

**A STUDY OF POVERTY AMONG THE RURAL YOUTHS IN RANO LOCAL
GOVERNMENT AREA KANO STATE, NIGERIA**

BY:

**MOHAMMED JAMILU HARUNA
SPS/11/MSO/00001**

**BEING AN M.SC THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY, BAYERO
UNIVERSITY, KANO IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
AWARD OF MASTER DEGREE IN SOCIOLOGY**

DECEMBER, 2016

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DECLARATION PAGE

I, Mohammed JamiluHaruna declared that this research work is the product of my own research efforts; undertaken under the supervision of Dr. Hamza Imam Kankiya, and has not been presented and will not be presented elsewhere for the award of a degree or certificate anywhere. All sources have been duly acknowledged.

Mohammed JamiluHaruna (SPS/11/MSO/00001)

Date

CERTIFICATION PAGE

This is to certify that the research work for this dissertation and its subsequent preparation by Mohammed Jamilu Haruna (SPS/11/MSO/00001) was carried out under my supervision.

Dr. Hamza Imam Kankiya

Date

APPROVAL PAGE

This dissertation has been examined and approved for the award of Master Degree of Sociology(with specialization in Social Policy)in the Department of Sociology, Bayero University, Kano-Nigeria.

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my late father MallamHaruna Muhammad (may his soul rest in peace, amen), my caring mother Aisha Hussaini and to all my family members.

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Abstract

The Nigerian youths, particularly those in the rural areas, are in constant battle with poverty, unemployment and illiteracy, yet with little hope for victory. This has impeded their capabilities to meaningfully participate and contribute to national development. The main aim of this research is to study poverty among the rural youths in Rano Local Government Area of Kano State, Nigeria. The target population of the study is the youths of all sexes residing in Rano Local Government Areas of Kano State, who are within the ages of (18-35) years. The population of the study also include: Youths Development Officer of Rano local government area of Kano State, Nigeria, Youths Association Leaders and some members of the general public. The sample size for the study is (301) respondents selected through multi-stage cluster and availability sampling techniques for both quantitative and qualitative data. The quantitative data was collected using a researcher-administered questionnaire containing both open and closed ended questions, while the qualitative data was collected through an in-depth interview. The quantitative data was analyzed using descriptive statistics. The qualitative data was used to support the quantitative data. The study finds that there is prevalence of poverty among the youths in the rural areas of Rano Local Government Areas mainly caused by lack of economic opportunities, agric centres for youths, lack of industries, illiteracy and unemployment. However, other causes of the rural youth's poverty discovered in the study area were over-population, political instability, discrimination, lack of public enlightenment, absence of the judicial use of the rule of law and neglect of the agricultural sector are among the other reasons for the problem in the study areas. It was similarly, observed that young females are poorer than their male counterparts and that poverty is the major cause for hunger, sicknesses, underdevelopment, begging/social destitution, unemployment, drug abuse, involvement in social/political thuggery activities, and other crimes and security problems to the rural youths. The study recommends that government, non-governmental organizations and other stakeholders should prioritize agriculture, education, provision of capital and skills for small-scale businesses and provision of vocational training to the rural youths.

CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Poverty is a phenomenon that needs to be studied, understood, appreciated and then mitigated. Poverty is an obstacle to human development. The world over, youths are the locomotive engines to national development. They have the potential to stimulate economic growth, social progress and overall national development of any nation. This is essentially because when youths are empowered, they sustain the developmental momentum of a nation. However, when they are disempowered, they turn to fetters to national development. Nigeria is endowed with enormous human and natural resources sufficient to place it among the first 20 developed countries of the world but that has not been the case with Nigeria because of the poverty situations in the country both in rural and urban areas. Nigeria generates enormous wealth from the sale of crude oil, which if properly utilized to empower her youths could positively contributed to national development. However, the paradox is such that the majority of her citizens live below the poverty line in which a significant segments of her youthful population remains unemployed, under-employed or unemployable, (International Fund for Agricultural Development, 2006).

Consequently, in a society where grinding poverty coheres with growing unemployment particularly among the rural youths, the youth as cherished national assets constitute a national liability. Majority of the poor are young people who live in rural areas without opportunities for personal growth and societal development. Although the use of income

poverty measures alone does not suffice in estimating poverty in our rural areas, the estimate available suggests that the percentages of the youths living in poverty are extremely high in the rural areas.

However, a visit to Rano town and its environs would suffice for an understanding of the extent of rural youths poverty in Kano State vis-à-vis its implications for societal development. Empirical indicators such as the swarm of able-bodied migrating to the urban areas, young men hawking sugar cane, cooked maize, black market of petroleum products on the roads sides; legion of young ladies eking out a living through part time prostitution; gambling, stealing, drug peddling and abuse, young boys and girls selling food items and other consumables on the streets; army of 'area boys' brandishing dangerous weapons at the slightest provocation; to mention but a few, could serve, in unraveling the extent of youth underdevelopment or disempowerment arising from poverty in the rural areas of Nigeria. Youth's poverty in our rural areas emanates from both widespread unemployment and exclusion from various forms of viable economic activities.

This research study intends to examine the dimension of the rural poverty among the youths in Rano Local Government Area, of Kano State. Creativity and high energy are the characteristics of young people in any nation and if that energy is channelled positively, it will greatly benefit the nation and also enhance the moral values of the youths. When the same energy is used negatively, it degenerates into economic instability and social

unrest and can destroy the whole social system and predispose the society into a state of anomie or lawlessness.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Any society or country that disregards the welfare and development of her youths disregards its future and its progress. Rural youths in Rano are affected and frustrated by lack of employment, low educational attainments, absence of participation in decision making and poor social mobility. In Nigeria, greedy and opportunistic politicians exploit these grievances of the rural youths by involving these frustrated youths into violence activities thereby creating massive instabilities that limit the economic growth of the society. The youths in Rano local government area like other Nigerians require basic necessities of life such as food, clothing, shelter and protection, as well as establishment of family. Unfortunately, rural youths in Rano today, are confronted with problems of illiteracy, drug abuse, juvenile delinquencies, crime, teenage prostitution, unemployment and fraudulent activities which can all be associated with poverty and low educational attainments of the youth in Rano. The difficult position occupied by young people in Nigeria is attributable to the failure of the past and present government policies to address the problems of the youths in both rural and urban areas.

Agriculture is the main sector of employment of rural people and it can provide the rural youths with employment opportunities in such activities as animal husbandry, fish farming, poultry farming etc. The youths in the rural areas of Rano can also work as middle men and engage in marketing of the farm produce after or in irrigational farming and as labourers if provided with the opportunities. Youths in the rural areas of Rano do

engages, in the agricultural activities but lack of capital to finance their agricultural activities makes many of them are unable to utilize the opportunities available in the area.

Given the above, it is desirable to conduct this study in order to examine and understand how rural poverty among the youths in Rano Local Government Area, of Kano State affects the youth and the society at large. The need to do this is necessary if the country is to forge ahead in development.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

Broadly, the main aim of this research is to study the nature of poverty among the youths in the rural areas of Rano Local Government Area of Kano State. The specific objectives include:

1. To investigate poverty among rural youths in Rano local government areas of Kano State;
2. To identify the causes of poverty among the youths in the rural areas of Rano local government areas of Kano State;
3. To find out whether there is gender dimension in poverty among the rural youths in the study area; and
4. To examine the consequences of poverty on the youths in the study area.

1.4 Research Questions

To achieve the stated objectives of this study, the following research questions have been raised:

1. To what extent is poverty prevalent among the youths in rural areas of Rano?
2. Do youths in the study area have access to the basic needs?
3. Is rural poverty related to conservative nature of the rural youth's lifestyle?
4. What are the causes of youth's poverty in rural areas of Rano Local Government area, of Kano State?
5. Is there a gender dimension to poverty among the rural youths?
6. Is there variation in terms of economic opportunities across the gender of the rural youths?
7. In what ways does poverty affects the rural families?
8. What are the consequences of poverty on the rural youth and the society?

1.5 Significance of the Study

The study provided insightson poverty among the youths in the study area. The findings and recommendations of this study if implemented will assist in tackling the problems of rural youth poverty in the study area. The study will also be significant to individuals, students, governments, non-governmental organizations and the general public and to students especially students of Social Policy, Rural Sociology and other related disciplines. This study is also a sourceof information for consultation in academic endeavors, researches and added value to our knowledge on the realities of rural youths poverty and how it affectstheir social and economic development generally.

The study also contributes to the growing literature on the studies of rural youths poverty and to the society generally. This study is also significant not only for further researches and a source of ideas on rural poor, but also to policy makers and planners, implementers

and opinion leaders. It will also, help in creating more awareness and greater realization of the consequences of youths poverty in our rural areas. This research will also help the policy makers and facilitate government's efforts to come up with better policy framework to tackle the problem of the youth in general and rural youths in particular. The study will generate empirical data to inform policy decisions and guide their implementation strategies.

1.6 Scope of the study

This research work is restricted to Rano Local Government Area, of Kano State. It is mainly concerned with the study of rural youths both males and females ranging from eighteen to thirty five (18-35) years of age. Data from Youths Associations Leaders and Local government Youth's development officer of Rano local government area and its environs was used to give more insights about the issue under study. The study covered five (5) out of the ten (10) wards of Rano Local government area of Kano State, Nigeria.

1.7 Operationalization of Key Concepts

Youth: - The term youth, has been variously described, sometimes as the period of transition from childhood to adulthood. More commonly however, it comprises of a series of transitions from adolescence to adulthood, from dependence to independence, and from being recipients of societal services to becoming contributors to national economic, political, and cultural life. However, for the purpose of this study the concept of youth here is taken to mean any person within the age range of eighteen to thirty five years (18 - 35 years).

Poverty: -Poverty has no precise definition but in the context of this study, it refers to the inability of an individual to attain the minimum standard of living.

Rural Areas: -In the context of this study rural areas are defined as those areas which are not urban in nature in which a rural community comprises a group of people permanently residing in a definite geographic area and have a community consciousness with strong cultural, social and economic relations, compared to their urban counterparts.

Rural Development: -Rural development is defined as a process whereby concerted efforts are made in order to facilitate significant increase in rural resource productivity with the overall aim of improving rural incomes and employment opportunities. It is a process that seeks not only to ensure an increase in the level of per capita income of the rural areas, but also the standard of living of the rural population.

Consequences: - can be defined as a results, effects or outcomes of poverty typically one that is unwelcome or unpleasant. It can also be defined as something or condition produced by a cause (poverty) or necessarily following from a set of conditions.

Poverty Alleviation: -Poverty alleviation involves improving the living conditions of people who are already poor. Poverty reduction measures are intended to raise and enable the poor to create wealth for themselves as a means for ending poverty forever.

Prevalence of Poverty: -In this study it means the percentage of those persons below the poverty line or threshold within a particular area. It also, means that poverty is pre dominant, commonly happening or frequently found in the area.

