7
	Undecided	72	10.0	10.0	91.7
	Agree	60	8.3	8.3	100.0
	Total	720	100.0	100.0	

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

The above data indicate that 81.6% disagreed, 8.3% agreed while 10% is undecided. Based on this, it shows that the rural people are not involved in the decision making process of NAPEP.

**Table 20: NAPEP is being implemented as formulated in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities.**

Statistics

N	Valid	720
	Missing	0
Mean		3.1860

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	24	3.3	3.3	3.3
Disagree	32	4.4	4.4	7.7
Undecided	552	76.7	76.7	84.4
Agree	64	8.9	8.9	93.3
Strongly Agree	48	6.7	6.7	100.0
Total	720	100.0	100.0	

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

The above data show that 7.7% disagreed, 15.6% agreed while 76.7% undecided. Based on this, the respondents are undecided as to whether NAPEP is being implemented as formulated in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities.

**Table 21: NAPEP has been very effective in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities.**

**Statistics**

N	Valid	720
	Missing	0
Mean		2.5500

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	192	26.7	26.7	26.7
	Disagree	240	33.3	33.3	60.0
	Undecided	60	8.3	8.3	68.3
	Agree	156	21.7	21.7	90.0
	Strongly Agree	72	10.0	10.0	100.0
	Total	720	100.0	100.0	

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

The above data show that 60 disagreed, 31.7 agreed while 8.3 undecided. Based on this, the respondents disagreed that NAPEP has been very effective in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities.

**Table 22: There has been a clear performance indicator to evaluate the performance NAPEP in rural communities.**

**Statistics**

N	Valid	720
	Missing	0
Mean		2.1047

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	248	34.4	34.4	34.4
	Disagree	300	41.7	41.7	76.1
	Undecided	64	8.9	8.9	85.0
	Agree	64	8.9	8.9	93.9
	Strongly Agree	44	6.1	6.1	100.0
	Total	720	100.0	100.0	

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

The above data show that 76.1 disagreed, 15.0 agreed while 8.9 undecided. Based on this the respondents disagreed that there has been a clear performance indicator to evaluate the performance of NAPEP in rural communities.

**Table 23: There is high level of participation by the Ado-Odo Ota rural people in NAPEP's activities.**

**Statistics**

N	Valid	720
	Missing	0
Mean		1.5833

(Source: Field Survey, 2011).

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	348	48.3	48.3	48.3
Disagree	336	46.7	46.7	95.0
Undecided	24	3.3	3.3	98.3
Agree	12	1.7	1.7	100.0
Total	720	100.0	100.0	

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

The above data indicate that 95% disagreed, 1.7% agreed while 3.3% undecided. The respondents disagreed that there is a high level of participation by the Ado-Odo Ota rural people in NAPEP's activities.

**Table 24: The representatives of the Ado-Odo Ota rural people are part of NAPEP decision making.**

**Statistics**

N	Valid	720
	Missing	0
Mean		2.1047

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	248	34.4	34.4	34.4
Disagree	300	41.7	41.7	76.1
Undecided	64	8.9	8.9	85.0
Agree	64	8.9	8.9	93.9
Strongly Agree	44	6.1	6.1	100.0
Total	720	100.0	100.0	

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

The above data show that 76.1% disagreed 15.0% agreed while 8.9% undecided. Based on this, the respondents disagreed that the representatives of the Ado-Odo Ota rural people are part of NAPEP's decision making.



**Table 25: NAPEP's officials are accountable to the people.**

**Statistics**

N	Valid	720
	Missing	0
Mean		2.3140

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	240	33.3	33.3	33.3
	Disagree	200	27.8	27.8	61.1
	Undecided	92	12.8	12.8	73.9
	Agree	132	18.3	18.3	92.2
	Strongly Agree	56	7.8	7.8	100.0
	Total	720	100.0	100.0	

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

The above data show that 61.1% disagreed, 26.1% agreed while 12.8% undecided. Based on this, the respondents disagreed that NAPEP's officials are accountable to the people.

**Table 26: NAPEP has been used for political patronage.**

**Statistics**

N	Valid	720
	Missing	0
Mean		3.6744

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	59	5.8	5.8	5.8
	Disagree	53	15.1	15.1	20.9
	Undecided	100	11.6	11.6	32.6
	Agree	140	40.7	40.7	73.3
	Strongly Agree	368	26.7	26.7	100.0
	Total	720	100.0	100.0	

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

The data show that 20.9% disagreed, 67.4% agreed while 11.6% undecided. Based on this, the respondents agreed that NAPEP has been used for political patronage.

**Table 27: There have been no corruption and mismanagement of funds by NAPEP officials..**

**Statistics**

N	Valid	720
	Missing	0
Mean		1.5833

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	396	55.0	55.0	55.0
	Disagree	264	36.7	36.7	91.7
	Undecided	24	3.3	3.3	95.0
	Agree	36	5.0	5.0	100.0
	Total	720	100.0	100.0	

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

The above data show that 91.7% disagreed, 5.0% agreed while 3.3% undecided. Based on this, respondents disagreed that there have been no corruption and mismanagement of funds by NAPEP officials.

**Table 28: The people of Ado-Odo Ota rural communities have benefited from NAPEP's programmes.**

**Statistics**

N	Valid	720
	Missing	0
Mean		2.1047

(Source: Field Survey, 2011).

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	248	34.4	34.4	34.4
	Disagree	300	41.7	41.7	76.1
	Undecided	64	8.9	8.9	85.0
	Agree	64	8.9	8.9	93.9
	Strongly Agree	44	6.1	6.1	100.0
	Total	720	100.0	100.0	

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

The above data show that 76.1% disagreed, 15.0% agreed while 8.9% undecided. Based on this, the respondents disagreed that the people of Ado-Odo Ota rural communities have benefited from NAPEP's programmes.

**Table 29: NAPEP has been adequately promoted in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities.**

**Statistics**

N	Valid	720
	Missing	0
Mean		2.1047

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	248	34.4	34.4	34.4
	Disagree	300	41.7	41.7	76.1
	Undecided	64	8.9	8.9	85.0
	Agree	64	8.9	8.9	93.9
	Strongly Agree	44	6.1	6.1	100.0
	Total	720	100.0	100.0	

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

The above data show that 76.1% disagreed, 15.0% agreed while 8.9% undecided. Based on this, the respondents disagreed that NAPEP has been adequately promoted in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities.

## Hypotheses Testing

### Hypothesis 1

Ho: NAPEP has no effects on rural poverty reduction in Nigeria.

Hi: NAPEP has effects on rural poverty reduction in Nigeria.

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
The rural people have been neglected by government policies over the years * Implementation of policies on poverty has impacted positively in the lives of Ado-Ota rural people	720	100.0%	0	.0%	720	100.0%

(Source: Field Survey, 2011).

The rural people have been neglected by government policies over the years \*  
Implementation of policies on poverty has impacted positively in the lives of Ado-Ota rural people.

### Statistics

#### . Cross tabulation Count

		Implementation of policies on poverty has impacted positively in the lives of Ado-Ota rural people.					Total
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree	
The rural people have been neglected by government policies over the years	Strongly Disagree	24	12	12	24	12	124
	Disagree	0	36	0	84	36	156
	Undecided	0	36	12	24	24	192
	Agree	0	72	24	72	24	192
	Strongly Agree	36	12	12	0	132	192
Total		60	168	60	204	228	720

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	22.796 <sup>a</sup>	16	.008
Likelihood Ratio	38.374	16	.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.074	1	.300
No of Valid Cases	720		

a. 23 cells (92.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .58.

Conducting non-parametric chi-square test at 5% level of significance, it is found that  $\chi^2 = 22.796$  as the computed value is less than the  $\chi^{\text{tab}}$  (tabulated) value of 26.296. We accept the null hypothesis and reject the alternative hypothesis and conclude that NAPEP has no effects on rural poverty reduction in Nigeria.

### HYPOTHESIS 2

Ho: There are no constraints of effective implementation of NAPEP in the rural areas in Nigeria.

Hi: There are constraints of effective implementation of NAPEP in the rural areas in Nigeria.

### Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
NAPEP is being implemented as formulated in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities * NAPEP has been very effective in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities.	720	100.0%	0	.0%	720	100.0%

(Source: Field Survey, 2011).

Cross tabulation- NAPEP is being implemented as formulated in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities \* NAPEP has been very effective in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities

Cross tabulation Count

		NAPEP has been very effective in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities.					Total
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree	
NAPEP is being implemented as formulated in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities	Strongly Disagree	0	0	0	0	3	3
	Disagree	0	0	12	0	0	3
	Agree	12	12	0	24	6	36
	Strongly Agree	12	12	108	51	54	138
Total		24	24	120	75	63	720

(Source: Field Survey, 2011).

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	24.682 <sup>a</sup>	12	.259
Likelihood Ratio	15.014	12	.241
Linear-by-Linear Association	.179	1	.672
N of Valid Cases	720		

a. 16 cells (80.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .03.

Conducting non-parametric chi-square test at 5% level of significance, it is found that  $\chi^2 = 24.682$  as the computed value is greater than the  $\chi^{\text{tab}}$  (tabulated) value of 21.026. We accept the alternative hypothesis and reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there are constraints of effective implementation of NAPEP in the rural areas in Nigeria.



### HYPOTHESIS 3

Ho: There is no participation of rural communities in the implementation of NAPEP.

Hi: There is participation of rural communities in the implementation of NAPEP.

#### Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
There is high level of participation by the rural people in NAPEP * The rural people are involved	720	100.0%	0	.0%	720	100.0%

There is a high level of participation by the rural people in NAPEP \* The rural people are involved in the decision making of NAPEP.

#### Count

		The rural people are involved				Total
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	
There is high level of participation by the rural people in NAPEP	Strongly Disagree	228	84	24	12	348
	Disagree	12	264	36	24	336
	Undecided	0	0	12	12	24
	Agree	0	0	0	12	12
Total		240	348	72	60	720

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	19.679 <sup>a</sup>	9	.000
Likelihood Ratio	41.188	9	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.209	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	720		

a. 12 cells (75.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .08.

Conducting Non-parametric chi square test at 5% level of significance, it is found that  $\chi^2 = 19.679$  as the computed value less than the  $\chi^{\text{tab}}$  (tabulated) value of 46.433 19.679. We accept the null hypothesis and reject the alternative hypothesis and conclude that there is no participation of rural communities in NAPEP.

### HYPOTHESIS 4

Ho: NAPEP has not been implemented to achieve its objective as formulated.

Hi: NAPEP has been implemented to achieve its objective as Formulated

### Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
NAPEP is adequately promoted and the implementer held accountable * There has been transparency in the activities of NAPEP	720	100.0%	0	.0%	720	100.0%

(Source: Field Survey, 2011).

NAPEP has been adequately promoted and the implementer held accountable \* There has been transparency in the activities of NAPEP

**Cross tabulation  
Count**

		NAPEP is adequately promoted and the implementer held accountable					Total
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree	
There had been transparency in the activities of NAPEP	Strongly Disagree	11	20	10	10	24	124
	Disagree	35	2	2	38	48	156
	Undecided	35	0	12	22	24	192
	Agree	71	2	23	26	72	192
	Strongly Agree	16	36	13	132	0	192
Total		168	60	60	228	204	720

(Source: Field Survey, 2011).

### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	29.45 <sup>a</sup>	16	.007
Likelihood Ratio	32.953	16	.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.067	1	.290
N of Valid Cases	720		

a. 23 cells (92.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .58.

Conducting non-parametric chi square test at 5% level of significance, it is found that  $\chi^2 =$

**29.45** as the computed value is greater than the  $\chi^{\text{tab}}$  (tabulated) value of **26.296** We accept the alternative hypothesis and reject the null hypothesis and conclude that NAPEP has not been implemented to achieve its objective as formulated.

#### 4.3. Summary of Results

##### **Research question 1: What are the effects of NAPEP on rural poverty reduction in Nigeria?**

The summary of Tables 12-18 are as follow:

Table 12 is based on whether poverty is inevitable in the rural areas because the people are lazy. The result shows that poverty is inevitable in the rural areas not because the people are lazy.

Table 13 is based on whether the rural people have been neglected by various governmental policies over the years. The result shows that 6.7% disagreed while 73.3% agreed. This shows that the rural people have been neglected by various governmental policies over the years.

Table 14 is based on whether skill acquisition and training programme have been carried out in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities. The result indicates that 22.15% disagreed, 19.6% agreed while 58.3% undecided. This shows that the respondents are undecided as to whether skill acquisition and training programmes have been carried out in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities.

Table 15 is based on whether 'Keke' NAPEP are available in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities. The data show that 20.0% disagreed, 30 agreed while 50.0% is undecided. It shows that the respondents are undecided as to whether "Keke" NAPEP are available to in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities.

Table 16 is based on whether the Ado-Odo Ota rural farmers have been supported with seedlings and fertilizers by NAPEP's officials. The data show that 52% disagreed; .23.5% agreed while 24.4 is undecided. Based on this, the Ado-Odo Ota rural farmers have not been supported with seedling and fertilizers by NAPEP officials.