Gender Dimension of Poverty: -In the context of this research gender dimension of Poverty means the inability of either male or female person to satisfy his/her basic needs of life no person should live without.

Causal factors of Youth's Poverty: - Herein this study it means those factors which can cause or leads individual to poverty such as unemployment, underemployment, illiteracy, drug abuse, lack of capital etc.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.0 Introduction

This chapter of the study is divided into two parts. The first part deals with literature review based on the topic and the second part describes the theoretical framework for the study. In the first part, literature relating to the study of poverty among the youths in our rural areas were consulted and reviewed so as to obtain more insights into the area of the study and find out the gap existing in the literature with the aim of complimenting it. The second part deals with theoretical framework. These theories, includes: culture of poverty theory, capitalist theory of poverty and basic resources theory of poverty. But the theoretical framework that underpins this study is the Culture of Poverty theory which attributed the youth's poverty in the rural areas to the culture of the rural people.

2.1.1 The Concept of Poverty

Poverty is one of the main symptoms or manifestations of under-development. It has adverse effects on the people, national economies, political and social development of the affected countries. Poverty affects many aspects of the human conditions, including physical, moral and psychological conditions. The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) state that:

Poverty is hunger, lack of shelter, being sick and not being able to see a doctor when sick, not having access to school and not knowing how to read and write. Poverty is not having a job, but is the fear for the future, living one day at a time, losing a child to illness brought about by water borne diseases, (UNDP, Human Development Report, 2007: 120).

Poverty is powerlessness, lack of representation and freedom (World Bank Report, 1994/2004:20). Narayan (2000) stressed that "poverty is multi-dimensional; she argued that the

definitions of poverty and its causes vary by gender, age, culture and other social and economic contexts”. Aluko (1975) refers to poverty as “a lack of command over basic consumption needs, which means that there is an inadequate level of consumption giving rise to insufficient food, clothing and/or shelter, and moreover, the lack of certain capacities, such as being able to participate with dignity in society”. Poverty has been defined as “the inability to attain a minimum standard of living”, (World Bank Report, 1990:14). Aliyu (1992) defined poverty as:

Not having enough to eat, a high rate of infant mortality, a low life expectancy, low educational opportunities, poor water, inadequate health care, unfit housing and a lack of active participation in the decision making process (Aliyu, 1992: 66).

The United Nations Programme, (1990) has introduced the use of such other indices to define poverty as: life expectancy; infant mortality rate; primary school enrolment ratio and number of persons per physician. The vision 2020 defines poverty as “a condition in which a person is unable to meet minimum requirements of basic needs of food, health, housing, education and clothing”. Narayan (2000) captures the definition from the point of view of the poor in different countries in the following perspectives. Poverty is “humiliation, the sense of being dependent and of being forced to accept rudeness, insults, and indifference when we seek help”. Another of such views of the poor is that expressed by a poor man in Kenya in 1999, as reported by Narayan (2000) thus:

Don’t ask me what poverty is because you have met it outside house. Look at the house and count the number of holes. Look at my utensils and the clothes that, I am wearing. Look at everything and write and what you see. What you see is poverty (Narayan, 2000:30).

The concept of poverty which reflects its numerous visible attributes is multi-dimensional in nature. Poverty according to Aliyu (2006) is a multi-dimensional, because it affects many aspects of the human conditions, including physical, moral and psychological conditions. For many societies, poverty is a concrete phenomenon and can easily be identified. It is also relative because the population that may be classified as poor in a developed economy could be regarded as materially well off in least developed countries. Conventional measures of poverty count the number of people below the poverty line and define the poverty rate as the proportion of total population below the poverty line.

Dudley (1975) seers:

Poverty largely in the light of the need for personal growth in Nigeria, according to him, the basic needs, which any society should provide for its members, should include such things as: food, clothing, shelter, education, health, work and mobility. Dudley provided some basic indicators of the state of basic services especially in relation to the poor in Nigeria, (Dudley, 1975, cited in Aliyu, 2006:74).

Steward (1985) argues to the fact that:

There is substantial under reporting in basic indicators especially in child mortality, diseases and morbidity. She also, states that there is positive urban bias in government expenditure for basic services significantly inadequate income to meet basic food needs let alone basic services, (Steward, 1985 cited in Shehu, 2006:74).

Ogwumike (1987) defined poverty as “a household’s inability to provide sufficient income to satisfy its need for food, shelter, education, clothing and transportation”. Minimum standards for food are based on nutritional requirements in terms of calories and proteins consumption habit and customs are also allowed for in the selection of the food items to give the required national stock. Shelter and education, the number of person per room and the room and the number of children attending school (and the level of schooling)

respectively, are adopted as minimum standard. However, the problem of defining minimum standard for clothing and transportation has persisted, (Ogwumike, 1987).

According to the World Bank Report (1996) poverty is “pronounced deprivation in well-being”. This of course begs the question of what is meant by well-being. One approach is to think of one’s well-being as the command over commodities in general, so people are better off if they have a greater command over resources. In this view, the main focus is on whether households or individual have enough resources to meet their needs. Typically poverty is then measured by comparing an individual’s income or consumption with some defined threshold below which they are considered to be poor. This is the most conventional view of poverty. Perhaps the broadest, approach to well-being and poverty is one articulated by Sen who noted that:

Well-being comes from a capability to function in society. Thus, poverty arises when people ‘lack key capabilities and so have inadequate incomes or education, security or low self-confidence, or a sense of powerlessness or the absence of rights such as freedom of speech’. Viewed in this way, poverty is a multi-dimensional phenomenon, and less amenable to simple solutions. So, for instance, while higher average incomes will certainly help reduce poverty, these may need to be accompanied by measures to empower the poor, or ensure them against risks, or to address specific weaknesses such as inadequate availability of schools or a corrupt health service, (Sen, 1987:25).

Accordingly, poverty depicts “a situation in which a given material means of sustenance within a given society is hardly enough for subsistence in that society”, (Townsend, 1962, cited in Mustapha, 2008). Poverty can be viewed as the situation of people whose ‘resources’ (material, social and cultural) are so limited as to exclude them from the minimum accepted way of life in the society they live in. Poverty is one of the oldest enemies of mankind (Iqbal, 2002 cited in Mustapha, 2008).

It is also a multi-faceted condition, as it has many dimensions which include poor access to public services and infrastructure, unsanitary environmental surrounding, illiteracy and ignorance, poor health, poor safe drinking water, insecurity, voicelessness and social exclusion as well as low level of household income and food security (Hodges, 2001 cited in Basirka, 2014:5).

2.1.2 Causes of Poverty in Nigeria

Poverty has no single cause. It is produced by a number of sometimes interrelated, wide, diverse and complex factors. Conventional explanations for poverty in Nigeria ranged from lack of capital, low-level technology, and huge population and economic mismanagement. All these causative factors are applicable to Nigeria. Shehu (1996) stated that poverty depends on a host of factors such as limited productive resources, lack of skills for gainful employment, location disadvantages, or endemic socio-political and cultural factors.

The Socio-Economic Profile of Nigeria (Federal Office of Statistics, 1996) summarized the main causes of poverty in Nigeria as follows:-

- (1) Inadequate access to employment opportunities for the poor. The stunted growth of economic activities or growth often causes this with labour saving devices;
- (2) Lack or inadequate access to assets such as land and capital by the poor. This is often attributed to the absence of land reform and minimal opportunities for small-scale credits;

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

(4) Inadequate access to market for the goods and service that the poor can sell; this is caused by their remote geographic locations or other factors;

(5) Inadequate access to education; health; sanitation and water services. This emanates from inequitable social service delivery, which consequently results in the inability of the poor to live a healthy and active life and take full advantage of employment opportunities;

(6) The destruction of the natural resource endowments, which has led to reduced productivity of agriculture, forestry and fisheries. This often resulted from the desperate survival strategies of the poor as well as inadequate and ineffective public policy on natural resource management;

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

(8) Inadequate involvement of the poor in the design of development programmes. This is often exacerbated by the non-involvement of the representatives of the poor

communities or beneficiaries in the discussion, preparation, design and implementation of programmes that will affect them.

2.1. 3 Manifestations of Poverty

As a multi-dimensional phenomenon, poverty manifests in various forms, including: hunger and malnutrition, ill health, a lack of (or limited) access to education and other basic services, increased morbidity and mortality from illness, homelessness or inadequate housing, poor living conditions, and social discrimination and exclusion; it is also characterized by the absence of opportunities to participate in decision-making and in civil and socio-cultural affairs (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2007:40).

In addition, the basic features of poverty include: inadequate food supply, poor drinking water, poor nutrition, unfit housing, high rate of infant mortality, low life expectancy, low educational opportunity, lack of productive assets, lack of economic infrastructure, insecurity, inability to participate in decision making process, etc (Abubakar, 2002, cited in Wakili, 2007). All these aspects of poverty are life-shortening, involving great suffering and pain from disease, hunger and they undermine an essential dignity and decency of life (Dower, 1991).

Poverty refers to 'a situation of deprivation in which an individual or group of individuals in a society lack the requisite resources, opportunities or means of livelihood to lead a long, healthy and satisfactory life by being unable to provide for their basic life requirements such as water, food, shelter, clothing, sanitation and a minimum level of

medication’ (Onuoha, 2007:95). Usually, for policy direction to single out those to be assisted or regarded as poor, the incidence of poverty in a country is measured in terms of the percentage of the people living below the poverty line. The poverty line refers to the income level below which a minimum nutritionally adequate diet, plus essential non-food requirements are not affordable (Okafor, 2004:106).

Mostly used by the United Nations, World Bank, and Governments to estimate the prevalence of poverty, the poverty line is measured in terms of the proportion of the population living on less than one US dollar a day. Based on this benchmark, the latest national survey puts the percentage of Nigeria’s population living below the poverty line to be about 54 per cent. It is reported that about 90 percent of Nigerian youths live on less than US\$ 2 per day (United Nations Human development Report, 2007).

2.1.4 Dimensions of Poverty

It is difficult to define the condition of poverty except to say that it is a situation in which people have great difficulty meeting basic needs for food, shelter, and clothing. Poverty can be thought of in absolute or relative terms and it has been conceptualized in both the ‘relative’ and ‘absolute’ sense. This is generally based on whether relative or absolute standards are adopted in the determination of the minimum income required to meet basic life’s necessities. The relative conceptualization of poverty is largely income-based or ultimately so. It is difficult to define the condition of poverty except to say that it is a situation in which people have great difficulty meeting basic needs for food, shelter, and clothing.

Absolute Poverty: is a situation in which people lack the resources to satisfy their basic needs no person should be without. Absolute poverty is often expressed as a state of being that falls below a certain threshold or a minimum. In this regard, the United Nations has set the absolute poverty threshold in developing countries at the equivalent of US \$ 1.00 per day. The World Bank, (2009), on the other hand, believes that threshold should be set at US \$1.25 per day. According to the UN threshold, there are 1.1 billion people who live in a state of absolute poverty. Based on the World Bank (2008) threshold, that number is 1.4 billion people. According to the World Bank (1981), “in 1980 about 750 million people lived in absolute poverty in the developing world, about 33 percent of its population (these estimates exclude China)”.

Addressing the World Bank’s Annual Meeting in Nairobi in 1973, Mr. McNamara, the then President of the Bank, called upon the world to focus on those in “absolute poverty”- those “who suffer a condition of life so degrading by disease, illiteracy, malnutrition, and squalor as to deny its victims basic human necessities”. McLaren (1984) described the absolute poverty as he observed in Mauritania in this way:

Poverty “is

- (i) Eating the same meal every day;
- (ii) Living in the same quarters as goats and cows;
- (iii) Not having access to clean drinking water;
- (iv) Sleeping on a plastic mat between your body and the sand.
- (v) No longer caring about improving your life”, (McLaren, 1984, cited in Chambers, 1983).

Relative Poverty: Is measured not by some objective standard, but rather by comparing the situation of those at the bottom against an average situation or against the situation of others who are more advantaged. When thinking of poverty in relative terms, one thinks not just about an inability to meet basic needs, but about a relative lack of access to goods and services that people living in a particular time and place have come to expect as necessities. This notion of relating poverty to basic needs or necessities was also expressed by Adam Smith (1776) in his book entitled “An Inquiry into the Nature and Wealth of Nations” where he said:

By necessities, I understand not only the commodities which are indispensably necessary for the support of life, but whatever the custom of the country renders it indecent for creditable people, even of the lowest order, to be without. A linen shirt, for example, is strictly speaking not a necessity of life... But in the present time..... a credible day labourer would be ashamed to appear without a linen shirt, (Smith, 1776, cited in Aliyu, 2003:50).

2.1.5 Youths and Society

The term ‘youth’ has been a subject of intense polemics in academic writings. At least four major definitional interpretations of the term is identifiable in extant literature, namely youth as an age category; as transitional stage between childhood and adulthood; a social construct; and as a ‘social shifter’. Without prejudice to other definitions by member states, the United Nations defines ‘youth’ as those persons between the ages of 15 and 24 years. Social constructionists like Manni and Truzzi (1982), sees youth as “mere social creation”, explaining that the way society organizes its labour, values and symbol influences how the youth is defined (Bomoi, 2007). For transitionists (Kenniston, 1972; Manning, 1973), youth refers to a period of life “between childhood or adolescent and adulthood”. Soares (2000) and Balle (2007) viewed the youth from the perspective of a social shifter—a relational term incorporating identity, time and space. However, scholars

like Richter and Panday (2007:293) insist that ‘young people are not fixed category, neither historically, politically, culturally, socially and personally’.

Essentially for the purpose, of this study the age category definition is adopted. In Nigeria, a youth as defined by the National Policy on Youth, as any individual who is a citizen of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, between the ages of 18 and 35 (National Youth Policy, 2001, cited in). Though varied in their interpretations, these definitions are useful in that it calls for caution in dealing with youth matters and the necessity to put in place effective policy and varieties of programmes to mobilize, empower and channel the energies of youths to positive end in society (Bomoi, 2007).

In Nigeria, widespread poverty constitutes the dominant structural factors that impede youth’s development. This problem not only leads to youth disempowerment, but create conditions that predisposes the youth to deviant behaviours which hinder economic growth, political stability, harmonious social cohesion, and overall national development. The negative development indices that characterize a country are to a large extent a manifestation of problems symptomatic of youth disempowerment in a society.

2.1.6 Youths Unemployment and Poverty in Nigeria

Nigeria is a country caught in-between affluence and affliction. Over the last four decades, the country has generated unprecedented wealth through the sale of crude oil, yet majority of its youthful population wallow in poverty. Moreover, ‘the country has the potential to build a prosperous economy, reduce poverty significantly, and provide the basic social and economic services to its population needs’ (APRM, 2008:8). With a population of over

140 million people, Nigeria is Africa's most populous country and one-sixth of the world's black nation, (NPC, 2006).

Unemployment has become a major problem in Nigeria and millions of graduates and school leavers are busy roaming the streets in search of elusive jobs. However, government at all levels is paying lip service to creating employment opportunities for the people. As the mass of the unemployed roam the street, government officials, elected and appointed, are busy enlarging their coast at the expense of the people. While the people are groaning under poverty and penury, the government is busy reeling out statistics that the economy is growing. Some of the unemployed youths have died of frustration; while many are persevering, hoping that life will better for them.

It is the 8th largest oil-producer and has the 6th largest deposit of natural gas in the world, coupled with the possession of over 100 tertiary institutions producing more than 200,000 graduates per annum, (Soludo, 2006, cited in Basirka, 2014:10). The country is blessed with abundant natural resources and human capital critical for national development. Despite its plentiful resources and oil wealth, Nigeria's potential remained largely untapped, and at best, grossly mismanaged. It is an inescapable fact that more than 70% of the Nigerian populace (youths) are currently unemployed or under employed. Those who are employed are earning wages that cannot feed them, let alone meet their various needs, (Morphy, 2008).

More alarming is the fact that the burden of this huge unemployment is borne by youths and other energetic adults. Nigeria has a large youthful population. Between 1991 and 2006, the youth population in Nigeria has been defined as persons between 18 and 35 years of age, has grown from 22.5 million to over 30 million. Young people currently comprise over 25 per cent of the Nigerian population. In addition to the youth population, 32.40 per cent of the total population is children below the age of 18 years. If these two groups are taken together, the population of Nigerians below the age of 35 comprises more than half of the population. In absolute numbers therefore there are more young people in Nigeria than ever before (Youth Position Paper, 2007:4).

The Nigerian youths are facing a lot of challenges, top on the list being unemployment, poverty and diseases (especially HIV/AIDS). Globally, poverty among the rural youths constitutes a serious problem. According to the latest World Youth Report, youth make up 25 per cent of the global working-age population but account for 43.7 per cent of the unemployed, which means that almost every other jobless person in the world is between the ages of 15 and 24 (United Nations, 2007:238). Also, a study by the International Labour Organization observed that youth unemployment in the world increased from 11.7 per cent in 1993 to an historical high of 14.4 per cent (88 million) in 2003 (International Labour Organization, 2004). In the West African sub-region, youth unemployment has been described as a 'ticking time bomb' (UNOWA, 2006).

The Nigerian experience is symptomatic of the impending social disasters. Poverty rate in - Nigeria has worsened over the years due to weak economy. It is estimated that about 70

percent of those who are poor in Nigeria are young people between the ages of 13-25 years (Youth Position Paper, 2007:4). More than 80 per cent of the Nigerian youth are unemployed while about 10 per cent are under-employed. The estimated 10 per cent in employment are burdened and depressed with near total dependence of relative and family members. Youth unemployment in Nigeria is being compounded by the phenomenon of graduate unemployment and an informal sector harbouring a substantial portion of underemployed. Graduates with “godfathers” find it easier to secure jobs after graduation while those without “godfathers” spend years unemployed.

Table 2.1: Unemployment Rates in Nigeria by 2016

Nigeria Labour	Last	Previous
Unemployment Rate	13.30	12.10
Population	182.20	178.52
Unemployed Persons	10644.00	9485.30
Youth Unemployment Rate	24.00	21.50
Employed Persons	69042.30	69001.3
Employment Change	79465.00	499521
Employment Rate	86.40	87.90

Source: National Bureau of Statistics (2016:35).

From table 2.1 above, it can be seen that Nigeria’s unemployment rate was recorded at 13.3 percent in second quarter of 2016, up from 12.1 percent in the three months to March, reaching the highest since 2009. The number of unemployed persons rose by 12.2 percent to 10.644 million; employment barely rose by 0.06 percent to 69.04 million and labour force increased to 1.78 percent to 79.9 million. Meanwhile, youth unemployment increased to 24 percent from 21.5 percent. Unemployment Rate in Nigeria averaged 9.28

percent from 2006 until 2016, reaching an all-time high of 19.70 percent in the fourth quarter of 2009 and a record low of 5.10 percent in the fourth quarter of 2010.

Table 2.2: Trends in Poverty Level in Nigeria between 1980 – 2011 (in %)

Year		1980	1985	1992	1996	2004	2010	2011
Levels	National	46.3	28.1	42.7	65.6	54.4	69.0	54.4
	Urban	37.8	17.2	37.5	58.2	43.2	61.8	43.2
	Rural	51.4	28.3	46.0	69.3	63.3	73.2	63.3

Source: (National Bureau of Statistics, Nigeria 2012)

The above poverty statistics shown on table 2.2 above indicates a national relative poverty level of 54.4 percent for 2011. This indicates that the poverty situation in Nigeria has worsened with 73 percent relative rural poverty compared with the urban relative poverty level of 61 percent shows that the incidence of poverty is worse in the rural areas than the urban centres. The absolute poverty level in Nigeria for the same period is put at 60 percent Absolute poverty for the rural poverty in the same period is 66 percent while the urban is 52 percent. Although the use of income poverty measures alone does not suffice in estimating poverty in a population, the estimates presented in table 2 suggest that the percentages of youth living in poverty are extremely high in Nigeria.

Youths are the foundation of a society. Their energy, inventiveness, character and orientation define the pace of development and the security of a nation. Through their creative talents and labour power, a nation makes giant strides in economic development and socio-political attainments. In their dreams and hopes, a nation finds her motivation;

on their energies, she builds her vitality and purpose and because of their dreams and aspirations, the future of a nation is assured, (Obasanjo, 2001:1).

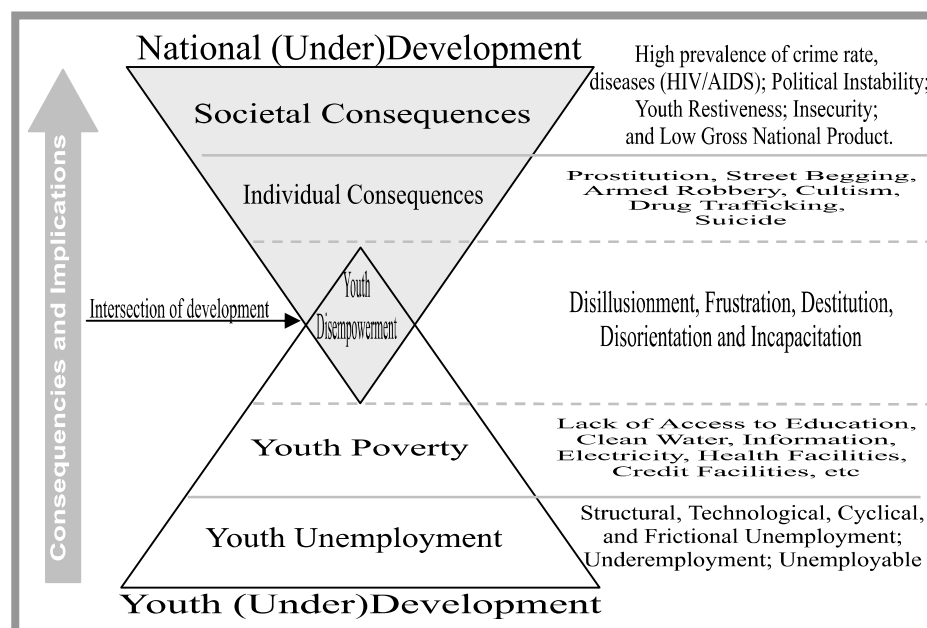
2.1.7 Youth Unemployment, Poverty and National Development

One useful way of understanding the connections between youth unemployment and poverty and national development is to place the analysis within the broader context of the intricate relationship that exists between youth development and national development. In this way, youth unemployment and poverty stand out as the prominent obstacles to effective youth development in a society. The term ‘youth development is used here to refer to a set of principles, a philosophy or approach emphasizing active support for the growing capacity of young people by individuals, organizations, and institutions, to enable them lead a healthy, satisfying, and productive life, as youth and later as adults in a society. In this sense, it involves the application of principles to a planned set of activities that foster the development process in young people (Bomoi, 2007; William-West, 2007).