Table 17 is based on whether infrastructure (such as roads, pipe borne water, and electricity) has been provided in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities. The data show that 73.9% disagreed, 6.7% agreed while 19% is undecided. Based on this, infrastructure (such as roads, pipe borne water and electricity) has not been provided in the rural areas by NAPEP officials.

Table 18 is based on whether NAPEP has impacted positively on Ado-Odo Ota rural communities. The data show that 88.4% disagreed while 11.6% agreed. It indicates that NAPEP has not impacted positively on the lives of the Ado-Odo Ota rural poor.

Total: Disagreed = 358.85/700, Agreed = 161.1/700, Undecided = 151.7/700

The non-parametric chi-square test at 5% level of significance as conducted above on Hypothesis 1 found that  $\chi^2 = 22.796$  as the computed value is less than the  $\chi^{\text{tab}}$  (tabulated) value of 26.296 and concluded that NAPEP has no effect on rural poverty in Nigeria.

The above results from both research question 1 and hypothesis 1 indicate that NAPEP has no effect on rural poverty in Nigeria.

## **Research question 2: What are the constraints of effective implementation of NAPEP in the rural areas in Nigeria?**

Tables 22, 25, 26 & 27 are summarized thus:

Table 22 is based on whether there has been clear performance indicator to evaluate the performance of NAPEP in the rural areas, the data show that 76.1% disagreed, 15.0% agreed while 8.9% undecided. Based on this, the respondents disagreed that there has been no clear performance indicator to evaluate the performance of NAPEP in the rural communities.

Table 25 is based on whether NAPEP's officials are accountable to the people. The data show that 61.1% disagreed and 26.1% agreed while 12.8% undecided. Based on this, the respondents disagreed that NAPEP's officials are accountable to the people.

Table 26 is based on whether NAPEP has been used for political patronage. The results shows that 20.9% disagreed, 67.4% agreed while 11.6% undecided. Based on this, the respondents agreed that NAPEP has been used for political patronage.

Table 27 is based on whether there have been no corruption and mismanagement of funds by NAPEP's officials. The data show that 91.7% disagreed, 5.0% agreed while 3.3% undecided. Based on this, respondents disagreed that there have been no corruption and mismanagement of funds by NAPEP officials.

Total: Disagreed = 249.6/400, Agreed = 113.5/400, Undecided = 36.6/400

The non-parametric chi-square test at 5% level of significance that was conducted on hypothesis 2 above indicates that  $\chi^2 = 24.682$  as the computed value is greater than the  $\chi^{\text{tab}}$  (tabulated) value of 21.026 and concluded that there are constraints of effective implementation of NAPEP in the rural areas in Nigeria.

The results of both the research question 2 and hypothesis 2 show that there have been constraints of effective implementation of NAPEP in rural areas in Nigeria.

### **Question 3: To what extent is the rural communities' participation in NAPEP in Nigeria?**

Tables 19, 23, 24 are summarized as:

Table 19 is based on whether the Ado-Odo Ota rural communities were consulted in the formulation and the implementation of NAPEP. The data show that 81.6% disagreed, 8.3% agreed while 10% is undecided. Based on this, it showed that the representatives of the Ado-Odo Ota rural people were not consulted in the formulation and implementation of NAPEP

Table 23 is based on whether there is high level of participation by Ado-Odo Ota rural people in NAPEP's activities. The data show that 95% disagreed, 1.7% agreed while 3.3%

undecided. The respondents disagreed that there is high level of participation by the Ado-Odo Ota rural people in NAPEP's activities.

Table 24 is based on whether Ado-Odo Ota rural people are part of NAPEP decision making. The data show that 76.1% disagreed 15.0% agreed while 8.9% undecided. Based on this, the respondents disagreed that the representatives of the Ado-Odo Ota rural people are part of NAPEP's decision making.

Total: Disagreed = 252.7, Agreed = 25, Undecided = 22.2

The non-parametric chi square test at 5% level of significance that was conducted above found that  $\chi^2 = 19.679$  as the computed value less than the  $\chi^{\text{tab}}$  (tabulated) value of 46.433 19.679 and concluded that there have been no participation of rural communities in NAPEP in Nigeria.

The results of both the research question 3 and hypothesis 3 show that there has been no rural communities' participation in NAPEP in Nigeria.

#### **Question 4: How has NAPEP been implemented to achieve its objectives as formulated?**

Table 20, 21, 28, 29 are summarized as follow:

Table 20 is based on whether NAPEP is being implemented as formulated in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities. The data show that 7.7% disagreed, 15.6% agreed while 76.7% undecided. Based on this, the respondents are undecided as to whether NAPEP is being implemented as formulated in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities.

Table 21 is based on whether NAPEP has been very effective in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities. The data show that 60% disagreed and 31.7% agreed while 8.3% undecided. Based on this, the respondents disagreed that NAPEP has been very effective in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities.

Table 28 is based on whether Ado-Odo Ota rural communities have benefited from NAPEP's programmes. The data show that 61.1% disagreed, 26.1% agreed while 12.8% undecided.

Based on this the respondents disagreed that the people of Ado-Odo Ota rural communities have benefited from NAPEP's programmes.

Table 29 is based on whether NAPEP has been adequately promoted in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities. The data show that 76.1% disagreed 15.0% agreed while 8.9% undecided. Based on this, the respondents disagreed that NAPEP has been adequately promoted in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities.

Total: Disagreed = 204.9, Agreed = 88.4, Undecided = 106.7

The non-parametric chi square test at 5% level of significance conducted found that  $\chi^2 = 29.45$  as the computed value is greater than the  $\chi^{\text{tab}}$  (tabulated) value of **26.296** and concluded that NAPEP has not been implemented to achieve its objective as formulated.

The results of both research question 4 and hypothesis 4 show that NAPEP has not been implemented to achieve its objective as formulated.



## CHAPTER FIVE

### DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

#### 5.1.1. The Effect of NAPEP on Rural Poverty Reduction in Nigeria

The study reveals that implementation of NAPEP has not impacted in the lives of Ado-Odo Ota rural people. This has also been confirmed in the review of literature that the implementation of the various policies on poverty including NAPEP has not been able to reduce poverty level in Nigeria especially in the rural areas. For example, as at 1999, the UNDP/HDI data put Nigeria's worse poverty condition level at 0.416. This led to the establishment of NAPEP in 2001 in order to eradicate absolute poverty by the year 2010. The UNDP/HDI 2010 data on poverty put Nigeria at of 0.459. This shows clearly that the poverty situation in Nigeria has deteriorated after many years of NAPEP's implementation.

However, this study discovers that some programmes were actually carried out by NAPEP as intervention programmes while some were done in collaboration with the state governments, FCT, FBOs and NGOs. There was no trace of where programmes were carried out in collaboration with local government as set in NAPEP's objectives. Some local governments actually benefited from the programmes. The study further reveals that most of the programmes were carried out in the urban centres with the total neglect of the rural areas.

**YES Programmes-** This includes Capacity Acquisition Programme (CAP). This programme was designed to enable participants, notwithstanding their different levels of formal education, acquire skills, vocational capabilities and performance enhancing attributes on their chosen areas of engagement. These programmes include training apprenticeship, investment inducement seminars. The concept of CAP is to recruit, retrain, and redeploy the creative capacities of youths so that they can play more productive and self-fulfilling roles in

the emerging economic and political dispensation while the agency takes responsibility for the upkeep of participants while in training.

In Ado Odo Ota Local Government, there are evidences that between 2002 and 2003, some youth were trained with a monthly allowance of three thousand five hundred naira (N3, 500), the same for the trainers. The participants were also settled with relevant tools and machineries to continue in their various chosen trades and vocations. Members of CDAs alleged that only few party loyal members within the local government were trained during the period. However the study shows that there was no skill acquisition training or any other training programme carried out in the 22 rural communities selected for this study.

**The Mandatory Attachment Programme (MAP)** - MAP is an intervention initiative under the Youth Empowerment Scheme (YES) designed to attach graduates who have completed their mandatory National Youth Service Corps (NYSC) yet to secure full time employment. Even after having undergone NAPEP's Capacity building/ training courses to organizations to provide them with the job training and expose them to skills in their fields of specialization, Federal Government through NAPEP pay the graduates the sum of ten thousand naira (#10,000) only monthly. This payment only lasted between 2002 and 2003. The study shows that this programme neither affects the people of Ado-Odo Ota rural Communities nor do they participate in the programme. However, the voice interview with the CDAs' members through this study explained that some PDP loyalist members were trained during the period and the programme could not make much impact in reducing poverty in the local government.

**Keke NAPEP-** In the first phase, 2000 tricycles were distributed nationwide in 2002, the amount given to Ogun State were not specifically stated. But in the second phase, there was evidence that the Ogun State collected 135 units of tricycles (see the appendix IV). The study further confirms that the tricycle were distributed to the lucky few who were party loyalists

in Ado-Odo Ota Local Government but the rural communities did not benefit from the programme.

**Farmers Empowerment Programme-** This was carried out under RIDs programme and was designed to improve the lives and well being of farmers by creating opportunities for them to have access to loans, farmlands and other farming implements. NAPEP also partners with Agricultural Development Project (ADP) to provide technical knowledge to the farmers. The programme is also aimed at accelerating the attainment of the MDGs (Millennium Development Goals by 2015). From this study, there is no indication that this programme was carried out in Ado Odo Ota local Government or its rural communities.

**Promise Keeper Programme (PKP)-** The Promise Keeper Programme (PKP) is a NAPEP micro credit based intervention scheme undertaken in close collaboration with faith-based organizations (FBOS). It is aimed at assisting the poor to access a larger pool of funds for economic empowerment in line with the National Economic Empowerment and Development strategy (NEEDS) of the federal government. PKP enables poor members of religious bodies like churches and mosques to access micro credit from the pool of funds so created and to undertake viable economic activities. Under this programme, NAPEP provides Matching Funds (MF) for a certain sum set aside by FBO's for economic advancement of indigent members in their respective fields. They are expected to pay back after two (2) years.

There was evidence that 591 FBOs including 335 Churches and 256 Mosques participated in PKP across Nigeria (see the appendix V). However, this study shows that there was no evidence that such loan was given in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities in either the churches or the mosques.

**Village Economic Development Solution (VEDS) - Village Economic Development Solutions or Village Solution** is a Local Community-driven Development Programme where

villages are guided in their community economic development efforts that involve modernizing their villages and promoting income generating activities through 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 into a bottom- up approach to communities' development where villages organize themselves into community development groups, with the government providing technical expertise and an enabling environment. How does it work? Community/Village identifies an economic project as an anchor activity or validates a cooperatives' application to start an anchor economic project in the community. This is a good programme well formulated that would have positively affected the lives of the people in the villages. It is unfortunate that it is not well implemented. The programme is not popular in Ado-Odo Ota local government and no evidence of this programme in the 22 rural areas investigated by this study. The study shows that the programme was not carried out in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities.

Conditional Cash Transfer (CCT) under Care of the people (COPE). Conditional cash transfer (CCT) otherwise known as COPE "in Care of the People" was developed by NAPEP and targeted at individuals or households who have children of school age to enable them take care of their needs in school and also utilize base public health facilities, poor female headed households, poor aged headed households, physically challenged persons and households, headed by special groups (victims of Vesicle Vagina Fistula (VVF), and People living with HIV and AIDS (PLWHAS). There is no evidence of this in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities and the study shows that the people did not benefit from the programme.

SOWESS which is aimed at ensuring the provision of basic social services including quality primary and special education, strengthening the economic power of farmers, providing primary health care, and so on. The scheme consists of four broad subcategories, which are

the Qualitative Education Programme, Primary Health Care Programme, Farmers Empowerment Programme and Social Services Programme.

The study particularly reveals that no programme under SOWESS was carried out in Ado-Odo Ota local government especially in the 22 rural communities selected for this study. There are no visible developmental projects in the communities. There is no electricity, no health centre, no access to drinkable water- the rural people still rely on rivers and other sources of water. There are no primary schools in the villages and where we saw one it was dilapidated with some of the building already collapsed.

Usman (2010) argues that the various poverty reduction programmes have not achieved their desired result because they are not products of development process, apart from the fact that most are either ill-prepared or ill-equipped. He contends further; a good example is NAPEP, which has no accurate record of the unemployed in Nigeria and yet was planning for how the populace will be gainfully employed. A good NAPEP plan presupposes identification of the numbers, locations and skill requirements; knowledge of the structure of industrial employment, job openings, job losses, as well as when and where they occur. Definitely, this will require near accurate and extensive data base, which can be obtained through a national baseline survey of industrial establishments”.

In a similar study that was carried out by Yakubu and Abbass (2009) titled, National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) and Poverty Alleviation in Rural Nigeria: A Case Study of Giwa Local Government Area of Kaduna State. It was discovered that there were no mobilization about NAPEP programmes in the localities of Giwa local government and as such the people do not have access or privilege to benefit from any of the programmes. The finding of the study further revealed that poverty alleviation programme with special reference to NAPEP did not make much impact in the Giwa local government especially the rural areas where we have the majority of poor people. This tends to prove that it is in all part

of Nigeria that rural people have been deliberately excluded from the various poverty alleviation policies over the years. Yakubu and Aderonmu (2010) contend that in spite of the various programmes put in place to address the perennial problem of grinding poverty in the country especially in the rural areas, there had not been substantial achievements at the local level.