Against the backdrop of our understanding of the term ‘development’, we view a country’s development as an embodiment of two transformative processes: individual/youth development and societal/national development. Together they constitute a mutually interwoven process of qualitative transformation in a country. Seen in this way, the individual/youth is a subset of the nation, entailing that overall youth development translates to national development and vice versa. Thus, the youth constitute the infrastructure upon which other superstructure (politics, economy, ideology, religion) of the society is built to sustain continuity, change and progress in the society.

In reality therefore, the youth could best be seen as an enigmatic phenomenon imbued with both positive and negative attributes. As critical national asset with varying qualities, when they are properly nurtured, mobilized and offered opportunity to participate effectively and constructively in the development process, they go a long way to undertaking and sustaining the process of national development. Conversely, failure to nurture, harness and properly mobilize them for effective participation, by removing both structural and institutional factors that may impede their ability and commitment to realize their full potentials will lead to their underdevelopment or disempowerment. The structural factors that inhibit individual and, by extension, national development include poverty, unemployment and inequality (Seer, 1972).

Figure 2.1: Linkages between Youth Unemployment and Poverty and National Development



Adapted from: Onuoha, 2006:4

Therefore, national development begins with the process of eliminating the obstacles that hinder people from transforming their physical, biological and socio-economic environment for the individual fulfillment and for the benefit of society at large (Onuoha, 2006:4). The rate at which these obstacles can be reduced, if not eliminated, depends to a large extent on the manner in which human and material resources of a society are organized or utilized by the government.

This underscores the role of governance, particularly the political leadership in determining how power and resources are committed to eliminating these obstacles. To realize the potentials of the youth as the engine of national development, Roberts (2007:433) cogently contends that ‘governments have a salient role to perform in addressing these obstacles and facilitating successful transition to adulthood by pursuing policies and programmes that reduce poverty and expand opportunities for employment’. This suggests that the rate of a nation’s development is largely dependent on the extent to which the enormous potentials of its youth are harnessed and utilized by the government to promote and sustain economic growth and social progress.

2.1.8 The Concept and Theories of Development

Until the last decade the term development was used mainly in its economic sense. The term was therefore, used to implies the capacity of a national economy “whose initial economic condition has been more or less static for a long time to generate and sustain an annual increase of its gross national product at rates of perhaps 5 to 7 percent or more” (Todaro, 1979:95). Another conception of development has been the use of rates of

growth of per capital GNP and this is supposed to take into consideration the ability of a nation to expand its output at a rate faster than the growth rate of its population.

Finally, development has also been conceived in terms of the planned alteration of the structure of production and employment so that agriculture's share of both declines, whereas that of the manufacturing and service industries increases. It is clear from the preceding conceptions of development that in the 1950s and 1960s, development was seen essentially as an economic phenomenon. They believed that improvements in overall and per capita GNP would go down to the masses in the form of jobs and other economic opportunities, or create the necessary conditions for the wider distribution of the economic and social benefits of growth (Onokerhoraye, 1985). This is so, despite the achievement of the level of growth stipulated by the United Nations, the levels of living of the masses remained in most cases unchanged. As a result, there was a clamour for the redefinition of development which will take into consideration "the reduction or elimination of poverty, inequality and unemployment within the context of a growing economy".

Thus, a new concept of development is now being used in the literature. The term 'development' has been variously conceptualized by scholars and writers. According to Todaro (1979:95) development implies the "multi-dimensional process involving changes in structures, attitudes and institutions as well as the acceleration of economic growth, the reduction of inequality and eradication of absolute poverty". In other words, development is now viewed as a sustained increase in the socio-economic welfare of a population.

According to Rodney (1972:9), development in human society is a “many sided process that occurs at three levels: individual, social group, and society. At the level of the individual, it implies increased skill and capacity, greater freedom, creativity, self-discipline, responsibility and material well-being”. Although some of these are virtually moral categories and are difficult to evaluate, what is indisputable is that the achievement of any of these aspects of personal development is very much tied with the state of the society as a whole. At the level of social group and society, Rodney (1972) argues that:

A society develops economically as its members increase jointly their capacity for dealing with the environment. This capacity for dealing with the environment is dependent on the extent to which they understand the laws of nature (science), on the extent to which they put that understanding into practice by devising tools (technology), and on the manner in which work is organized (Rodney, 1972:10).

According to the Nnoli:

Development is a dialectical phenomenon in which the individual and society interact with the physical, biological and inter human environment transforming them for their own betterment and that of humanity at large and being transformed in the process. The lessons learned and the experiences gained in this process are passed on to future generations, enabling them to improve their capacities to make further valuable changes in their inter-human relations and their ability to transform nature (Nnoli 1982:36).

The insight, one can gain from the above conceptualizations is that development is:

- human-centered rather than artifacts-centered;
- a dynamic process rather than a static state;
- involves a complex relationship between individual and society; and
- Predicated essentially on production rather than on consumption.

Development is a multi-faceted phenomenon which encompasses the desire and practical utility to make progress and attain higher level of change; transformation; improved well-

being. As a concept, development is a cornerstone of theoretical and empirical discourse on the drive to achieve some meaningful improvement in the life of people and communities worldwide. According to Lenin (1968) development is a progressive movement, ascension from lower to higher stage and from simple to complex situations. Rodney (1972) sees development as the ability of a man to conquer his environment and utilize it to his advantage, the process involve the development of tools, skills and the mobilization of required resources for development. For Nnoli (1980) development is a checklist of technical artifacts. Accordingly the availability of schools, hospitals, road network, electricity, boreholes, and other infrastructural facilities are indicators of development.

Contrary to Nnoli, Dudley Seers (1972) raised so many critical questions as the key to understanding development, accordingly to him the question to ask about the development of a country are three (3): what has been happening to poverty?; what has been happening to unemployment?; what has been happening to inequality? If all three of these have declined from high levels, then beyond any doubt, this has been a period of development for the country concerned, even if per capita income had soared.

Simon (2004) sees development as an improvement in the quality of life (not just material standard of living) but in both qualitative and quantitative terms. He opines that development must be seen as actually and temporally relative, needing to be appropriate to time, space, society and culture. Todaro (1982) defined development as a “multi-dimensional process involving the re-organization and re-orientation of the entire

economic and social system. This involves in addition the improvement of income and output, radical changes in institutional, social and administrative structures as well as in popular attitudes, customs and beliefs”. Todaro sees development as both a physical process and a state of the mind (psychological). The transformation of institution is one aspect; the other aspect is that the thinking of the people must be change.

Akpakpan (2004) maintained that almost in every society, such desired conditions include:

- (i) Increased capacity to produce needed goods and services.
- (ii) Reduction in absolute poverty.
- (iii) Reduction in economic inequalities.
- (iv) Improvement in the quality of life, as measured by access to clean and safe water, adequate health services, good roads, constant power supply and decent accommodation etc.
- (v) Reduction in the level of unemployment.

These conditions, according to Akpakpan are all important in every society because they work together to improve social welfare and also have a positive effects on the external image of the society.

2.1.9Theories of Development

There are many theories that provide explanations on development. However, these theories will be used for the purpose of this study. They include modernization and dependency theories.

2.1.10 Modernization Theory

The evolutionary perspective implies that social change entails progress and that all societies must follow the same path in their development process to develop. Poor countries are presumed to need to embrace the values and imitate the experiences of industrialized western nations in order to become modernized and civilized (Hoselitz, 1960; Rostow, 1960; Inkeles and Smith, 1975). The poverty of some countries is because of their failure to adapt the “appropriate”, “progressive” western values which are the reason for their underdevelopment. Modernization theory is largely based on the view that to develop means to become ‘modern’ by adopting Western cultural values and social institutions. It is suggested that underdeveloped societies had subscribed to the value systems and institutions that hinder with their development process and for them to develop means they should copy from the Western style of development for them to progress.

Modernization theory is a global version of the culture of poverty analysis, which argues that the value systems of the poor countries interfere with those nations, development and modernization. Such countries are therefore, “less developed” or “more primitive” than the “developed” countries. Many industrialized countries have helped poor nations improve their quality of life, but we must be careful not to confuse the sharing of expertise, knowledge, and equipments with a judgement concerning cultural values.

The modernization movement of the 1950s and 1960s is an economic theory that is rooted in capitalism. The concept of modernization incorporates the full spectrum of the transition and drastic transformation that a traditional society has to undergo in order to

become modern (Hussain, 1981; Lenin, 1964). Modernization is about Africa (rural areas) following the developmental footsteps of Europe largely the colonizers of Africa (Urban Areas). According to modernity, policies intended to raise the standard of living of the poor (rural areas) often consist of disseminating knowledge and information about more efficient techniques of production. For instance, the agricultural modernization process involves encouraging farmers to try new crops, new production methods and new marketing skills (Elis and Biggs, 2001).

In general, modernization leads to the introduction of hybrids, the green house technology, genetically modified (GMO) food, use of artificial fertilizers, insecticides, tractors and the application of other scientific knowledge to replace traditional agricultural practices. The above view is endorsed by Smith who pointed out that modernization is about exchanging of older agricultural practices with something more recent (Smith, 1973: 61). Agricultural societies can therefore be regarded as modern when they display specific characteristics. The extent to which these characteristics are exhibited gives an indication of the degree of modernity that has been reached.

The characteristics are cited succinctly by Coetzee et al. (2007: 31) as:

- (i) Readiness to accommodate the process of transformation resulting from changes.
- (ii) Continuous broadening of life experiences and receptiveness to new knowledge.
- (iii) Continuous planning, calculability and readiness towards new experiences.

- (iv) Predictability of action and the ability to exercise effective control.
- (v) High premium on technical skills and understanding of the principles of production.
- (vi) Changing attitudes to kinship, family roles, family size and the role of religion.
- (vii) Changing consumer behavior and the acceptance of social stratification.

Apparently, the responsibility of developing rural areas is placed in the custody of the metropolitan areas. The metropolis (urban areas) implicitly or explicitly implied that rural areas are lagging far behind other areas. Rural development ensures the modernization of the rural society and transition from its traditional isolation to integration with the national economy. It is essential so as to generate foreign exchange, and to attract more revenue to finance public and private consumption and investment. Rural development may also be seen as an ideology and practice that ensure the speedy improvement of the living standards of the rural population.

Criticisms of Modernization Theory

Modernization theory is accused of neglecting the historical antecedents as a factor for the underdevelopment of third world countries, by concentrating only on the traditional aspect of their societies. The theory is also, accused as being racist and Euro centric, as the scholars did not see anything good with non-western societies. Perhaps the most crippling weakness of the modernization theory is its oversimplified view of social change. They

ignored that human nature has a propensity to resist change in favour of the status-quo, (Coetzee et al., 2007: 67).

Conclusively, the failure of modernization theory to adequately provide explanation to the issue of development in the third world nations is what set a stage for the emergence of new alternative, the dependency model.

2.1.11 Rostowian Theory

Rostow claimed that for rural areas to achieve development they had to pass through distinct stages. The Rostowian theory identifies the stages as:

- (i) **Primitive society:** The stage is characterized by subsistence farming and barter trade;
- (ii) **Preparation for take-off:** The characteristics of the stage are; specialization, production of surplus goods and trade. Transport infrastructure is developed to support trade. The stage encourages savings and investment;
- (iii) **Take-off stage:** At this stage industrialization increases and the economy switches from agriculture to manufacturing;
- (iv) **Drive to maturity stage:** At this stage the economy diversifies into new areas and there is less reliance on imports;
- (v) **Period of mass consumption Stage:** At this stage, the economy gears on mass production and service sector becomes increasingly dominating.

The above idea depicts modernization as a process of change whereby external factors have an impact on the individual and on culture.

Criticisms of Rostowian Theory

- (1) The above view is rather too theoretical, because most economies in Africa invest in agriculture, manufacturing and tourism. It is therefore, not easy to classify economies into neat categories as suggested by the Rostowian linear development theory;
- (2) The theory is criticized for failing to consider the poor as the centerpiece in poverty reduction initiatives;
- (3) The other intriguing weakness of the theory is that it is based on deterministic reason which states that within the linear model of socio-economic development, changes are initiated externally. The premise encourages the foreign powers to prescribe the route to development.

2.1.12 Dependency Theory

The theory arose as a reaction, response and an alternative to modernization theory, it was developed in the late 1950's as a body of theories predicated on the notion that resources flow from a "periphery" or poor and underdeveloped states to a "core" of wealthy states, enriching the latter at the expense of the former. The theory was further developed from a Marxist perspective by Paul Baran in 1957 with the publication of his book "The Political Economy of Growth", and with the works of other scholars such as Andre Gunder Frank, Paul Sweezy, Fernando Henrique Cardoso, Oswald Sunkel, Walter Rodney,

Samir Amin etc. The central theme of the dependency theory is that, the current socio-economic condition of third world countries are the product of certain historical forces, which have originated from European expansion of economic dominance, (Dos Santos, 1970)

Thus, the periphery (underdeveloped countries) play a satellite role which Amin (1974) called 'hypertrophy of the tertiary sector'. Dependency theory further shows that historical dependency has been the root cause of the Nigeria's problem of under-development. This is because it has serious effects on the people's customs and economy. Dependency theories owe their origin to the work of Paul, and later the works of Theotonio Dos Santos, Samir Amin and Gunder Frank, all originating from the study of Latin American capitalism.

Dos Santos (1990) defines dependency as:

A conditioning situation in which the economies of one group of countries are conditioned by the development and expansion of others. A relationship of interdependence between two or more economies or between such economies and the world trading system becomes a dependent relationship when some countries can expand through self-impulsion while others, being in a dependent position, can only expand as a reflection of the dominant countries, which may have positive or negative effects on their immediate development. Following the stream of Marxist tradition, dependency theories attempt to explain the perpetuation and widening of differences between the developed capitalist economy and the developing economies. The dependency theorists are emphasizing that the monopoly of power exercised by the developed economies through trade, transfer of technology, finance assistance, and other means, are exploiting the developing economies, to the extent that the development of the developing economies (periphery) depend on the development of the developed economies (center)(Dos Santos, 1990: 289-290).

Later, world system theory which was developed by Immanuel Wallenstein expanded the dependency arguments, when he argued that the poverty of the dependent nations was a direct consequence of the evolution of international political economy into a fairly rigid

division of labour which favoured the rich and penalized the poor, and to postulates a third category of countries, the semi periphery which is the intermediate between the core and periphery. He argued that semi-periphery are industrialized but with less sophistication of technology than in the core, and it does not control finances. They also, believe that the same process that produces development in the core produces underdevelopment in the periphery.

The culprit is the international capitalist system as it was argued by Rodney that “when two societies of different sorts came into prolonged and effective contact the rate and character of change taking place in both is seriously affected to the extent that entirely new patterns are created and the weaker of the two societies (i.e. the one with less economic capacity) is bound to be adversely affected, and the bigger the gap between the two societies the more detrimental the consequence. Dependency schools are of the belief that the present dependent relationship is the direct consequence of the historical relationship between the core and periphery nations, colonialism, imperialism, to the era of neo-colonialism.

As argued by Rodney (1972) that:

Colonialism amounted to consistent expatriation of surplus produced by African labour out of African resources which ensure the development of Europe at the same dialectical process in which African was underdeveloped. They also blame slave trade as a factor that promotes dependency as Frank argued that “the trade in slavery resulted in tremendous profits for both slave traders and plantation owners in the 18th century, which led to super accumulation of capital which was invested in Britain’s Industrial Revolution and consequently helped kick-start industrial development in UK. In the same way Rodney accused European slave trade, as a direct block to the development of the third world countries as it removes millions of youths and abled young adults who are the human agents from whom inventiveness springs, while those who remained in the areas were only pre-occupied with their freedom rather than improving their society (Rodney, 1972: 11).

Dependency theorists challenge the basic tenet of modernization theory that poor countries (rural areas) fail to modernize because they reject the free-market principles and because they lack the cultural values that drive entrepreneurship. Rather, dependency theorists argue that poor countries (rural areas) are poor because they have been, and continue to be, exploited by the world's wealthiest governments (urban areas) and by the global and multinational corporations that are based in the wealthy countries (urban areas). This exploitation began with colonialism.

Dependency theory holds that for the most part, poor countries (rural areas) are poor because they are the products of a colonial past. Poverty in third world countries, according to Weede (1995), can be explained via the dependency theories propounded by Galtung, Walterstein and Bornschier. For them, the major causes of poverty in the Less Developed Countries (LDCs) rural areas are vertical trade-export of raw materials to and importation of processed goods from the developed nations, (urban areas) and international market distortions by the developed nations and the penetration of (LDCs) by multinational corporations (MNCs). It was realized that in addition to the above factors, famine, wars and political instability are some of the greatest contributors to poverty in third world countries of Africa, Asia, the Middle East and Latin America.

A cursory look at events in these countries will reveal that governments of many less developed countries are unstable. In their political intrigues and war activities, they use up resources that would have been devoted to economic growth and elevation of the living standard of their population. Senseless acquisition of public funds by government officials to the extent that in some under-developed countries, one individual could be richer than the entire country, is seen as an exercise in poverty level aggravation. Dependency

theorists further argued that as a result of our colonial heritage, our indigenous system now our rural areas exist as playing the peripheral role in relation to their counterpart urban areas.

In addition, dependency theory shown clearly that due to the neglect of the rural areas by government, despite their contribution to food security and production of raw materials for industrial use, there is certain elements of poverty among the rural youths. The theory clearly further shows that the government does not see the need to consult the rural people (especially the rural youths) to what their needs are and better ways of satisfying their needs, especially in the areas that need urgent attention. Policies of the government are usually made by the elites, to the detriment of the masses who are the majority that usually, engages in the agricultural activities in the rural areas.

Also, corruption and lack of good leadership also made worse the situation and lack of consciousness from the part of the poor who are voiceless in society, hence their inability to change the situation and the condition of the rural areas for better living standards. Consequently, proponents of the dependency theory asserted that the present conditions of poor agricultural production in Nigeria is due to the forces of under-development arising from the colonial experience, and continued existence of that system. Therefore, for both rural areas and agricultural development to be achieve they argued, this structure has to be changed for any meaningful development to take place in the third world countries, Nigeria inclusive.

Criticisms of Dependency Theory

Dependency theories have four major weaknesses. Firstly, although they offer an appealing explanation of why many poor countries or societies remain underdeveloped, they give no insight into how countries or societies initiate and sustain their development. Secondly, and perhaps more important, the actual economic experience of Less Developed Countries (LDCs) that have pursued revolutionary campaigns of industrial nationalization and state-run production has been mostly negative. Thirdly, some scholars also denied the argument that the development of core nations is as a result of colonialism, as there are many countries without colonies such as U.S.A. and Japan, yet they performed better than those colonizers. Fourthly, with the economic growth of India and some East Asia countries, which are also colonized, some scholars rejected dependency's idea of accusing colonialism as the basis of underdevelopment.

2.1.14 National Development

As viewed from this perspective, national development could therefore, be defined as the unending process of qualitative and quantitative transformation in the capacity of a national entity to organize the process of production and distribution of the material benefits of society in a manner that sustains improvement in the well-being of its individual members in order to enhance their capacity to realize their full potentials, in furtherance of the positive transformation and sustenance of their society and humanity at large. Thus, national development is an ensemble of sustained improvement in the political, social, economic, health, and environmental aspects of any organized political society. In this way, the political variables of national development include the level of

political stability, free and fairness of the electoral process, representativeness of political institutions, and respect for human right.

The economic parameters include the gross national product, nature of income distribution, pattern of resource management, among others. The social dimension will capture gender equality, the living standard of the citizens, including access to social services like water, education, security, electricity, road, among others. The environmental aspect reflects the character of resource exploitation, nature of environmental degradation, level of environmental awareness among the citizens.

2.1.15 Rural Poverty

Rural areas houses plentiful economic resources, paradoxically, the area languishes in poverty as evidenced by high prevalence of famine, disease and ignorance (Buthelezi, 2007). Using the most recent poverty indicators such as illiteracy, access to safe water and the number of poor people, Nigeria is ranked low and it's GNP per capita is also lower, while purchasing power continues to decline with high inflation and increasing income inequality (World Bank, Economic and Social Database, 1996).

Nigeria, the most populous nation in sub-Saharan Africa with her population of 140 million (National Population Census, 2007) estimated now to be 158.4 million out of which rural population is 79,528,437 and estimated 50,739,143 number of rural poor (World Bank, 2010). Rural poverty is often a hidden problem. The rural poor are not concentrated in ghettos; therefore, they rarely make the news about their social living

conditions. Yet, rural poverty exists; and because rural poverty rates have been increasing, the poverty issue is receiving increasing attention.