### **5.1.2. The Constraints of NAPEP in the Rural Areas**

The study reveals that NAPEP has not been effective in Ado-Odo Ota rural areas. Therefore, there are constraints of effective implementation of NAPEP in the rural communities in Nigeria. These constraints include unrealistic goal setting and inadequate implementation planning; corruption and mismanagement of funds; political patronage; lack of good governance and lack of consideration of socio-political and economic environment.

**Unrealistic goal setting and Inadequate Implementation Planning-** There is no doubt that there are unrealistic goal setting and inadequate planning in NAPEP. Goal setting theory stipulates that specific and difficult goals lead to higher level of performance than do the generalized goals. This is based on the belief that harder goals tend to make people to think deeply on how to achieve them; thereby resulting in greater efficiency, which at the end will increase performance. However, goals should not be so difficult that they will be frustrating and discouraging in nature (Ijaduola, 2008).

Public policy making begins with the setting of realizable goals. The setting of goals will give direction and focus to the government on the one hand and the policy implementers on the other. However, when the goals are unrealistic, the policy will eventually fail at implementation stage. In most developing countries and Nigeria in particular, it has been discovered that unrealistic goals are set, which eventually lead to policy failure. A number of reasons for poor goal setting are pertinent to mention at this juncture:

- Failure of politicians to write and campaign on realistic programmes. For this reason, at the implementation stage, problem of how to satisfy every segment of the country emerges more so in a country of diverse language, religion and culture like Nigeria.
- Lack of or total absence of relevant information and data for adequate planning and forecasting.
- Trivialization or outright rejection of constructive criticism, particularly from the opposition party. Consequently, many errors that could have been avoided are set as goals by policy makers and government.
- The social environment of the policy makers which includes political culture and socio-economic conditions.

NAPEP's goals looked complicated and unrealistic from inception. Take for example, NAPEP was articulated not to solve the problem of poverty by itself but to monitor the state governments, ministries, parastatals and agencies involved in poverty reduction programmes. NAPEP is also to collaborate with NGOs, GBOs and FBOs. At the end of the day, NAPEP is to carry out intervention programmes when necessary. There are evidences that NAPEP did some collaborative programmes with the state governments, NGOs and FBOs in programmes like PKP, village solutions COPE, VEDS. (See appendix 1V, V, VI, VII). NAPEP set unrealistic targets for itself (see NAPEPs targets in the literature review and appendix III) it is not only that these targets were not met they were also unrealistic. NAPEP was to completely wipe out absolute poverty from Nigeria in 2010. This could not be achieved as absolute poverty level in Nigeria rose to 60.9% in 2010.

However, Ugoh, et' al (2009) argue that apart from its renting tricycles to young Nigerians for transport business in the urban and sub-urban areas, there have not been serious and identifiable efforts at empowering the beneficiaries with enduring skills. Also, there have not

been observable attempts at embarking on extensive farm settlements and elaborate agricultural programmes. As a result, it has lost focus and direction.

**Corruption-** Corruption and mismanagement of resources were obvious in the implementation of NAPEP. There have been abuse of office by NAPEP officials. It was discovered that NAPEP officials used their influence to approve for themselves directly or through their cronies funds which they used with no intention to repay. It is established that cases of funds approved for certain beneficiaries were diverted to different beneficiaries, thus making it impossible for such funds to be recovered. Unfit micro finance institutions engaged in loan disbursement. In many instances, incompetent, unqualified and even unregistered micro finance institutions (MFI) were engaged by NAPEP in the disbursement of funds to beneficiaries; in other cases, the micro finance institutions absconded with money. In another direction, some of the micro finance institutions became distressed with huge amount of NAPEP funds trapped (Adekoya, 2010) and (Lazarus, 2010).

Ogboru and Abimiku (2012) explain that corruption which has been seen as a way of life in Nigeria is largely responsible for the persistent poverty situation. Corruption invariably increases transaction costs, lowers efficiency and diverts available resources into private pockets/accounts by way of misallocation, misappropriation and distorts investment priorities. It weakens the state and its ability to promote development and social justice. Kaufaman (1999) asserts that corruption is entrenched and systemic in developing countries of the world. Given this phenomenon, therefore, in a corruption-entrenched society like Nigeria, citizens become very helpless because they have little or no practical alternatives for dealing with it. Like ignorance, corruption is a great enemy of development and eventually to efforts towards poverty reduction.

When government officials mismanage huge amount of resources meant for welfare and provision of infrastructure, the effect on the national economy is great. The result is great



regressive impact on the economy by way of worsening the living standard of the vast majority of the populace, thereby increasing the poverty incidence in the country. Ogboru and Abimilu (2012) contend that corruption has three basic debilitating effects on any economy where it is pervasive. First, it aggravates capital shortages problems in the economy by making less money available for developmental purposes. Second, it accentuates capital flight with political and other elites competing for private accumulation of public capital meant for welfare and developmental purposes which is often deposited in overseas banks where they are deemed to be safe. Such monies are therefore, unavailable for capital formation purposes and thirdly, it debases the value system of the society by placing emphasis on wealth accumulation, irrespective of the method and process, as an index of success.

Accordingly, the virtues of dignity, labour and hard work becomes relegated to the background. This results in the younger generation adopting “inappropriate” methods for attaining success in life (Ogboru, 2009). Corruption and poverty reduction are intimately related. When the common wealth is misappropriated by a few through corruptions, the resultant effect is the aggravation of the poverty level of the populace who become easily manipulated for political and other personal purposes of the leadership which all things being equal constitute a “denial” for poverty reduction efforts. This leads to a vicious circle of more corruption and worsening poverty, *ad infinitum*.

The striking effect of corruption on the Nigerian economy can be gleaned from the circumstances in which the country found itself in the last two decades. The fundamental issue about this menace according to Olayiwola (2001) rests on its effect on poverty reduction efforts in Nigeria. Corruption in Nigeria, like in other developing countries is so pervasive that it undermines the state, worsens the poverty level of the populace and hinders economic development. Specifically, its effects on poverty reduction efforts include:

- i. Rapid regression into deep poverty and deprivation in spite of the enormous amount of resources which have not only been at the disposal of the country but have been and are substantially spent on poverty reduction efforts.
- ii. A society that is gradually losing its social capital of trust, devotion to duty, and communal interdependence with consequences on the poor being total exclusion, powerlessness and hopelessness.
- iii. A polity in which no government which started out pursuing an anti-corruption agenda which is capable of restoring hope for the poor has been known to last and/or knows no peace or is somewhat, destabilized. While in contrast, others with demonstrable overt preference for the venal have tended to survive much longer and enjoyed relative peace. The fight against corruption must, therefore, be intensified and sustained in order to bring budget sums within realistic limits and further ensure that projects (particularly projects that are targeted at the poor) are appropriately and timely completed.

Ogboru and Abimiku (2012: 1) further explain: “Corruption has negatively affected the operations of poverty reduction efforts in the country. Corruption has not only robbed the nation of finances that should have been used for development that will benefit all citizens including the poor; but in some cases led to hijacking of funds meant for the poor by the privileged class thereby denying the poor the opportunity to grow out of poverty”.

**Inadequate Manpower-**The study reveals that there are inadequate personnel in NAPEP in terms of quantity and quality of staff. It is obvious that NAPEP does not have enough staff to cover its activities. NAPEP has only 1,000 staff (NAPEP, 2012). There is no single NAPEP staff in Ado-Odo Ota Local government. Yet NAPEP claimed that it maintained offices in 774 local governments in Nigeria, there is no such office in Ado-Odo Ota local government.

1,000 staff is definitely not enough to maintain offices in 774 local government, 36 states and FCT. As a result of shortage of staff, it has been impossible for the NAPEP to maintain office in the 774 local governments as stated in its objective in 2001. At present, there is no single NAPEP staff doing monitoring work on poverty eradication in Ado-Odo Ota local government.

**Political Patronage-** Lazarus (2010) explains that NAPEP funds were used for politicking as the monies were given out as succour to loyal party members with no plans for recovery. It was a clear case of politicized micro-financing. In fact, during the Key Informant Interview conducted at the local government council at Ota, the woman who is the Head of Communities Development Office of the local government council stated that the only one officer of NAPEP posted to the local government had left when the ACN party took charge of the local government as against the PDP government that was previously in power. This is a clear case of political patronage. It is also discovered that NAPEP was not rectified by the legislature it was an executive council arrangement to serve the ruling party. This has made it difficult for the legislature to carry out an oversight function on the programme.

The members of the CDAs of Ado-Odo Ota local government expressed dissatisfaction on the level of political patronage by the NAPEP. They explained that the few programmes that were carried out in the local government were done to favour party loyalists and no member of the opposition party benefited from the programmes. NAPEP is over-politicized and this renders it rather incapable of eradicating poverty in Nigeria. This is because its criteria for distribution of funds have been political such that beneficiary are mostly party loyalists.

**Lack of Good Governance** – The study reveals among others that NAPEP's officials are not accountable to the people. The representatives of the Ado-Odo Ota rural people were not consulted in the formulation and implementation of NAPEP, there has been zero level of participation by the Ado-Odo Ota rural people in NAPEP's activities and NAPEP has been

used for political patronage. All these show that effective implementation of NAPEP has been conditioned by bad governance. Khanya (2002) defines governance as exercise of economic, political and administrative authorities and ability to manage a country's affairs at all levels. It comprises the mechanisms, processes and institutions through which citizens and groups articulate their interests, exercise their obligations and mediate their differences” (UNDP). It is, thus, a broader concept than government. According to Nkum (2002), the challenges and compelling reality of good government in Africa entail the following:

- i. Multi-party democracy, with a well-informed and articulate civil society serving as a counterbalance to central and local administrations, is relatively new in many African countries,
- ii. The demand for accountability and transparency in the performance of central and local government structures is so weak that public officials and political leaders do not always feel sufficiently obliged, challenged or motivated to perform on their mandates, or even account to their constituencies. Allegiance and reporting seems more towards the centre than the local population,
- iii. Yet another compelling reality regarding the promotion of local governance and poverty reduction is how to deal with public concerns about the strong presence of central government at the local level through government-appointed functionaries and officials, and the difficulty of maintaining non-partisan development profiles under a partisan central administration and
- iv. The composition and *modus operandi* of national agencies promoting civic education, as well as those of the national association of local authorities have failed to earn these organizations the confidence and trust of the public as advocates of civil society. Ruling parties have always tended to harness these agencies for their partisan goals, thereby undermining their independence and effectiveness.

**Lack of consideration of socio-political environment** – One of the constraints militating against policy making and implementation in Nigeria identified in this study is the lack of consideration of socio-political economic environment before policies are packaged for implementation.

In Nigeria, policies are never repackaged to meet the need of the target beneficiary. Poverty programmes are not locally based. They are made and decided upon by experts in Abuja. They then sent to state and local governments to implement without looking at the peculiarity of the state and local government. (Hashim 2002) explains that after launching poverty reduction programme at Abuja with pomp and pageantry and with a federal perspective and then, going down to localities to implement such programme by setting up the institutions and replicating them at the state level does not really look at the local condition that caused poverty. He argues further that every state has its own peculiar problems. He gave the example of Jigawa State where the people are interested on how to solve problem of educational disadvantage and health problem and lack of gainful employment. This may not be the priority of Ekiti state that already has so many graduates and professors. At same time, it may not be the priority of the Bayelsa state which faced problem of oil exploration which have degraded their environment and impoverished the people. Hashim explains further that while Jigawa did not have many graduates to place on NAPEP's Mandatory Attachment Programme, Ekiti has more than enough. Therefore, this study is of the opinion that the socio- -political economic environment of a particular locality should determine the type of poverty reduction programme that will be carried out in the area. This is what NAPEP has failed to do. NAPEP programmes are the same everywhere and are being implemented the same way without considering the environment of different areas in Nigeria.

### **5.1.3. The Extent of Rural Communities' Participation in NAPEP**

The study reveals that Ado-Odo Ota rural communities were not involved in the decision making of NAPEP either at the level of policy formulation or implementation. Therefore, the level of participation by Ado-Odo Ota rural people in NAPEP has been very low if not at zero level. This confirmed that the rural populace which constitutes the majority of the Nigerian poor could not make input into the policy decisions that affect their lives. It is not surprising as this confirmed the authoritarian imposition and top-down nature of Nigerian policy making and implementation (Eze, 2003).

However, Oshita (2008) explains that the problem of poor policy implementation and non involvement of the target beneficiary in the policy making and implementation process in Nigeria dates back to the colonial period when the authorities set the agenda and formulated policies convenient to the objectives of the colonial administration. Policies were context-dependent and were creations of the colonial administration. Policies were imposed without the consideration of the interest of the colonial people and their environment. One of the conspicuous elements in the public policy environment under colonialism was therefore, the non-involvement of the locals whose lives the policies were to be affected.

At independence, the public policy processes in Nigeria continued to be top-down in conception, design, formulation, implementation and evaluation. The local elite that replaced the colonial officers continued with the paternalistic and known-it all approach to public policy making and undermined citizen participation as an essential part of the public policy development process. The years of military rule in Nigeria helped to legitimize this imposition of public policies and their civilian governments' counterpart in democratic dispensation did not do any better as they have not been able to democratize policy decisions even under the democratic regimes (Oshita, 2008).

Participation is the essence of modern democracy. It is important that the beneficiary of a particular policy be allowed to make input not only at the stage of the policy conception but also at the implementation. However, the dilemma of the rural communities is that they are often not enlightened to understand the prevailing democratic trends and this has given room for political elite and state actors to capitalize on their ignorance and poverty, thereby creating a condition in which rural communities become so vulnerable to manipulation, marginalization and general impoverishment in social-economic and political survival (Yakubu and Aderonmu, 2010).

Oviasuyi (2010) recognizes the fact that there is need to involve the target beneficiary in every stage of the policy implementation process to ensure transparency and accountability. He is of the opinion that a programme carried out with the consent of the target beneficiary will not be sabotaged. In Oviasuyi (2010)'s model of community participation in local government projects gave 10 excellent processes of early involvement of target population in the implementation process. These were reduced to five in this study and packaged into the policy analysis model of participation and change management. They entail: the identification of a particular target population in the rural community; organization of a partnership meeting between the programme implementers and the target population representatives on the people's needs and the resources available; the involvement of the target population in the process of awarding contract for the execution of the programme and the integration of the target population in the monitoring of the execution of the programme.

- i. The identification of a particular target population in the rural community- There is need for target beneficiaries of a particular programme to be properly identified for the purpose of policy formulation implementation. Tamilinson (2002) argues that:

Programmes which are designed by the central government have lacked membership at the community and local government levels which in turn

are needed for sustainability. And this sustainability needed for maintenance. For reasons, several programmes have languished, failed and disappeared. There is need to embark on different approach to poverty which starts by listening to poor people spending a lot of time listening to what poor people think they need for them to live lives above the poverty line and unlock economic potential of their community, their village and their society.

- ii. The organization of partnership meeting between the programme implementers and the target population representatives on the people's needs and the resources available- Partnering with rural communities by letting them know how much money is available in the execution of the programme, what will be the community contribution in terms of personnel and other resources. This will lead to effective implementation of the policy and programme and reduce poverty in the rural areas in Nigeria..
- iii. The involvement of the target population in the process of awarding contract for the execution of the programme- It is very necessary for the government to include the representatives of the local communities in the process of awarding contracts for the execution of projects/programmes in the localities. Oviasuyi explains that contracts should be as a matter of priority awarded to contractors who reside in the community (where possible) and the inhabitants of the community who are the target beneficiaries of the projects should be equipped with the details of the contract and contractor. This will have the following advantages: (1) The contractor cannot afford to perform below expectation, because he lives with the people, and (2) He performs well since he will eventually be one of the beneficiaries of the project or programme. (3) The people will know who the contractor is, and therefore, hold him responsible for project failure and the people may even go to the extent of compelling him to perform by attacking him and his family (4) The present level of class hatred and antagonism between the government and the people will be eliminated. In this kind of situation, the government will no longer need to go about with



instruments of oppression of the people, as there will now be mutual understanding and peaceful relationship between them and the people. People will also reciprocate this by remaining committed to the projects or programmes meant to improve their lives.

- iv. The integration of the target population in the monitoring of the execution of the programme- if the local communities are integrated into the monitoring of the programme, it becomes very difficult for the programme to be sabotage, there is no way the contractor will not do their job well if not they will be petitioned or protested against. It enables the people to claim ownership of the programme.
- v. The involvement of the target population in the evaluation of the programme- Policy evaluation is done twice in the policy process as seen in the policy analysis of participation and change management of theoretical framework in this study. Evaluation is first done at the formulation stage to determine the best policy option and at implementation stage for the impact assessment. In formulation of NAPEP, no policy option was formulation. But at the implementation there was impact assessment first in 2002 second in 2006 and in 2009.

These evaluations were done within the academic community, mass media, NGOs GBOs, epistemic communities etc. the traditional leaders, local communities association, women association, the youth association who are the beneficiary of the programme were not involved in the impact assessment. This cannot lead to a credible assessment since those who did the assessment are not poor people which the programme is targeted. Evaluation will allow executed projects/programmes to be compared with the basic needs of the people to ascertain if their needs are being met. You can see why it is necessary for the rural people to be involved in policy decision in form of collaboration and consultation. This will definitely improve the quality of policy making and implementation in Nigeria and make it relevant to the people.

Doing this in NAPEP should have led to excellent implementation of the programme but it was not done. The target beneficiaries, the majority who are in the rural areas were completely neglected. Mensah (1997) emphasizes the full participation of the rural people in the whole process of rural development as the condition for sustainable development. He says that participation should be coupled with democratization of the rural masses and transfer of powers to the grassroots level. Ihonvbere (1989) also supports this point when he noted that development is not really possible if it is not participatory. Ogbeide, (2007: 19) alludes to this when he argues that “consultations between the public officials and the citizenry in addition to public discussions and debates do provide the beginning stage for agenda-building in the public policy-making process”.

#### **5.1.4. Policy Formulation and Policy Implementation Dichotomy- The Implication of Implementation Gap in NAPEP**

The study shows that NAPEP has not been implemented as formulated. Therefore, there is implementation gap in the implementation of NAPEP. The consequences of the dichotomy between policy-making and implementation can be great on the performance of the policy. It makes policy maker to avoid responsibility since what is originally conceived is not what is being implemented. There are reasons why this change can occur.

First, the street level bureaucrats or field level workers may exercise considerable flexibility in implementing policy due to constraints on their time. Second, it may be as a result of bureaucratic procedures at the local level. Third, the shortage of resources or technicalities and other administrative bottleneck can be an obstacle. In many instances, it may be due to the socio-cultural condition of the target population. For example if the implementation of the policy will offend the culture or religion of the people the change may be necessary. The attitude of the bureaucrat also matter in determining the implementation of policy. For

example, the bureaucrat may deliberately frustrate a policy if the policy will affect their interest and their interest is not protected.

Some of the changes may be with good intention why some may be as a results of the selfish interest of the bureaucrat and technocrats whatever the case may be the dichotomy between policy making and implementation should be handle with care so that it will not defeat the original good intention of the policy. There should be a wider and better understanding of implementation factors and the processes linking policy goals to outcomes.

In the theoretical framework designed for this study, it recognized possibility for change in the policy making and implementation planning and when the change occurs there is need for Change Management. According to Crosby (1996), Change Management is an important area in management literature, and also arises in Political Science. He explains that in the process of repackaging the formulated policy into programme, there are bound to be changes. When these changes occur, there would be need for change management in order to avoid dichotomy between the policy making and policy implementation. Sutton (1999) recommends six things to be done to avoid the problem. First, avoid over organizing, second, communicate like never before, third, work at gaining commitment, fourth, turn perception of treat into opportunities, fifth, ensure early involvement, sixth, provide help to face up the change. When these are done, it helps to close the gap between the policy makers and implementers thus make both responsible for policy failure or success. The inability to do this in NAPEP contributed to its non performance and low participation.

When NAPEP was conceived, it was arranged into four programmes First, the Youth Empowerment Scheme (YES), which was concerned with providing unemployed youth opportunities in skills acquisition, employment and wealth generation. Second were the Rural Infrastructure Development Scheme (RIDS) to ensure that the provision and development of infrastructural needs in the areas of transport, energy, water and communication, quality

primary and special education, strengthening the economic power of farmers, providing primary health care especially in rural areas. The third was the Social Welfare Services Scheme (SOWESS) which aims at ensuring the provision of basic social services, quality primary and special education, strengthening the economic power of farmers and providing primary health care. The last was the Natural Resources Development and Conservation Scheme (NRDCS). The vision of this scheme was to bring about a participatory and sustainable development of agricultural, mineral and water resources (Elumilade, Asaolu and Adenreti, 2006).

The above covered the areas of employment, infrastructure, transportation, energy, water supply, primary health care, special education and the development of sustainable agriculture and mineral resources etc.

At the implementation, NAPEP has concentrated on the provision of tricycles ('Keke' NAPEP) and credit facilities in collaboration with some banks and loan giving has been conceived in the various forms like: Promise Keeper Programme (PKP), Development Champion Programme, The Village Solution Programme, Community Economic Sensitization (COMES) and Care Of The People programme (COPE). Most of these programmes contra the original intension of NAPEP. Most people are not aware of the changes in these programmes because of inability of NAPEP to properly manage the change through the application of change management as suggested in the policy analysis of participation and change management.

### Change Management

Avoid Over Organizing- The organization of NAPEP was so complex and confusing. It covers so many areas without focus. Its activities cover health, education, employment, water, energy, agriculture and infrastructure. NAPEP is to collaborate with all ministries,

parastatar, 36 states government, 774 local governments, Banks, Churches, Mosques, NGOs, GBOs and other international agencies and individuals. The coverage is so wide and looks unachievable. There was no cooperation of such from the ministries and local governments especially in the institutions that are controlled by opposition. They showed little interest. NAPEP office was not seen anywhere in the Ado-Odo local government. NAPEP was actually over organized without putting the implementation into consideration. This has been the problems and the bottlenecks facing it and this has been responsible for the confused state of the programme.

Communicate like never Before- NAPEP programmes can only been read through the internet, and the media. The target poor majority who are in the rural areas are not conversant of most of NAPEP activities. The voice interview with the leaders and some members of Community Development Associations (CDAs) and Area Community Development Committee in Ado-Odo Ota local government indicate that they are not aware of most of the programmes such as the PKP, VEDs and COPE except 'Keke NAPEP' and credits facilities from Microfinance banks which only the few ruling party affiliate benefited. Other programmes were not known to them. Therefore, the communication has been low. There had been gap between NAPEP and the teeming poor people in the rural areas and nothing has been done to ameliorate the situation and the rural people remained in the dark as far as NAPEP programmes are concerned.

Work at Gaining Commitment- NAPEP was to collaborate with ministries local governments State government, NGOs CBOs etc. the commitment of these bodies are necessary for the success of the programme. The levels of participation by the State and Local government and ministries have been very low. No commitment on the part of these bodies. Another areas where commitment is necessary for the success of the programme is in the area of the rural communities. They have been neglected and are not involved in the decision of the

programme so there is no commitment and there has been low participation by the rural people majority who are expected to benefit from the programme.

Turn Perception Threat into Opportunity- NAPEP could not perceive the threat and there is no way they could turn the threat to opportunity. There was no help too to face up the change. However, NAPEP was actually being implemented since January 2001, and initially established structures in the 36 states, the Federal Capital Territory, Abuja and the 774 local government Councils. Intervention programme were carried out such as: employment generation through 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. NAPEP has however concentrated more on a three-wheeler vehicle to the detriment of other more viable programmes that was initially formulated which should have touch the lives of Nigeria positively and reduce incident of poverty, (Elumilade et al, 2006).

Many programmes have been introduced which were not originally conceived when it was formulated, Programmes such as: Village Solution Programme; COPE, VEDS, etc These programmes were not known to the people especially rural areas as a result of lack of promotion of the programme and communication gap. The various interventions in poverty by NAPEP have been discovered by the senate probe committee on its activities as a sham. The deteriorating level of the lives of poor Nigerians and the decay in the rural areas after the operation of NAPEP for many years are also evidences of its failure to tackle the problem of poverty in Nigeria. Therefore there is little evidence to show that the various programmes of NAPEP trickled down to the rural areas.

## **5.2. Summary of Findings**

1. The study shows that implementation of NAPEP has not impacted positively on the lives of Ado-Odo Ota rural people. The level of poverty has further increased especially in the rural areas. Therefore Implementation of government policies has no effect on rural poverty reduction in Nigeria.
2. The study shows that NAPEP has not been effective in Ado-Odo Ota rural areas because of certain constraints such as: unrealistic goal setting, corruption and mismanagement of funds, inadequate personnel and political patronage.
3. The study shows that Ado-Odo Ota people were not involved in the decision making process of NAPEP either at the level of policy formulation or implementation. Therefore the participation of rural people in NAPEP has been at zero level. This confirms the fact that rural populace which constitutes the majority of the Nigerian poor could not make input into policy making and implementation that affect their lives.
4. The study reveals that NAPEP has not been implemented to achieve its objective as formulated; there is implementation gap between the policy makers and implementers of NAPEP which has serious implication on rural poverty reduction in Nigeria. This is because rural communities have not benefited from NAPEP and the programme has not been adequately promoted in the rural areas in Nigeria.