Most of the poor rural people in the world live in areas of marked wet-dry tropical seasons. For the majority whose livelihoods depend on cultivation the most difficult time of the year is usually the wet season, especially before the first harvest (chambers, 1993:20). The existence of poverty in Nigeria is not an exaggeration. The country is categorized among the countries with large number of citizens who are poor (Elumilade, Asaolu and Adereti, 2006 cited in Basirka, 2014:5). In Nigeria, poverty is predominantly a rural phenomenon as most of its severe indicators manifest more in the rural than in urban areas. Wikili (2007) opined that the consequences of poverty are predominantly in rural states like Jigawa. The Central Bank of Nigeria has in 2008 released a report on Nigeria's poverty situation and the then Governor of the Bank Charles, Soludo said Jigawa state was the poorest among the 36 states of the federation including Abuja, with poverty rate of 95%. Examining the situation of this extreme poverty in the state, Thomas (2009) stated that, Jigawa State has one of the highest maternal mortality rates in the country.

2.1.16 Rural Development

The term rural development at present means various things to various people (Williams, 1978). For a long time, rural development and agricultural output were viewed as referring to the same situation. In recent years, however, it has been argued that agriculture is by no means the only possible occupation for rural people and accordingly a new and broader view of rural development has emerged. The definition of rural development varies from

one point of view to the other and changes over time. The term rural development connotes overall development of rural areas to improve the quality of life of rural people.

In this sense, it is a comprehensive and multi-dimensional concept, and encompasses the development of agriculture and allied activities, village and cottage industries and crafts, socio-economic infrastructure, community services and facilities and, above all, human resources in rural areas. As a strategy, it is designed to improve the economic and social well-being of a specific group of people, the rural poor, (Katar and Singh, 1999). According to Diejomoh rural development is a process of not only increasing the level of per capita income in the rural sector, but also the standard of living of the rural people. This definition goes on to observe that the standard of living depends on a complex of factors such as food and nutrition levels, health, education, housing, recreation, security among others (Udo, 1984).

Rural development has also been defined as the outcome of a series of quantitative changes occurring among a given rural population and whose emerging effects indicate in time a rise in the standard of living and favourable changes in the way of life of the people concerned. According to Lele (1975) rural development implies improving living standards of the mass of the low-income population residing in rural areas and making the process of their development self-sustaining. In other words, rural development goes beyond agricultural and economic growth. It entails the creation and fair sharing of social and economic benefits resulting from this growth. Strategically, the focus of rural development is to improve the economic and social conditions of the underprivileged sections of rural society. The main emphasis of rural development is about agricultural

production and consequently to expand and promote productive employment opportunities for rural masses, especially the poor, by integrating production, infrastructure, human resource and institutional development measures.

Rural development in general is used to denote the actions and initiatives taken to improve the standard of living in non-urban neighborhoods, country side and villages. Agricultural activities may be prominent in this case whereas economic activities would relate to the primary sector, production of food stuffs and raw materials, (Tessy, 2014: 1).

Mabogunje (1981) sees rural development as “essentially a human process” and defines it:

As concerned with the improvement of the living standards of the low income population living in the rural areas on a self-sustaining basis through transforming the socio-special structures of their productive activities (Mabogunje, 1981 cited in Mustapha, 2008:14).

The World Bank (1975) defined rural development “as a strategy designed to improve the social life of a specific group of a people the rural poor”. According to William (1978) rural development “could be seen as sustained attempts to transform the rural area in such a way that the problems in the rural areas which make life very difficult and uncomfortable are minimized to ensure improved living condition”.

A reasonable definition of rural development would be development that benefits rural populations; where development is understood as the sustained improvement of the population’s standards of living or welfare. Rural development is a veritable tool for fighting poverty and achieving economic prosperity at the grass root level. Rural development can be seen as not an outside intervention, but the aspiration of local people

living in rural areas for taking the challenge themselves and improving their life circumstances and their immediate environment. The concept of rural development embraced by most countries connotes a process through which rural poverty is alleviated by sustained increase in the productivity and incomes of low incomes workers and households.

Rural development should be a design strategy to improve the economic and social life of the rural people. It should involve extending the benefits of development to the poorest among those who seek livelihood in the rural sector. These groups include the small scale farmers, peasants, landless, tenant farmers, crafts, rural women and rural micro economic enterprises (World Bank Report, 1992). Olayide et al, (1981) sees rural development as a process whereby concerted efforts are made in order to facilitate significant increase in rural resources, productivity with the central objective of enhancing rural income and creating employment opportunity in rural communities for rural dwellers to remain in the area. It is also an integrated approach to food production, provision of physical, social, and institutional infrastructures with an ultimate goal of bringing about good healthcare delivery system, affordable and quality education, improved and sustainable agriculture etc.

Rural development ensures the modernization of the rural society and transition from its traditional isolation to integration with the national economy. It is essential so as to generate foreign exchange, and to attract more revenue to finance public and private consumption and investment. Rural development may also be seen as an ideology and

practice that ensure the speedy improvement of the living standards of the rural population. However, rural development could be defined as a process whereby concerted efforts are made in order to facilitate significant increase in rural resource productivity with the overall aim of improving rural incomes and employment opportunities. It is a process that seeks not only to ensure an increase in the level of per capita income of the rural areas, but also the standard of living of the rural population it could equally be said to be a process of social, economic and institutional reconstruction in which the people are the architects of construction as well as beneficiaries. That is to say that rural development is people oriented.

2.1.17 Agriculture and Rural Development

Nigeria has abundant arable land and labour force which, with sound policies could be translated into increased production, incomes and food security. This has not materialized because of lack of consistent policies and effective implementation strategies. Iruanagbe (2009) posits that agriculture involves the utilization of land, animal husbandry, poultry, fishing, forestry and food processing. Agriculture is the most important economic sector in terms of its contribution to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of Nigeria after oil. The sector contributes about 41 percent of Nigeria's GDP, employs about 65 percent of the total population and provides employment to about 80 percent of the rural population (ADP, 2005).

Agricultural development is a sub-set of economic development and implies a sustained increase in the level of production and productivity over a reasonable length of time the subsequent improved well-being of farmers as reflected in their higher per capita income

and standard of living. Rural development relates not only to a sustained increase in the level of production and productivity of all rural people, including farmers and a sustained improvement in their well-being, manifested by increasing per capita income and standard of living, but also leads to a sustained physical, social and economic improvement of rural communities.

Agriculture in Nigeria is the most important sector of the economy from the standpoint of rural employment, sufficiency in food production and export earning prior to the discovery of oil. This point is emphasizing that as at independence in 1960, little was known about petroleum as a source of revenue for the Nigerian economy. There was sustained emphasis on agriculture to the extent that Nigeria was a major exporter of such agricultural products such as: cocoa, groundnuts, cotton, and rubber etc. In addition, to these cash crops, the national agricultural system was able to produce enough of food crops like maize, cassava, yam, millet, sorghum and soya beans to the extent that there was almost no need for food importation. Hitherto, agriculture accounted for over 60% of the nation's Gross Domestic Product (GDP). However, with the discovery of oil in the early 1970's petroleum became the country's major foreign exchange earner and agriculture became grossly neglected though the sustainer of the economy (Shehu, 2008).

2.1.18 Theories of Rural Development

The followings are some of the rural development theories reviewed.

The Internal Combustion Theory

The internal combustion theory is basically concern with the internal forces as the major determinants of development. It argues that economic development in any area (rural) is a

reflection of the internal forces within it rather than basic natural resources. Amongst these internal sources of growth are technology, specialization, economies of scale and the existence of growth stimulating institutional, political and administrative arrangements. The basic argument of the internal combustion theory is that the requirements of growth can be deliberately created or modified; as such growth can occur anywhere. This theory attributes economic growth and development to forces within an area or country other than basic natural resources.

This theory was not also free from criticisms as critics pointed that although evidence exists of areas or countries that have developed with limited basic resources, it should be emphasized that it is rare for appreciable economic growth to occur in the absence of basic resources. What is usually obtained in practice is that in an attempt to exploit basic resources, investors are forced to be creative and innovative. Also, World economic history shows that though internal forces are important, they are not always crucial. On the other hand, external forces tend to exert a critical influence on the pace of development especially through technology.

A further limitation of the basic resource theory is its failure to emphasize the operation of diminishing returns which sets in when resources are exploited in an environment where population growth is rapid and where technology is static. Finally, the theory fails to recognize the role of technology in development. The value and utility of specific natural resources depend on the availability of relevant technology. In other words, natural

resources are of little use if the appropriate technology to facilitate their exploitation and utilization is non-existent.

The Dual Economy Models

The dual economy model stipulate that the typical less developed country (economy) is characterized by the existence of two distinct sectors, namely, the modern sector (urban area) and the traditional (rural area) subsistence sector. According to the models, the modern sector (urban area) is market oriented and uses considerable capital equipments and technology while the subsistence sector (rural area) produces for family consumption and relies on non-purchased input such as family labour and land for production. Thus, the subsistence sector (rural area) is said to be characterized by the absence of savings and capital formation. This situation coupled with the virtual absence of technology largely explains why the productivity of labour is very low and why resources are under-utilized in this sector (Essang, 1975 cited in Onokerhoraye).

The dual economy model therefore, articulates a development strategy which emphasizes the concentration of resources on the dynamic, commercial modern sector (urban area) and withdrawing resources from the subsistence sector (rural area) for this purpose. It is argued that this strategy would ensure cumulative growth of incomes, employment and rapid structural transformation of the under-developed rural areas. In the original Lewisian model, industry, via capital accumulation provides the “engine for growth”. The agricultural sector is important but plays a supportive and passive role in the growth sense, by merely providing a pool of unlimited cheap unskilled labour for use by industry. It also supplies cheap food to the urban industrial dwellers. Viewed in this sense, the

development process in the classical Lewisian scheme consists of the progressive enlargement of the capitalist industrial sector. Thus, in a labour economy, aggregate employment increases as capital formation increases in the industrial sector. But, when cheap unlimited labour is exhausted, agriculture now imposes a limit to the expansion of the capitalist industrial sector. The increase in wages causes profit to decline and consequently, capital accumulation and employment will fall.

In neo-classical dualism, (Jorgenson, 1961; Dixit 1969; Zarembka, 1970; Kell, 1972; Millo, 1974), argued that the agricultural sector is no longer the passive supplier of food and unlimited cheap labour, rather it plays a more active role, since steady-state equilibrium in a dualistic economy depends on the rate of agricultural output per man. Thus, enlargement of the industrial sector is not at the expense of the agricultural sector, as in the basic Lewisian theory, but depends on investment in and hence expansion of agriculture. The post Lewisian dual economy is characterized by the availability of an unlimited cheap labour and unlimited cheap land. In such an economy, capital accumulation plays the classic role of being the ‘engine of growth’ but for steady growth, agriculture must be commercialized – a process which requires considerable investment by government in the agricultural sector as in Nigeria.