## REFERENCES

- Adekoya, K. (2010). "How Senate Report Nailed NAPEP Management". *Business News*, 27 November.
- Crosby, B. (1996) 'Policy implementation: The Organisational Challenge'. *World Development*, 24 (9).
- Elumilade, D. O., Asaolu T. O. and Adenreti, S. A. (2006). "Appraising the Institutional Framework for Poverty Alleviation Programmes in Nigeria". *International Research Journal of Finance and Economics Euro-Journal*, (3)79 <http://www.eurojournals.com/finance.htm>.
- Eze, P. (2003). *Sustainable Environments, a neglect Strategy for Poverty Alleviation in Nigeria*. Enugu: Jamoe.
- Hashimu, Y. (2002). "Poverty Reduction Strategy in Nigeria: An Assessment". In Jega, A. M. and Wakili, H. (eds.). *The Poverty Eradication Programme in Nigeria: Problems and Prospects*. Kano: Proceedings of the Round-Table Discussion Organized by the Centre for Democratic Research and Training (CDRT).
- Ihonvbere, J. (1989). *The Political Economy of Crisis and Underdevelopment in Africa: Selected Works of Claude Ake*. Port Harcourt: Jab Publishers.
- Ijaduola, O. K. (2008). "Achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in Nigeria: Educational Planning Option". *Journal of Research in National Development, Transcampus Interdisciplinary Research and Study Group*, 6 (2).
- Kaufman, D. (1999). "Anti- Corruption Strategies: Starting Afresh? Unconventional Lessons from Comparative Analysis". In R. Stepenburst and S.J. Kpunch (ed). *Curbing Corruption*. The World Bank.
- Khanya, I. G. (2002). Policies and approaches for rural poverty reduction. July, (1)1 [goldman@khanya-mrc.co.za](mailto:goldman@khanya-mrc.co.za)
- Mensah, M. C. (1997). "Policy Setting and Institutional Framework for Rural Development Programmes in Africa". *Technical Centre for Agriculture and Rurla Development*.
- Nkum, J. (2002). Local Governance for Rural Poverty Reduction. In *European Forum on Rural Development Cooperation Policies and Approaches for Rural Poverty Reduction: What Works in Practice?* Montpellier, France: 4 – 6 September.
- Ogbeide, U. (2007). *Public Policy Making and Evaluation in Nigeria*. Lagos: Amfitop Books.
- Ogboru, I. (2009). *Reflections on External Debt, Corruption and Nigerian Economy*. Jos: University Press.
- Ogboru, I. Abimiku, A. C. (2012). "The Impact of Corruption on Poverty Reduction in Nigeria". [unijos.edu.ng/bitstream/10485/1254/1/Impact of Corruption on Poverty Reduction Efforts 6th.pdf](http://unijos.edu.ng/bitstream/10485/1254/1/Impact%20of%20Corruption%20on%20Poverty%20Reduction%20Efforts%206th.pdf).
- Olayiwola, K. (2001)." Strengthening Institutional and Legal Capacity for Combating Corruption in Nigeria". Paper Presented at *the International Political Science Association (IPSA) Conference*, Abuja.
- Oshita, O. O. (2008). "Process Issues in the Draft National Peace for Nigeria". Paper presented in SPSP Annual Conference of on *Draft National Peace Policy*, Abuja.



- Oviasuyi K. (2010). "Model for Roles and Involvement of Local Communities in Development Projects and Programmes of Local Government Authorities in Nigeria". *Kamla-Raj: J Hum Ecol*, 31(2): 103-109.
- Sutton, R. (1999). "The Policy Process: An Overview". London: *Overseas Development Institute*, August. Working Paper 118.
- Tomlinson, M. D. (2002). "Poverty Reduction Strategy in Nigeria: An Assessment". In Jega, A. M. and Wakili, H. (eds.). *The Poverty Eradication Programme in Nigeria: Problems and Prospects*. Kano: Proceedings of the Round-Table Discussion Organized by the Centre for Democratic Research and Training (CDRT).
- Usman, A. (2010). "Dividend of Democracy in Nigerian: Issues and Challenges for National Growth and Development" [.http://www.thefreelibrary.com](http://www.thefreelibrary.com).
- Yakubu R. and Abbass I. M. (2009). "National Poverty Eradication Programme NAPEP and Poverty Alleviation in Rural Nigeria: A Case Study of Giwa Local Government Area of Kaduna State". *European Scientific Journal*, August, (8)18.  
<http://eujournal.org/index.php/esj/article/download/286317>.
- Yakubu, O. D. and Aderonmu J. A. (2010). "Rural Poverty Alleviation and Democracy in Nigeria's Fourth Republic (1999 – 2009)". *Current Research Journal of Social Sciences*. New York: Maxwell Scientific Organization, 2(3) 191.

## **CHAPTER SIX**

### **SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONTRIBUTIONS TO KNOWLEDGE**

#### **6.1. Summary**

The study has examined policy implementation and rural poverty reduction strategies in Nigeria with a focus on an analysis of NAPEP in the rural communities of Ado-Odo Ota Local Government Area, Ogun State. This becomes imperative in view of the growing incidence of poverty and underdevelopment in the rural areas of Nigeria. The rural segment of the population in Nigeria is important because it provides the bulk of the food consumed nationwide and sometimes exported. They constitute the resource base of the nation and provide needed labour for industries and other service organizations located in the urban areas. It is unfortunate that these substantial human and material resources in the rural areas are allowed to waste away.

The rural dwellers are facing many challenges such as ill-health, poor education, lack of basic infrastructure and opportunities, natural disasters and economic upheavals as well as crime and violence due to neglect and inconsistency in the poverty reduction policies and programmes over the years. Most of the policies and programmes put in place by successive government towards tackling poverty in Nigeria could not meet their objectives due to poor policy implementation. The study, therefore, investigated the factors that impeded effective policy implementation and development of rural areas over the years in Nigeria.

This study makes use of primary and secondary data. In the case of primary data, questionnaire was used to elicit information from 22 rural communities in Ado-Odo local government, the Local Government Council and the NAPEP office at the Federal Secretariat, Ogun State. Non parametric Chi-square was used to test the hypotheses. All the data obtained were computer processed through the use of Statistical Packages for Social Sciences

(SPSS). Key Informants and Voice Interview were also carried out. The secondary data were collected from the library and internet sources which include books, journals articles and government publications from National Poverty Eradication Programme's office, Abuja and other related agencies.

The research findings show that NAPEP has not impacted positively on the lives of Ado-Odo Ota rural people. The level of poverty has even heightened further. Therefore, policy implementation does not have any effect on rural poverty reduction in Nigeria. The findings further reveal that there have been constraints of effective policy implementation in rural areas in Nigeria such as: unrealistic goal setting, poor implementation planning, corruption and mismanagement of funds, political patronage, and implementation gaps between the policy makers and implementers on one hand and between the policies and the target populations on the other hand.

## **6.2. Conclusion**

This study has been able to establish that successive governments in Nigeria for long have neglected rural communities. There is very little evidence to suggest that past policies of government made significant impact in terms of bringing about improved quality of life for the over 73% Nigerians living in the rural communities. Policy implementation fails in developing countries like Nigeria because the formulation of the policy in the first place does not produce the best alternative designed to suit socio-political reality of the people to which the policy is targeted. The target beneficiaries are not involved at the formulation stage in order for them to have an input in what affects their lives. As a result of this, there has been no sense of belonging and commitment by the rural communities towards government policies.

The government and policy makers have continued to formulate and implement policies as if the socio political and economic environments are the same in all parts of Nigeria. This should not be the case since Nigeria is a heterogeneous society with differences in needs, aspirations and culture. There is need for these differences to be considered in policy making and implementation. For instance when NAPEP was formulated, it was packaged for the 36 states of the federation and 774 local government areas in the same manner without considering the peculiarity and condition of each state or each local government, not to talk of the differences in each community that these states and local government areas are made of. The government erroneously assumed that what works in one part of the country can work in another. Government has not deemed it fit to repackage the programme to meet the needs and peculiarity of particular communities. This is one of the reasons policy implementation in Nigeria has been recording failures.

It should also be noted that policies are often forced on people and since the people are not consulted for their input into the policies, they in turn distance themselves from the government's genuine programme meant to improve their lives and can even go as far as sabotaging such programme. The importance of the civil society, nongovernmental organization and epistemic community and the mass media in influencing policy for the good of the people is immense. But the interest of these groups cannot also be taken for granted. The question is if their interest is contrary to the interest of the target beneficiary of the policy, what happens? Therefore, even when the civil societies are involved the target beneficiary of the policy should be able to take ownership of the policy that will affect their lives. The non inclusion of the target beneficiary in the formulation and implementation of policy have serious implication on policy failures in Nigeria.

It is unfortunate that a programme such as NAPEP that is meant to harmonize all poverty reduction programmes in Nigeria did not have the input from the target beneficiaries and there was no legislative approval. The Nigerian National Assembly has alleged that NAPEP is an executive arrangement meant to serve the interest of the ruling party alone. As a result of this, it has been difficult to perform oversight function. The question is who is appropriating money being used by NAPEP for implementing its programme? It is very clear why there have been high level of corruption and mismanagement of funds in NAPEP and alleged political patronage. The change of policy making and implementation from the top-down command structure to more consultative and participatory approach will definitely improve the quality of policy implementation in Nigeria and enhance transparency and accountability. Effective, efficient and people-oriented policy making and implementation will reduce poverty and make lives more meaningful to Nigerians especially the teeming poor population in the rural areas.

### **6.3. Recommendations**

In the light of the above, this study wishes to make the following recommendations for effective and efficient policy implementation that will make the necessary impact that will reduce poverty in the Nigeria especially in the rural areas.

**1. Participation of target beneficiary in policy making and implementation-** The cooperation between the policy implementers and the target beneficiary is highly necessary for the success of any policy. Policy making and implementation in Nigeria should be changed from the top-down command structure to more consultative and participatory approach in order to enhance transparency and accountability and reduced political patronage. There should be participation of rural communities which constitute the poor majority in the formulation and implementation of policies on poverty eradication

by the government. This will help to bring about ownership and appropriate choice of priorities and technologies that would address the needs of the rural poor.

Rural communities should be sensitized and encouraged to recognize their leadership role and responsibility in the partnership arrangement in any government programme to be carried out in their domain. Federal government institutions like NAPEP should only play facilitating role. The rural communities should be encouraged to evolve appropriate solutions to their problems especially how to reduce poverty in the communities using their own local resources. Rural communities direct involvement in NAPEP is the most effective means of guaranteeing sustainability as poor people are unlikely to support or contribute their scarce resources to projects which have no relevance to their own lives.

Therefore, poverty reduction policy should be participatory. People should be active agents and not just passive beneficiaries. Sustainable development should emanate from the process in which the people participate in all stages of decision-making from problem identification and programme formulation, resources mobilization and implementation, to monitoring and evaluation. Participatory development contributes local knowledge to the process and ensures that the problems that are addressed are the priorities of the target community-led initiative. This local capacity should only be supported by the organizations such as the civil societies, community-based organizations, national and international non-governmental organizations.

**2. Bridging the Gap between Policy Formulation and Policy Implementation-** It becomes necessary for policy makers to take the issue of policy implementation seriously even at the formulation stage towards a successful policy implementation. Policy implementation should be built up from formulation stage through appropriate planning and realistic goal setting that is implementable. The importance of efficient and effective synergy in policy making and implementation towards achieving the desired policy objective is great. Any

policy bid for implementation should be properly planned and implementation management should be employed with appropriate technology. This will include appropriate planning process, organizing less, communicating more, thereby carrying along stakeholders of the policy, etc. This will go a long way to close the gap between policy conception and implementation and reduce confusion and criticisms that may trail implementation change.

- 3. Repackaging Policy to Meet the Needs of the Target Beneficiary-** The government should consider the socio political and economic environment of a particular target population before making and implementing policies. This will enable them to discover the differences in needs, culture and the peculiarities and conditions of each of the target poor group in the rural community either in the states or local government. When such policies are made at the federal level in the same way for the whole country, there is need to repackage them during implementation taking into cognizance the heterogeneous nature of Nigerian societies and examining the differences in needs, culture aspiration, condition and peculiarities. Therefore, a policy that is made to affect the whole country should be repackaged to meet the needs and culture and sometimes religion of a particular target population where the policy will be implemented. No government policy should be carried out without the approval of the legislature. The legislature should also be able to check whether the differences in each constituency are considered before approval. This should also be made as part of the oversight function of the National Assembly. By so doing, policies will be made relevant to all parts of the country providing programmes and services that are germane to people and culture of a particular geographical environment. This will allow the people to embrace such programme and effective implementation will help to reduce poverty in Nigeria especially in the rural communities.

4. **Impact Assessment on Programme under Implementation-** Impact assessment should be carried out on programme when implementation has been long enough to produce results. For a credible assessment the target beneficiary should be included in the assessment. Impact assessment of a policy under implementation should not be limited to the bureaucrats, technocrats, epistemic communities and the mass media. The local farmers, traditional rulers, community leaders and the local people should be involved. If the policy output is not what is expected, the policy may be faulty or the management may be poor. In that case, the policy should be adjusted or terminated for selection of another policy option or a new policy can be generated otherwise called policy recycling. If the policy is making the necessary impact in the target population, there will be no need for such. The implementation should continue unabated.
5. **The Use of Policy analysis Model of Participation and Change Management-** Policy is designed to achieve a goal. Thus, deliberate efforts should be made to ensure adequate planning, evaluation, proper costing and execution of policies, monitoring and impact assessment. Policy must, therefore, be initiated for objective reasons and change management and participation of the target population in policy that will affect their lives are the keys to the success of public policy. This is what the designed policy implementation model of participation and change management seeks to achieve. The use of the model by the policy implementer in analyzing policy for implementation will ensure effective and efficient policy implementation. This will now open a window of opportunity for any government aspiring success in the policy making and implementation that make impact in a particular target population in Nigeria to make use of the model.

Lastly, checking corruption in poverty eradication programme in Nigeria is necessary and long overdue. Anti-corruption agencies like Economic and Financial Crime Commission



(EFCC) and Independent Corrupt Practices and other related offences (ICPC) should be strengthened and all those that are indicted in stealing poverty eradication funds as identified by Senate Committee investigation on poverty reduction programmes in 2009 should be punished and they should be made to pay back all the money stolen to serve as deterrent to others.

There is the need to entrench good governance in every sphere of government. Political office holders and other government functionaries should go beyond preaching zero tolerance for corruption. They should visibly exhibit accountability, transparency, due process, fiscal responsibility and respect for the rule of law while carrying out their official responsibilities. It is important to note that entrenching good governance entails replacing the existing weak institutions in the country with strong ones which when anchored by a committed leadership to poverty reduction will lead to drastic reduction in poverty levels in Nigeria.

The government should be ready to fight corruption no matter status of the offender. The menace should be confronted and institutions of government in-charge of tackling the problem should be empowered enough to deal with the bureaucrats, technocrats and their collaborators in the private sector and they should be made to account for all NAPEP funds that have been stolen or trapped in the failed banks. Public policy can only be effective and efficiently implemented with desirable impact if the policy maker and implementer are transparent and accountable.

The government should begin to show more commitment and sincerity toward eradication of poverty in the rural areas in Nigeria by making concerted effort at providing infrastructures such as good roads, health centres, electricity, and pipe borne water, schools job creation. There should be general improvement in agriculture through improved seedling, fertilizers and mechanized farming. Government should diversify the economy through much input in agriculture and agricultural fed industrialization. This will make lives more conducive in the

rural areas. This will prevent hitherto rural-urban migration and keep our youth in the rural areas where they will be more productive and contribute positively to the development of the rural areas and the country at large. The mono-economy should be replaced with diversified economy to give room for massive employment and social amenities. Public policy has a central role to play in the fight against poverty. Thus, government policies should be people-oriented and deep-rooted. This would avoid misplacement of priorities in the development schemes. These are urgent tasks because further increase in poverty level is not just a threat to democracy, but also poses a direct challenge to national stability and the very survival of the country.

There is a need for government to review the National Poverty Eradication Programme to be people-oriented in order to serve the interest of the poor. The way the programme is being implemented leaves much to be desired. Since the programme could not meet its original objective of eradicating poverty before 2010, and poverty level has even increased, it goes to show that the programme needs review and restructuring in order to make it relevant to the poor people in Nigeria the majority of who are in the rural areas.

#### **6.4. Contributions to Knowledge**

- i. The study provides a clear understanding of policy implementation in relation to rural poverty reduction as articulated by government.
- ii. The study helps to elucidate on the major challenges in the implementation of government policies and it is also a major work on policy evaluation aimed at improving the quality of policy making process in Nigeria.
- iii. The study provides a model of participation and change management which could serve as a guide to policy makers and implementers.

### **6.5. Recommendation for further Study**

1. This study recommends for further study the administrative decentralization that transfers functions, and their related powers and resources to local level structures like local government system especially on poverty reduction policy in the rural areas in Nigeria.

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

### BOOKS

- Adamolekun, L. (1983). *Public Administration: A Nigerian and Comparative Perspective*. London: Longman.
- Ahonsi, B. & Soyombo, O. (1996). *Readings in Social Research Methods and Applications*. Ibadan: Caltop Publications (Nigeria) Ltd.
- Akeredolu-Ale, E.O. (1975). "Poverty as a Social Issue: A Theoretical Note". In O. Teriba (ed.) *Poverty Alleviation in Nigeria*. Ibadan: Nigerian Economic Society.
- Almond, G.A. (1960). "Introduction: A Functional Approach to Comparative Politics". In Gabriel Almond and James S. Coleman (Eds.), *The Politics of Developing Areas*. Princeton: Princeton University Press.
- Aluko, S. (1975). "Poverty: Its Remedies in Poverty Alleviation in Nigeria". In O. Teriba (ed.), *Poverty Alleviation in Nigeria*, Ibadan: Nigerian Economic Society.
- Anyanwu, J.C. (1997). "Poverty in Nigeria: Concepts, Measurement and Determinants". in O. Teriba (ed.), *Poverty Alleviation in Nigeria*. Ibadan: Nigerian Economic Society.
- Avwokeni, J. A. (2009). *Practical Research Methodology: Design, Analysis & Reporting*. Lagos: Jovila Publishing.
- Awofeso, O. (2004). *Issues in Local Government Administration in Nigeria*. Iagos: Lisjohnson Resources publishers.
- Barrett, S. & Fudge, C. (1981). Examine the Policy Action Relationship. In Barrett, S. and Fudge (eds.), *Policy Action: Essays on the Implementation of Public Policy*, London and New York: Methuen.
- Bertsch, G.K. (1978). *Comparing Political Systems: Power and Politics in Three Worlds*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Bührs, T. & Bartlett, R. V. (1993). *Environmental Policy in New Zealand. The Politics Clean and Green*. New Zealand: Oxford University Press.
- Castel, R. (1995). *Les Metamorphoses De La Question Sociale*. Paris: Fayard.
- Chandler, R. C. Plano, J. C. (1988). *The Public Administration Dictionary*. England: ABC CLIO.
- Dimock, M. E. & Dimock, A. (1983). *Public Administration*. Sussex: Holt Rhine Hart and Winston Ltd.
- Doer, J. E. (1998). *Dictionary of Public Administration*. Malaysia: Golden Books Centre.
- Dror, Y. (1973). *Public Policy Making Re-Examined*, London: Leonard Hill Book
- Grindle, M. & Thomas, J. (1991) *Public Choices and Policy Change: The Political Economy of Reform in Developing Countries*. Baltimore: John Hopkins University Press.
- Dye, T. (2008). *Understanding public policy*, New Jersey: Pearson Prentice hall
- Easton, D. (1965). *A Framework for Political Analysis*. Eaglewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice Hall.

- Egonmwan, J. A. (1991). *Public Policy Analysis: Concept and Applications*. Benin City: S. M. O. Aka and Brothers Press.
- Eze, P. (2003). *Sustainable Environments: A Neglect Strategy for Poverty Alleviation in Nigeria*. Enugu: Jamoe.
- Henry, N. (2007). *Public Administration and Public Affairs*. New Delhi: Prentice Hall.
- Hirschman, A. O. (1963). *Journeys Toward Progress: Studies of Economic Policy Making in Latin America*, New York: Twentieth Century Fund.
- Ihonvbere, J. (1989). *The Political Economy of Crisis and Underdevelopment in Africa: Selected Works of Claude Ake*. Port Harcourt: Jab Publishers.
- Honadle, G. (1979). "Implementation Analysis: The Case for Early Dose of Realism in Development Administration" in Honadle G. and Klauss (eds), *International Development Administration: Implementation Analysis for Development*. New York: Praeger.
- Ikelegbe, A. (2005). "The Local Government System and Grassroots Development in Nigeria: Issues, Problems and Challenges" in A.G. Onokerhoraye and G.E.D. Omuta Eds., *Perspectives on Development: A Book in Honour of Pius O. Sada*, Benin City: Centre for Population and Environment Development.
- Jeffrey, D. (2005). *Investing in Development: A Practical Plan to Achieving the Millennium Development Goals*. U.K.: Earthscan Publication.
- Jega A. M. & Waliki, H. (eds.) (2002). "The Poverty Eradication Programme in Nigeria: Problems and Prospects". Kano: *Centre for Democratic Research and Training*,
- Jega, A (2007). *Democracy, Good Government and Development in Nigeria*. Ibadan: Spectrum Books.
- Jibowo, G. (1992). *Essentials of Rural Development*, Abeokuta: Sodipo Press.
- Lindblom, C. E. (1963). *The Policy Making Process*. New Jersey: Prentice-hall, Inc. Engle Cliffs.
- Lipsky, M. (1993). "Street-Level Bureaucracy: Dilemmas of the Individual in Public Services", in Hill, M. *The Policy Process: A Reader*. London: Prentice Hall/Harvester Wheat Sheaf.
- Maduabum, C. P. (2006). *The Mechanics of Public Administration in Nigeria*. Lagos: Concept Publications Ltd.
- Mbieli, P. (2006). *Public Policy: Action Oriented Concept*. Lagos: Megavons (West Africa) Ltd.
- Moore, S. (2000). *Letts Study Guide, A- Level Sociology*. London: Letts Educational Ltd.
- Mullen, J. (2008). "Rural Poverty. In Desai, V., and Potter, R. B. (eds). *The Companion to Development Studies*. 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition, London: Hodder Education.
- Nagel, S. S. (ed.) (1999). *Policy Analysis Methods*. New York: Science Publishers.
- Naidu, S. (2006). *Public Administration: Concepts and Theories*. New Delhi: New Age Publishers. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Offiong, O.J (1996) "Systems Theory and Structural Functionalism in Political Analysis" in A.O. Oronsaye (ed.). *Nigerian Government and Politics*, Benin City: Petersam

Publishers.

- Ogbeide, U. (2007). *Public Policy Making and Evaluation in Nigeria*. Lagos: Amfitop Books.
- Ogboru, I. (2009). *Reflections on External Debt, Corruption and Nigerian Economy*. Jos: University Press.
- Okoye U. C. & Onyukwu E. O (2007). "Sustaining Poverty Reduction Efforts through Inter-Agency Collaboration in Nigeria" in Kenneth Omeje (ed), *State, Society Relations in Nigeria, Democratic Consolidation, Conflicts and Reforms*. London: Adonis and Abbey.
- Olaniyi, J. O. (1995). "Democratizing Public Policy Making Process in Nigeria". In Danmole, H. O. et al. *Contemporary Issues in Nigeria Affairs*. Ibadan: SUNAD Publishers Ltd.
- Olateju, O. I. et' al (2008). "Measuring the Distributional Impact of Public Health Spending on Poverty in Nigeria. In Folarin, et' al (eds.) *Environment, Values and Policies in Nigeria*. Lagos: EBAN Publication.
- Osuagwu, (2006). *Business Research Methodology: Principles and Practice*. Lagos: Grey Resource Ltd.
- Owolabi, J. (2005). *Policy Making and Educational Policy Analysis*. Uganda: Makerere University Printery.
- Oye T. R. (1976). *Policy Analysis*. Alabama: United States of America.
- Parry G. (1977). *Political Elites*. London: George Allen.
- Pfiffner, J. M. and Presthus, R. V. (1953). *Public Administration*. Michigan: Ronald Press Co.
- Plant, R.. (1987). *Managing Change and Making it Stick*. London: Fontana/Collins.
- Roberts, C.and Edwards, A. (1991). *A Dictionary of Political Analysis*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Sachs, J. (2005). *The End of Poverty, How we can make it Happen in Our Lifetime*, London: Penguin Press.
- Sambo, A. (1999). "What is Public Policy?". In Anifowose, Remi and Francis Enemuoh (eds.) *Elements of Politics*. Lagos: Malthouse Press Ltd.
- Sani, H. A. (2008). *Public Policy Analysis: Theoretical and Applied Approaches*. Okene: Desmond Tutu Publishers.
- Telia, S.A. (1997). "A Schema for Monitoring Poverty Alleviation". in *Poverty Alleviation in Nigeria* in O. Teriba (ed.), *Nigeria*. Ibadan: *Nigerian Economic Society*.
- Uniamikogbo, S.O. (1997). *Poverty Alleviation Under Nigeria's SAP: A policy Framework*, in O Teriba (ed.) in *Poverty Alleviation in Nigeria*, Ibadan: *Nigerian Economic Society*.
- Webster's New Explorer Encyclopedic Dictionary, 2006.
- Ajakaiye, O. (2002). "Overview of the Current Poverty Eradication Programme in Nigeria". In Jega, A. M. and Wakili, H. (eds.). *The Poverty Eradication Programme in*

- Nigeria: Problems and Prospects*. Kano: Proceedings of the Round-Table Discussion Organized by the Centre for Democratic Research and Training (CDRT),
- Egwuatu, B. (2002). Strategies Towards Strengthening the Poverty Eradication Programme in Nigeria in Jega, A. M. and Wakili, H. (eds.). *The Poverty Eradication Programme in Nigeria Problems and Prospects*. Kano: Centre for Democratic Research and Training, Mambayya House Bayero University.
- Hashimu, Y. (2002). "Poverty Reduction Strategy in Nigeria: An Assessment". In Jega, A. M. and Wakili, H. (eds.). *The Poverty Eradication Programme in Nigeria: Problems and Prospects*. Kano: Proceedings of the Round-Table Discussion Organized by the Centre for Democratic Research and Training (CDRT).
- IFAD (2001). *Rural Poverty Report: The Challenge of Ending Rural Poverty*. Rome: International Fund for Agricultural Development.
- Kaufman, D. (1999). "Anti- Corruption Strategies: Starting Afresh? Unconventional Lessons from Comparative Analysis". In R. Stepenburst and S.J. Kpuneh (ed). *Curbing Corruption*. The World Bank.
- Tomlinson, M. D. (2002). "Poverty Reduction Strategy in Nigeria: An Assessment". In Jega, A. M. and Wakili, H. (eds.). *The Poverty Eradication Programme in Nigeria: Problems and Prospects*. Kano: Proceedings of the Round-Table Discussion Organized by the Centre for Democratic Research and Training (CDRT).