The characteristics of this model, makes the formulators prescribe it as the most appropriate development strategy for developing countries. This approach consists of concentrating resources from the subsistence sector (rural area) for this purpose. It was believed that this strategy would ensure cumulative growth of incomes, employment and

rapid structural transformations of the underdeveloped rural areas. Indeed, Ranis and Fei (1961) were at pains to emphasize that as development proceeded in the modern sector (urban area), a time would arrive when surplus labour would cease to exist in the subsistence sector (rural area).

2.1.19 Effortsof the Government at Curbing Poverty in Nigeria

Measures to reduce the incidence of poverty have remained at the front burner of government policies the world over in the last two decades. Specifically, the governments at the various levels in Nigeria have introduced different poverty alleviation programmes to reduce the suffering of the masses. Successive Nigerian regimes have adopted series of measures to ameliorate the plight of the poor but, regrettably, the application of capitalist policies and strategies has not been able to alleviate poverty in Nigeria. On the contrary, the poverty level has soared instead of abating. Nigeria is the most populous black African country with a population of about 150 million made up of over 250 ethnic groups (National Population Commission, 2006).

The majority of the people are enmeshed in the net of abject poverty due to faulty economic policies and unsustainable poverty alleviationprogrammes of successive governments. The essence of development is to achieve satisfactory standard of living of the people within the existing or improved structural framework. The primary focus of economic development of any nation is to positively transform the well-being of individual citizens and better the human living conditions.Nigeria is a wealthy country with majority of its population living below the poverty line. The federal government in line with global contentions has been responding to ameliorate the worsening conditions

of the poor by shifting public expenditure towards poverty alleviation programmes to cushion the effects of poverty. It has been known in Nigeria that every government embarks on one form of poverty reduction strategy or the other.

Similarly, successive Nigerian governments since 1960 have attempts to alleviate poverty among Nigerians through various sectoral programmes: in agriculture, health, transport, housing and financial sectors. Some multi-sectoral programmes were also introduced. These included the National Directorate of Employment (NDE), Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures (DFRRI), Better Life for Rural Women and Family Support Programme, just to mention a few. To this end, the Nigerian government made poverty alleviation one of its objectives in the 1996 budget. Several programmes were instituted by the Nigerian government to achieve its objective. Community Action Programme for Poverty Alleviation (CAPPA) 1997 and the Family Economic Advancement Programme (FEAP) 1997 among others. To meet its commitment to these programmes, the Nigerian government earmarked the sum of N4 billion in 1997. All these (government) policies have failed to achieve their objectives as millions of Nigerian still remain poor.

2.1.20 Poverty Alleviation Programmes in Nigeria

The complexity of the manifestation of poverty in the lives of Nigerians has been engendered through efforts aimed at tackling poverty through sectoral and multi-sectoral approaches. Sectoral approaches include agriculture, health, education, transport, housing and the financial sectors, while the multi-sectoral approach includes the National Directorate of Employment (NDE), Directorate of Food Roads and Rural Infrastructures

(DFRRI), Better Life for Rural Women, Family Support Programme and many others. The various sectoral and multi-sectoral approaches are discussed below:-

2.1.21 Sectoral Poverty Alleviations Programmes in Nigeria

(a) Go Back to the Farm (Agriculture):

During the mid-1950s and early 1960s, rural development was viewed as agricultural development. Consequently, rural development worldwide was intensified to eradicate poverty, raise the standard of living of rural dwellers and develop agricultural productivity. Efforts at poverty alleviation by the Nigerian government can be traced to 1960. The government established in the Western Region the Farm Settlement Scheme in the region in 1960, and was replicated in the Eastern Region in 1962, in the Northern Region in 1963 and in the Mid-Western Region in 1964. The scheme was targeted at solving the unemployment problem of school leavers. However, lack of equipment, qualified personnel and the general lack of interest by the target group rendered the attempt unsuccessful.

As far back as 1971, the Nigerian government had identified poverty as a hindrance to rural development. Hence, in line with World Bank recommendation which was based on the agricultural survey of Nigeria, the federal government embarked on implementing three pilot integrated agricultural and rural development projects in Funtua, Gusau and Gombe. These projects were aimed at stimulating increased food production and enhancing the income of the rural population". Between 1970 and 1982 the contribution of agriculture to Gross Domestic Product (GDP) fell from 45 per cent to 27 per cent,

agricultural contribution to exports nose-dived from 70% to 20% during the same period. Importation of goods consequently increased substantially in the same period. Therefore, in the mid to late 1970s, strategies such as Operation Feed the Nation and Agricultural Credit Guarantee Scheme Fund were adopted. All these attempts failed to meet the food need of the nation or uplift the poor.

Similarly, during the civilian administration of President Shehu Shagari, the Green Revolution was adopted with the aim of improving farm produce and rural living standard. It was aimed at creating enabling environment in the rural areas to discourage farm labour from migrating to urban centres. However, political instability, inconsistencies in government policies and other exigencies led to the failure of the projects. Instead there was increase in the number of the rural poor, decrease in food production and increase in rural-urban drift. It was subsequently scrapped. To raise agricultural productivity as well as the living standards of the rural areas, the River Development Projects were adopted around the 80s. This also met with failure, which made the government to excise some of its departments and what was left was discredited in the mid-80s.

Other agricultural strategies include the establishment of National Agricultural Land Development Authority (NALDA) in 1991, the Strategy Grains Reserves Programme, the development of fishery, small ruminant production and pasture grazing reserve. Central Bank of Nigeria's reports of 1995 showed that NALDA's operation in 30 states of the federation encouraged small holder farmers to bring more land under cultivation thus, improving agricultural output and consequently reducing household expenditure on food,

which led to poverty alleviation. The same CBN reports recorded that the performance of NALDA was constrained by inadequate and untimely release of funds and shortage of farm machinery.

(b) *The Financial Sector:*

Government efforts at alleviating poverty through the financial sector included the establishment of development banks: the Agricultural Credit Guarantees Scheme (ACGS), the Central Bank of Nigeria rural banking programme which was replaced by Community Banks and the People's Bank of Nigeria with operations similar to non-formal banking. The Rural Banking Scheme was introduced in 1977. It was aimed at bringing banking services to the rural areas. Unfortunately, limited success was recorded because the banks were reluctant to open rural branches for many reasons. The most important of the reasons was the lack of basic infrastructures in the rural areas. To support the above sectoral and multi-sectoral government efforts, a relief package was also provided to alleviate poverty caused by the effects of Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP). In June 1989, the Federal Government gave an extra-budgetary relief package amounting to N494.9 million to provide employment opportunities, improve health care delivery and reduce transport difficulties.

Similarly, in 1989, the People's Bank of Nigeria was established to meet the needs of the poor small-scale business entrepreneurs. This was a non-formal bank designed to lend money to the poor without collateral. It depended solely on the Federal government grants. It extended credit to the poor who could not otherwise have access to credit facilities in the commercial and merchant banks. In like manner, the Community Bank was

established in 1990. Owned and managed by communities it was intended to provide financial services to members on easy terms such as self-recognition and credit-worthiness. Skepticism was however expressed about appropriate funding and management. The Nigerian Bank for Commerce and Industry was established in 1993. This was designed to provide loans for small and medium-scale enterprises but the bank could not achieve much party because it resorted to conventional banking requirements for granting loans.

(c) The Health Sector:

The main goal of Nigeria's health policy was the provision of affordable health service to large proportion of Nigerians. This included health education, adequate nutrition, safe drinking water, sanitation, maternal and child health with referral to other levels of health care. Some of the health schemes included the Primary Health Care Scheme which was aimed at providing at least one health centre in every local government area. Another was the UNICEF assisted Guinea worm Eradication Programme launched in 1988. It recorded great success. Though the effectiveness of public health care programmes was hindered by inadequate funding from local governments and lack of equipment, essential drugs and trained manpower, the number of reported cases reduced from 650,000 in 1983 to 222, by the end of 1992. The Expanded Programme on Immunization (EPI) established in 1992 was to cater for the health need of the rural people,

(d) Education Sector:

Since 1971, the major focus of the National Policy on Education has remained making education meet the economic need and development of every Nigerian. Though the

Federal Government has spent huge sums of money on education, much of it had been spent on secondary and tertiary education whereas it is the primary and adult education that the poor need most. The Universal Primary Education (UPE) programme started during Third National Development Plan (1975-1980) was abandoned at the national level. Most states either continued or abandoned the plan too. This (together with inadequate funding) invariably led to the rapid fall in the standard of education. Some programmes specifically targeted at the poor include, the nomadic education developed to train the children of nomads, especially in the north. Other programmes were focused on girls' education, adult literacy, women and children in exceptionally deficient circumstances. Despite effort made toward making education come within the reach of all Nigerian only adult literacy rate, which at stood 49.8 in 1980 Increased marginally to 55.0 in 1995.

(e) The Housing Sector:

The National Housing Policy was launched in February 1991 by the Federal Government through the establishment of National Housing Fund managed by the Federal Mortgage Bank of Nigeria. To moderate the acute shortage of shelter, the government also designed a programme for direct construction of house. The government constructed some prototype bungalows ranging from one to three bedroom sizes which were presumably sold to the low income earners. It launched the National Housing Construction for 1994/95 which was expected to build 121, 000 housing units. In addition, "the Federal Housing Authority (FHA) was involved in direct construction of housing units. In Abuja, the FHA completed 1.114 housing units in the Federal Capital Territory in 1994 alone. These efforts have however not drastically reduced the housing problems faced by the poor because they could not afford the rents or outright purchase of the houses.

2.1.22 Multi-Sectoral Poverty Alleviation Programmes in Nigeria

Apart from the above sectoral programmes, several multi-sectoral programmes were embarked upon to alleviate poverty in Nigeria. Some of which were women-friendly. They include the following:

(a) Better Life for Rural Women:

The programme was established in 1988 by the then First Lady, Hajiya Maryam Babangida, as her pet project. It focused on rural women in rural areas. It aimed at boosting the economic activities of women in the rural areas through agricultural extension services, education and vocational training, cottage industries and food processing, primary health care delivery and enlightenment. It also, assisted with inputs and credit facilities to carry out these programmes. However, the target groups did not get the full benefits of the programme. It thus, led to minimal success in alleviating the poverty of the rural women.

(b) Family Support Programme:

This programme was initiated by another First Lady, Mrs. Maryam Abacha, in 1998 to replace the Better Life Programme of Maryam Babangida. It aimed at improving and sustaining family cohesion through the promotion of social and economic well-being of the Nigerian families. In order to contribute to national development, special policy programmes were introduced in the health, education and agriculture sectors. These come in the mode of child welfare and youth development, women in development, disability, destitution and income generation programmes.

(c) Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI):

This programme was established in 1986 to alleviate poverty through the development of rural infrastructures. It was expected to provide basic amenities like access roads, rural electrification and portable water to ease the living conditions of the rural people. The programme was criticized for its lack of special design to meet the needs of the vulnerable poor. DFRRI could not achieve its set objectives because there was no effective standard for project co-ordination and harmonization among the three tiers of government and between DFRRI and the various governments.