## JOURNALS

- Ajolor, O. V. (2008). "Local Government Administration and Rural Poverty in Nigeria". In *International Review of Politics and Development*, Ilisan-Remo: Department of Political Science, Babcock University, Nigeria Special Issues, (6) 1-15.
- Alila, P.O. (1998). "Strengthening Local Social Systems and People's Organization Capabilities for Local and Regional Development". *Regional Development Dialogue*, 19(2): 69- 84.
- Babatunde, R. A. Olorunsanya, E. O. and Adejola (2008). "Assessment of Rural Household Poverty: Evidence from South-Western Nigeria". *American-Eurasian J, Agric. & Environ. Sci.* 3(6): 900- 905.
- Brinkerhoff, D. W. (1996). "Process Perspectives on Policy Change: Highlighting Implementation". *World Development*. 24 (9).
- Bindir, U. B. (2002). "The National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) Monitoring Strategies". Paper Presented at *the Community-Based Monitoring and Evaluation Methodology Workshop*, jointly organized by Food Basket Foundation International and the World Bank, June 10 - 14.
- CBN/World Bank (1999). "Study of Poverty Assessment and Alleviation, Federal Government of Nigeria 1997 Report of the Vision 2010". *Committee Main Report*. Abuja: September.

- Clark, D. David, H. (2005). "Towards A Unified Framework for Understanding the Depth, Breadth and Duration of Poverty". *Working Paper 20, Global Poverty Research Group*.
- Crosby, B. (1996). "Policy Implementation: The Organizational Challenge". *World Development*, (24) 9.
- Edward, G. C. (1980). "Implementing Public Policy". *Washington, DC: Congressional Quarterly press*.
- Ekpe, A. E. (2011). "Poverty Alleviation in Nigeria through Capitalism Economic Framework: Problems and Challenges". *Journal of sustainable Development in Africa*, Pennsylvania: Clarion University of Pennsylvania.
- Etzioni, A. (1967). Mixed Scanning: A Third Approach to Decision- Making. *Public Administration Reviews* 27 ( 5).
- FGN National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP), ABUJA: Federal Government of Nigeria, 2001.
- Gana, A.T. (1996). "The Promise of Liberal Democracy in Africa: The Nigerian Betrayal". *African Centre for Democratic Governance*, Abuja: (AFRIGOV) Monograph (1)1
- Grindle, M. and Thomas, J. (1990). "After the Decision: Implementing Policy Reforms in Developing Countries". *World Development*.18 (8).
- Crosby, B. (1996) 'Policy implementation: The Organisational Challenge'. *World Development*, 24 (9).
- ICPC (2007). *Climate Change 2007: Impacts, Adaptation and Vulnerability*. Geneva: World Meteorological Organization/United Nations Environment Programme.
- Ijaduola, O. K. (2008).** "Achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in Nigeria: Educational Planning Option". *Journal of Research in National Development, Transcampus Interdisciplinary Research and Study Group*, 6 (2).
- Juma, C. and Clark, N. (1995). "Policy Research in Sub-Saharan Africa: An Exploration". *Public Administration and Development*, (15)121–137.
- Kuren K. (1978). "Quoted in Report on Poverty in Northern Nigeria, Concepts, Causes and Alleviation Strategies" (March 2007).
- Maduagwu, A. (2000). "Alleviating poverty in Nigeria". *Africa Economic Analysis Publication*, 23 (2) 34-41.
- Manning R (2007). "Pro-Poor Growth: Negotiating Consensus on a Contentious Issue". *Society for International Development* 50(2).
- Mensah, M. C. (1997). "Policy Setting and Institutional Framework for Rural Development Programmes in Africa". *Technical Centre for Agriculture and Rural Development*
- Nkum, J. (2002). Local Governance for Rural Poverty Reduction. In *European Forum on Rural Development Cooperation Policies and Approaches for Rural Poverty Reduction: What Works in Practice?* Montpellier, France: 4 – 6 September.



- Nwanna, C. R. (2009) "Socio-Economic Status and Discrimination against People Living with HIV/AIDS in Lagos State, Nigeria". *A Thesis presented to the Department of Sociology, University of Lagos for the award of Ph. D Degree in Sociology*, April
- National Poverty Eradication Programme (2012). "Events and Press Releases". Abuja: Office of the National Coordinator, NAPEP.*
- Okosun, I. Siwar, C. (2010). "The Urban Poverty Dilemma in Nigeria and Attempts Towards Poverty Alleviation". *Journal of Sustainable Development in Africa*. Pennsylvania: Clarion University of Pennsylvania, 12 (2).
- Oladunni, E. B. (1999). "The Dimension of Poverty in Nigeria Spatial Sectional". In Genela et 'al (eds). *Poverty Alleviation in Nigeria*. October, 1 (23).
- Olayiwola, K. (2001)." Strengthening Institutional and Legal Capacity for Combating Corruption in Nigeria". Paper Presented at *the International Political Science Association (IPSA) Conference*, Abuja.
- Omorogbe, S. K. (2005). "Community Development Associations as Agents of Rural Development: A Study of Edo State". *Ph.D Dissertation, Unpublished .Submitted to the Department of Sociology*. Ambrose Alli University, Ekpoma.
- Oshita, O. O.( 2008). "Process Issues in the Draft National Peace for Nigeria". Paper presented in SPSP Annual Conference of on *Draft National Peace Policy*, Abuja.
- Oviasuyi K. (2010). "Model for Roles and Involvement of Local Communities in Development Projects and Programmes of Local Government Authorities in Nigeria". *Kamla-Raj: J Hum Ecol*, 31(2): 103-109.
- Oyemomi E. O. (2003). "An Assessment of Poverty Reduction Strategies in Nigeria (1983-2003)", Being a Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Award of the Ph.D. of St. Clement's University, September.
- Pious R. M. (1975). "Sources of Domestic Policy Initiatives". In the proceedings of the *Academy of Political Science*, (321) 448-449.
- Randel, G. H. (2010). "Policy Making and Implementation: The Issues in Nigeria". 28(174) 126-133.
- Ravallion, M. and Bidani B. (1994). How Robust is a Poverty Profile? *The World Bank Economic Review* 8(1) January.
- Ugoh, S. C. and Ukpere, W. I. (2009). "Appraising the Trend of Policy on Poverty Alleviation Programmes in Nigeria with Emphasis on a National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP)" *African Journal of Business Management* .December 3 (12),
- UNDP's Human Development Report (2011). UNDP, Choices: *The Human Development Magazine*. World Development Report.
- United Nations Development Programme (2009). *Human Development Report Nigeria. 2008- 2009*. Abuja: UNDP Publication.
- Walker, J. L. (1969). Diffusion of Innovations among American States. *American Political Science Review*" September, (63) 880-889.
- Yakubu, O. D. and Aderonmu J. A. (2010). "Rural Poverty Alleviation and Democracy in Nigeria's Fourth Republic (1999 – 2009)". *Current Research Journal of Social Sciences*. New York: Maxwell Scientific Organization, 2(3) 191.

- Young, J. and Enrique, M. (2009). "Helping Researchers Become Policy Entrepreneurs". London: *Development Institute*, September.
- Zupi M (2007). "The Multi-D-Dimensions of Poverty: Some Conceptual and Policy Challenges", *Social International Development*, 50 (2).

## ONLINE DOCUMENTS

- Devitt, T. (2001, August 2). Lightning injures four at music festival. *The Why? Files*. Retrieved January 23, 2002, from <http://whyfiles.org/137lightning/index.html>
- Aderonmu, J. A. (2010). "Local Government and Poverty Eradication in Rural Nigeria". *Canadian Research & Development Centre of Sciences and Culture*. Canada: Social Science. [http:// www.fags.org/periodicals](http://www.fags.org/periodicals).
- Agbiokoro, T. C. (2009). "The Impact of National Poverty Eradication Programme NAPEP on Economic Development of Nigeria". *Unpublished Work Submitted to Economics Department, Ebonyi State, University, Abakaliki*: <http://chtuaeeconomist.blogspot.ca/search/label/scoopters>.
- Baba-Ahmed, A. (2012). "The Nigeria Profile 2010 Reprort". *National Bureau of Statistics*, Abuja: <Http://www.peopledaily-online.com> 14, February.
- Elumilade, D. O., Asaolu T. O. and Adenreti, S. A. (2006). "Appraising the Institutional Framework for Poverty Alleviation Programmes in Nigeria". *International Research Journal of Finance and Economics Euro-Journal*, (3)79 <http://www.eurojournals.com/finance.htm>.
- Encarta (2000). Encyclopedia Britannica. [www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/186436/Encarta](http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/186436/Encarta).
- IDMC (2007). "Internal Displacement: Global Overview of Trends". [www.internal-displacement.org/idmc/website/resources.nsf/htt](http://www.internal-displacement.org/idmc/website/resources.nsf/htt).
- Khanya, I. G. (2002). Policies and approaches for rural poverty reduction. [goldman@khanya-mrc.co.za](mailto:goldman@khanya-mrc.co.za).
- Lazarus, S. (2010), "NAPEP Fund left Idle in Over #7.2 billion in Two Banks- Senate Committee". *Sunday Trust Online*, 24 October.
- Mule, H. M. (2001). Institutions and their Impact in Addressing Rural Poverty in Africa. [www.ifad.org/poverty](http://www.ifad.org/poverty)
- Ogboru, I. Abimiku, A. C. (2012). "The Impact of Corruption on Poverty Reduction in Nigeria". [unijos.edu.ng/bitstream/10485/1254/1/Impact of Corruption on Poverty Reduction Efforts 6th.pdf](http://unijos.edu.ng/bitstream/10485/1254/1/Impact%20of%20Corruption%20on%20Poverty%20Reduction%20Efforts%206th.pdf).
- Oruku, M. Oyedepo, K. D. and Onwe, O. J. (2010). "Policy Implementation and Evaluation". *Open University Course Guide*. Lagos: National Open University of Nigeria. [centralinfo&nou.edu.ng](http://centralinfo&nou.edu.ng).
- Rahaman, O. (2007). "Millennium Development Goals and the Nigerian Youths". [www.searchwarp.com](http://www.searchwarp.com).

- Sutton, R. (1999). "The Policy Process: An Overview". London: *Overseas Development Institute*, August. Working Paper 118. Science. [http:// www.fags.org/periodicals](http://www.fags.org/periodicals).
- Usman, A. (2010). "Dividend of Democracy in Nigerian: Issues and Challenges for National Growth and Development" [.http://www.thefreelibrary.com](http://www.thefreelibrary.com).
- Yakubu R. and Abbass I. M. (2009). "National Poverty Eradication Programme NAPEP and Poverty Alleviation in Rural Nigeria: A Case Study of Giwa Local Government Area of Kaduna State". *European Scientific Journal*, August, (8)18.  
<http://eujournal.org/index.php/esj/article/download286317>.

## NEWSPAPERS

- Adekoya, K. (2010). "How Senate Report Nailed NAPEP Management". *Business News*, 27 November.
- Kolade, C. C. (1999). "Panel Report on Corruption in Nigeria". *Africa Confidential*, August, 4.

## **APPENDIX I**

### **QUESTIONNAIRE**

Department of Political Science,  
University of Lagos,  
Akoka, Lagos.

Dear Respondent,

This is a Ph. D thesis aimed at examining Policy Implementation and Rural Poverty Reduction in Nigeria: An Analysis of NAPEP in Ado-Odo Ota Local Government.

The questionnaire is designed to elicit information from you on the issue and I humbly request you to tick appropriately below as your candid opinion will be of great help for the research work.

Your response to the questions will be used for the purpose of this research only and will be treated with utmost confidentiality.

Yours faithfully,

**AJULOR, Omoniyi Victor**

**SECTION A**  
**BIO-DATA**

**INSTRUCTION:** Please indicate your response by ticking [☐] in the box as appropriate

Sex: (A) Male [☐] (B) Female [☐]

Age Group: (A) 25 – 35 years [☐] (B) 36 – 50 years [☐] (C) Above 50 years [☐]

Marital Status: (A) Single [☐] (B) Married [☐]

Number of Children: (A) 1- 4 [☐] (B) 5-8 [☐] (C) 8-12 [☐] (D) above 12 [☐]

Educational Qualification: (A) No Western Education [☐] (B) Primary [☐] (C) Secondary [☐]  
(D) OND/ NCE [☐] (E) B.Sc [☐] (F) M.Sc [☐] (G) PhD [☐]

Occupational Status: (A) Employed [☐] (B) Self employed [☐] (C) Unemployed [☐]

## SECTION B

**INSTRUCTION:** Please tick [☐] any of SA or A or U or SD or D in the table below as appropriate. Key: SA = Strongly Agreed A = Agreed U = Undecided D = Disagree SD = Strongly Disagree.

SN	ITEM	SA	A	U	D	SD
1	Poverty is inevitable in the rural area in Nigeria because the people are lazy.					
2	The rural people have been neglected by the various governmental policies on poverty over the years.					
3	Skill acquisition training programmes have been carried out by NAPEP's officials in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities.					
4	"Keke" NAPEP are available in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities.					
5	Rural farmers in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities have been supported with seedling and fertilizers by NAPEP.					
6	Infrastructures (such as roads, pipe borne water and electricity) have been provided by NAPEP in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities.					
7	Implementation of policies on poverty has impacted positively in the lives of Ado-Ota rural people					
8	The representatives of the Ado-Odo Ota rural people were consulted in the formulation and implementation of NAPEP					
9	NAPEP is being implemented as formulated in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities					
10	NAPEP has been very effective in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities.					
11	There has been a clear performance indicator to evaluate the performance NAPEP in rural communities.					
12	There is high level of participation by the Ado-Odo Ota rural people in NAPEP's activities.					
13	The representatives of the Ado-Odo Ota rural people are part of NAPEP decision making.					
14	NAPEP's officials are accountable to the people					
15	NAPEP has not been used for political patronage.					
16	There have been no corruption and mismanagement of funds by NAPEP officials.					
17	The people of Ado-Odo Ota rural communities have benefited from NAPEP's programmes					
18	NAPEP has been adequately promoted in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities.					

## **APPENDIX II**

### **QUESTION GUIDE FOR THE INTERVIEW**

1. What do you think has been responsible for poverty in the Ado-Odo Ota rural areas?
2. Can you mention specifically the programmes that have been carried out by NAPEP in Ado-Odo Ota rural communities?
3. Which of the following NAPEP's programmes that I will mention to you are being implemented in Ado-Odo Ota local government areas?
  - i. Capacity Acquisition Programme (CAP)
  - ii. Mandatory Attachment Programme (MAP)
  - iii. Keke NAPEP
  - iv. Farmers Empowerment Programme
  - v. Promise Keeper Programme (PKP)
  - vi. Village Economic Development Solution (VEDS)
  - vii. Conditional Cash Transfer (CCT) under Care of the people (COPE)
  - viii. SOWESS consists of four broad sub-categories such as: Qualitative Education Programme, Primary Health Care Programme, Farmers Empowerment Programme and Social Services Programme.
4. What impact does NAPEP have on rural poverty reduction in your community?
5. How has NAPEP helped in reducing poverty in the Ado-Odo Ota rural areas?
6. In what ways has NAPEP impacted positively on the lives of the rural poor?
7. What collaboration does NAPEP have with Ado Odo Ota local government or rural communities in tackling rural poverty?
8. What collaboration does NAPEP have with NGOs and GBOs in Ado-Odo Ota local government to tackle rural poverty?
9. How many NAPEP's staff in Ado-Odo Odo Ota local government are carrying out monitoring assignment?
10. What is your assessment of the various programmes by NAPEP in Ado-Odo Local Government?

11. Are you satisfied with the activities of National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP)?
12. What do you think are the problems faced by the previous programmes on poverty reduction in your local government?
13. Does NAPEP encounter any problem in your local government in terms of projects execution?
14. What kind of problems does NAPEP encounter?
15. What do you think are the possible solutions to the problems?



### APPENDIX III

#### POVERTY ERADICATION POLICY TARGETS FOR 2003

S/N	Basic Indicators	Estimate at present (199)	Target	Time Frame
i.	GDP Growth Rate	2.4 per cent	7 per cent	Short-Term
ii.	Inflation Rate	13 per cent	Single Digit	Short –Term
iii.	Gainful, employed labour force (both formal and informal)	50 per cent	70 per cent	Short-Term
iv.	Maternal Mortality	800 per 100,000 births	400 per 100,000 births	Short-Term
v.	Infant Mortality	78 per 1000 births	50 per 1000 births	Short-Term
vi.	Reduction in Child Malnutrition	46 per cent of total population	20 per cent of total population	Short-Term
vii.	Population access to potable water	40 per cent	60 per cent	Short –Term
viii.	Household access to electricity (rural)	34 percent	60 per cent	Short –Term
ix.	Functional telephone lines per 1000 persons	4	200	Short –Term
x.	Population of school-age Children in School	50 per cent	90 per cent	Short –Term
xi.	Population literacy level	57 per cent	80 per cent	Short –Term
xii.	Nutrition Level (Daily Calorie, Protein intake)	2120 10g/day	2500 36g/day	Short –Term Short –Term
xiii.	Other Basic Human Needs (Level of Satisfaction)	Low	Medium/High	Short –Term
xiv.	Promotion of women's participation in informal sector and food processing and substance agriculture	Unsatisfactory	Recognition inclusion and integration in the economy mainstream	Short –Term
xv.	Total Fertility Rate	6	4	Short-Term
xvi.	Life Expectancy Rate	50	60	Short-Term
xvii.	Increase capacity utilization	30 per cent	50 per cent	Short-Term
xviii.	Budgetary allocation to Agriculture	2.5 percent	25 percent	Short-Term
xix.	Environmental Concern	Negligible	High priority	Short-Term
xx.	Reduction of the incidence of poverty in Nigeria 1996 estimate;	65.6 percent	20 percent	Medium Term
xxi.	Reduction of the incidence of poverty in both the rural and urban areas 1996 estimate;	67.8 per cent in rural areas and 57.7 per cent in urban areas	30 per cent in the rural areas and 20 per cent in urban areas;	Medium Term

xxii	Reduction of population growth rate from 1998;	2.83 per cent	2 per cent	Long Term
xxii	Achievement of national coverage by Primary Health Care (PHC) and accessibility to functional primary health care services	45 per cent	70 per cent	Long Term
		55 per cent	90 per cent	
xxiv	Coverage of rural areas by roads; Coverage of urban slums by access roads.	45 per cent	90 per cent	Long Term
xxv	Corruption	Epidemic	Medium/NIL	Medium /Long Term
xxv	Reduction in gender disparity in school enrolment	60 percent	20 percent	Medium Term
xxv	Agricultural production growth rate (%)	3.5	7	Short Term

Source: Bindir, 2002: 9-10

**Appendix IV**  
**Allocations of KeKe NAPEP according to 36 State in Nigeria**

<b>SIN</b>	<b>State</b>	<b>No Allocation</b>	<b>Unit Delivered</b>
1.	Abia	118	50
2.	Adamawa	122	122
3.	Akwa Ibom	131	50
4.	Anambra	143	50
5.	Bauchi	137	116
6.	Bayelsa	99	99
7.	Benue	138	50
8.	Borno	133	100
9.	Cross River	119	50
10.	Delta	134	50
11.	Ebonyi	105	50
12.	Edo	125	125
13.	Ekiti	109	50
14.	Enugu	124	124
15.	Gombe	106	106
16.	Imo	126	126
17.	Jigawa	132	50
18.	Kaduna	170	100
19.	Kano	224	150
20.	Katsina	169	140
21.	Kebbi	121	50
22.	Kogi	121	50
23.	Kwara	109	50
24.	Lagos	234	234

25.	Nasarawa	98	50
26.	Niger	126	126
27.	Ogun	132	132
28.	Ondo	126	50
29.	Osun	123	50
30.	Oyo	159	134
31.	Plateau	122	50
32.	Rivers	174	50
33.	Sokoto	132	50
34.	Taraba	106	50
35.	Yobe	104	50
36.	Zamfara	116	94
37.	FCT	134	134
38.	Contingency	99	
	<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>5,000</b>	<b>3,286</b>

Source: NAPEP, 2012.

**APPENDIX V:**  
**THE CONTRIBUTION BY 36 STATES IN NIGERIA TO PROMISE KEEPER PROGRAMME**

S/N	STATE	NO OF FBO			CONTRIBUTIONS (Nm)			REMARK
		CHURCHES	MOSQUE	TOTAL FBO	FBO	NAPEP	TOTAL	
1.	Adamawa	13	19	32	10.0	10	20.0	Disbursed
2.	Akwa Ibom	23	-	23	10.0	10.0	20.0	Disbursed
3.	Anambra	4	-	4	2	2	4	Disbursed
4.	Bauchi	2	17	19	8.8	8.6	17.20	
5.	Benue	10	7	17	6.39	6.39	12.78	.
6.	Borno	2	20	22	8.6	8.6	17.2	.
7.	Cross River	1	-	1	0.5	0.5	10	
8.	Delta	17	-	17	7.98	7.98	15.96	Disbursed
9.	Ebonyi	9	-	9	3	3	6	"
10.	Edo	5	-	5	2.1	2.1	(,14.,Z':	"
11.	Ekiti	31	11	42	10.05	10.05	. 29.~()	"
12.	FCT	20	8	28	13.250	13.250	26.\$0	w
13.	Gombe	11	10	21	9.6	9.6	1~,5.	"
14.	Imo	7	-	7	2.715	2.715	51430	"
15.	Kebbi	-	21	21	9.45	9.45	1,a,~90	w
16.	Kogi	27	5	32	10	10	,20 '!	"
17.	Lagos	42	13	55	15.797	15.797	1;3i60	"
18.	Nasarawa	18	3	21	9.0	9	, 9id.	w
19.	Ogun	14	11	25	10	10	1,20	Disburse
20.	Ondo	19	4	23	9.150	9.15	18~.30	w
21.	Osun	10	9	19	6.5	6.5	13':0	w
22.	Ovo	13	14	27	10	10	2;g,	w
23.	Plateau	9	1	10	6.5	6.5	1:3:0	
24.	Rivers	12	-	12	6	6	14~ ,	"
25.	Sokoto	12	4 8	60	23.1	23.1	46.2	Disburse
26.	Zamfara	4	3 5	39	16.395	16.395	32~75 "	"
	Total:	335	256	591	226.667	226.667	453.354	

Source: NAPEP, 2012

**APPENDIX VI:**  
**COOPERATIVES AND CAPACITY WIDENING ACTIVITIES IN VSP IN THE STATES**

SIN	STATE	NO OF	NO OF			TOTAL AMOUNT N
		COOPERATIVES  ANCHOR PROJECTS	COOPERATIVES  AMOUNT	CAPACITY WIDENING ACTIVITY	AMOUNT	
I.	Abia	98	101,000,000	58	33,616,800	134,616,800.00
2.	Adamawa	55	128,490,000	24	10,550,000	139,040,000.00
3.	Akwa Iborn	28	82,792,000	28	37,061,000	119,853,000.00
4.	Anambra	33	72,950,000	97,	48,300,000	121,250,000.00
5.	Bauchi	41	132,278,900	304	73,490,000	205,768,900.00
6.	BayeIsa	34	88,641,391	26	47,540,500	136,181,891.00
7.	Benue	17	118,400,000	88	49,790,000	168,1290,000.00
8.	Bormo	63	73,500,000	66	38,330,000	111,830,000.00
9.	CrossRiver	35	88,237,814	59	61,158,543	149,396,357.00
10.	Delta	21	68,200,000	7	13,000,000	81,200,000.00
11.	Ebonyi	68	131,618,000	72	132,318,000	263,936,000.00
12.	Edo	18	78,000,000	48	74,000,000	152,000,000.00
13.	Ekiti	28	123,875,000	-	-	123,875,000.00
14.	Enugu	40	86,021,000	74	66,500,000	156,021,000.00
15.	FCT	21	115100,000	-		115,100,000.00
16.	Gombe	19	90,000,000	99	62,250,000	152,250,000.00
17.	Imo	38	105,400,000	62	48,500,000	153,900,000.00
18.	Jigawa	15	73,000,000	45	56,000,000	129,000,000.00
19.	Kaduna	127	121,500,000	174	125,430,000	246,930,000.00

20.	Kano	36	76,450,000	16	11,100,000	87,550,000.00
21.	Kastina	83	199,000,000	245	18,000,000	217,000,000.00
22.	Kebbi	28	107,000,000	183	138,042,000	245,042,000.00
23.	Kogi	31	80,500,000	11	32,200,000	112,700,000.00
24.	Kwara	82	59,850,000	78	17,390,000	140,000,000.00
25.	Lagos	24	76,000,000	71	86,700,000	162,700,000.00
26.	Nasarawa	24	108,283,500	15	21,600,000	129,883,500.00
27.	Niger	13	68,000,000	10	25,000,000	93,000,000.00
28.	Ogun	17	99,525,000	20	36,100,000	135,625,000.00
29.	Ondo	14	99,500,000	5	31,500,000	131,000,000.00
30.	Osun	58	181,900,000	65	39,590,000	221,490,000.00
31.	Oyo	13	95,070,000	5	8,240,000	103,310,000.00
32.	Plateau	10	53,500,000	140	107,100,000	160,600,000.00
33.	Rivers	33	120,000,000	-	-	120,000,000.00

Source: NAPEP, 2012

## APPENDIX VII

### STATES' CONTRIBUTION TOWARDS THE IMPLEMENTATION OF VILLAGE SOLUTION PROGRAMME IN 2009

Taraba	N500 million
Adamawa	N300 million
Kaduna	N200 million
Kebbi	N150 million
Ondo	N150 million
Benue	N140 million
Ekiti-	N50 million
Ogun	N50 million
Plateau	N50 million
Bauchi	N275 million
Kwara	N150 million
<b>Total</b>	<b>N2.434 billion</b>

Source: NAPEP, 2012



## APPENDIX VIII

Map of Nigeria Indicating Absolute Poverty Measure for 2010 showing states above and below National Average



Source: National Bureau of Statistics, 2012

## APPENDIX VIX

Map of Nigeria Indicating Relative Poverty Measure 2010 showing States above and below National Average



Source: National Bureau of Statistics, 2012