(d) National Directorate of Employment (NDE):

The programme was launched in 1987 for the purpose of creating employment opportunities in form of self-employment and self-reliance aimed at poverty reduction among unemployed youths in rural and urban areas. This was to be achieved through the training of the youths in different arts and crafts and providing them with soft loans and equipments. It had four main programmes; Vocational Skills Development, Special Public Works, Small Scale Enterprise and Agriculture. In 1989, the sum of W650 millions was allocated to the NDE for the employment of 62,000 graduates and non-graduates nationwide as part of extra-budgetary relief package by the federal government. This was to cushion the effects of the then Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP). Though the directorate gave loans, trained the unemployed and assisted 156 rationalized all poverty eradication institutions and small scale entrepreneurs in various ways, it was impossible to cope with the ever increasing application in the face of inadequate funds;

(e) *Mass Mobilization for Social Justice and Economic Reconstruction (MAMSER):*

The programme was introduced in 1986 to mobilize and encourage the participation of grassroots people in development. This was done through integrated rural development and basic needs strategy;

(f) *Community Action Programme for Poverty Alleviation (CAPPA):*

CAPPA was yet another Federal Government programme aimed at alleviating poverty. It was established in 1997. Its objectives were to improve the living conditions of the poor through a targeted, cost-effective, demand-driven and promptly delivered programme. Other aims include enhancing the productivity of the poor through skills improvement and improving the nutritional status of the poor through improved household food security and health practices. Though these were laudable objectives, the basis and framework for adopting these methods were not clear. Besides, the poor people were already discouraged and it was unclear how the government would encourage them to participate in the programme.

(g) *Family Economic Advancement Programme (FEAP):*

The programme was introduced in 1993 as an investment promotion and poverty alleviation programme by the Federal Government. Aimed at stimulating appropriate economic activities nation-wide, it focused on the provision of loans to promote entrepreneurship and business opportunities

(h) *National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP):*

After examining the report of a committee set up to study the achievements of previous poverty alleviation programmes. President Obasanjo introduced the NAPEP and situated it

in the office of the President. This hold step was to eradicate (and not only alleviate) poverty through four different schemes as follows:

(i) Youth Empowerment Schemes (YES):

This Youth Empowerment Schemes (YES) was designed to empower the youth to acquire skills that will make them self-reliant and improve or build their capacity through on-the-job training,

(ii) Rural Infrastructures Development Scheme (RIDS):

Under this second scheme, the government would provide the people with good and portable drinking water by sinking boreholes in each local government area of Nigeria. Also, the abandoned water projects by the Petroleum Trust Fund (PTF) were to be completed.

(iii) Social Welfare Services Schemes (SOWESS):

This is meant to provide social amenities such as transportation through the Federal Mass Transit Schemes.

(iv) National Resources Development and Conservation Scheme (NRDCS):

The Natural Resources Development and Conservation Scheme (NRDCS) was to harness the agricultural, water and solid, mineral resources; conserve the land and space (beaches, reclaimed land, etc.) particularly, for convenient and effective use by small scale operators and the immediate community. To ensure well-coordinated and monitored poverty eradication efforts, the federal government streamlined and programmes. Thereafter, NAPEP became the comprehensive structure for coordinating and monitoring the

activities of the core poverty eradication ministries and agencies. Apart from government effort at alleviating poverty in Nigeria, some non-government organizations (NGOs) have also attempted to alleviate poverty in Nigeria.

(v) Nigeria Structural Advancement Programme (SAP)

Under the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) introduced in 1986, Nigeria reformed its foreign exchange system, trade policies, and business and agricultural regulations. This success notwithstanding, per capita income is still only US\$320 and consumption and income are little higher (in real per capita terms) than they were in the early 1970s before the oil boom. Because over 90 percent of Nigeria's export earnings are from oil, growth in agriculture and manufacturing could offset little of the large drop in purchasing power that resulted from the collapse of oil export revenues that had prompted the adoption of the SAP.

For Nigeria to break its vicious circle of excessive public spending, inflation, and exchange rate depreciation, and to reach the virtuous circle achieved by these other developing countries, it will need to adopt a package of stabilization and structural measures that ensures the efficient use of resources (by both the public and private sectors) and the provision of basic social services. This path offers Nigeria the best prospects for sustaining economic growth and poverty reduction.

It was because of this boom in revenue that Nigeria was shielded from the effects of the world economic recession of the 1970s. While some non-oil producing African countries suffered stagnation, Nigeria enjoyed an economic boom as seen by growing industrial

sector, a rising per capita income, a favourable payment position and a comfortable external reserve capable of covering imports for many months. The unprecedented wealth of the 70s made the Nigerian leaders to believe that “money is not our problem”, ignoring the fact that oil is a wasting assets.

Therefore, the leaders embarked upon the expending of the oil wealth rather than laying down a solid foundation for sustained economic growth. The illusion that oil wealth created and the emphasis on import substitution industrialization led to the neglect of agriculture, which hitherto was the mainstay of the economy. Even though the manufacturing sector expanded, there were no forward and backward linkages with the agricultural section. Consequently, there was a marked concentration of industries in the light of manufacturing consumer goods, with virtually no intermediate and capital goods sector. The Nigerian economy has not been in good shape in the last two decades.

According to Obadan (1997) the introduction of the structural adjustment programme (SAP) in 1986 aggravated the incidence of poverty in Nigeria. SAP caused massive lay-offs; reduction in capacity utilization; closure of industries; hyperinflation rates; high interest rates and unstable foreign exchange rates (Aliyu 1999). With SAP, the middle class that is those living above poverty level became marginalized with the lower class thereby increasing the percentage of the poor. According to FOS and World Bank report on Poverty and Welfare in Nigeria, the population of the poor which was 36.1 million in 1985 and 34.7million in 1992 has jumped to 55.8 million in 1997, (Federal Office of Statistics, 1997). Furthermore, Nigeria’s Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita is low

with the purchasing power on the decline with inflationary trends moving slowly and increasing income inequality.

Due to dwindling fortunes in the country's earning from the oil sector as a result of instability of the International Oil market and the general global recession, poverty was again on the rise in Nigeria. Apart from SAP therefore, the Nigerian economy is characterized by unfavourable exchange rates, lack of budgetary discipline, high level of unemployment, under-utilization of industrial capacity, shortage of raw materials, huge foreign debts and the attendant high cost of debt servicing leaving relatively little income for recurrent and capital expenditure, continued crash in oil prices leading to loss of foreign exchange earnings and a fall in the standard of living as a result of persistent inflation.

There is no doubting the fact that these identified salient features of the Nigerian economy have had remarkable effects on the quality of life of people in Nigeria particularly the poor rural youths whose conditions have been worsening over the years, (FOS, 1997). Arising largely from the economic situation is the problem of unemployment. The level of poverty in Nigeria is high because the level of unemployment is also very high. Presently, Nigeria is faced with the unpleasant phenomenon of highly educated, professionals who are poor because there are no jobs for them.

Furthermore, there is the problem of under-utilization of industrial capacity has meant regular retrenchment exercises in both the private and the public sectors of the economy

thereby aggravating the already high level of unemployment. Thus unemployment is one of the main causes of poverty in Nigeria (CDHR ,1996; NHDR ,1996, 1998).

Several reasons have been given for the failure of these institutions and programmes. First, is the fact that some of the functions of these agencies and programmes have been duplicated leading to unnecessary plurality of influences and interests. Second, in some cases, the implementation agencies have been wrongly identified and as such roles and functions have been wrongly allocated. As a matter of fact, this is the bane of most public concerns in Nigeria, (Aluko, 1999).

Also, coupled with this is the fluctuation in incomes often experienced by some people in certain occupations. For instance farmers and fishermen experience seasonal fluctuations in their incomes because of the lack of storage facilities for their produce. This explains why farm products are cheaper during harvest seasons but later on become costly. Again, fishermen make more catches during the dry season than in the rainy season. This unstable and fluctuating income is a source of poverty to people in these occupations, (Socio-Economic Profile of Nigeria, 1996;NHDR, 1998).

Conscious policy efforts by government towards poverty alleviation began in Nigeria during the era of Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP). The severe economic crisis in the early 1980s worsened the quality of life of most Nigerians. The government made determined effort to check the crisis through the adoption of SAP. However, the implementation of SAP further worsened the living conditions of many Nigerians especially the poor who were the most vulnerable group. This made the government to

design and implement many poverty alleviation programmes between 1986 and 1993. Also, under the guided deregulation that spanned the period 1993 to 1998, more poverty reduction programmes were put in place by government.

The Main Features of SAP

The following are the main features of SAP, which was introduced in 1986.

1. The adoption of a realistic exchange rate policy.
2. Rationalisation and restructuring of tariffs.
3. Strengthening of demand management policies.
4. Adopting measures to stimulate domestic production and broaden the supply base of the economy.
5. Adoption of appropriate pricing policies.
6. Commercialization and or privatization of government enterprises.
7. De-regulation of the economy through the reduction or elimination of administrative controls with greater reliance on market forces.
8. Increased trade and payments liberalization.

In short, the essence of SAP was to liberalize or de-regulate the Nigerian economy. Market forces should determine prices and all bureaucratic bottlenecks that stand in the way of a liberalized economy should be dismantled. Import license must be abolished. The naira, which then was regarded as over-valued, was to find its realistic value through the forces of supply and demand at the second Tier Foreign Exchange Market (SFEM) which was the instrument for the allocation of foreign exchange. The bidding session for the dollar, which all users had to undertake, started towards the end of September 1986.

Problems/Failure of Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP)

Despite some significant degree of success made by some of these programmes, most of them could not be sustained. In fact, with time, many of them failed as a result of diversion from the original focus. For instance, the Rural Banking and the Agricultural Credit Guarantee Scheme at many stages failed to deliver the desired credit for agricultural and rural transformation because a lot of savings were mobilized in the rural areas only to be diverted to urban areas in form of credits/investments. The prime objective of any economic policy package is to achieve an increase in welfare through the maximization of employment opportunities and earned income. SAP in Nigeria has, however, resulted in more unemployment during the past years till today. Many firms were forced to close down because of their lack of competitiveness to foreign firms. The removal of oil subsidy has deepened the problem of inflation. In general, a great majority of Nigerians have suffered a deterioration of living condition till today. Therefore, SAP has created more problems to the Nigerian economy than it has solved. Lack of education has also been identified as one of the causes of poverty. Having large families is also one of the causes of poverty.

In Nigeria as in most of the third world countries, family sizes are usually large. It is common to see a man with as many as four wives and plenty of children. This can be attributed to the tradition of polygyny in most of these societies as well as the Islamic injunction, which allows men to have multiple wives. But this tradition of having large family sizes is in some way breeds poverty. The 'vicious circle of poverty' usually associated with the developing world is again associated with high birth rate and large

family sizes. The head of the family in most cases do not usually have enough resources to sustain and cater for the family at all fronts satisfactorily. Large family size means that the burden of dependency will be high, the propensity to save will be low and hence there will be poverty.

The institutionalization and the culture of corruption in Nigeria have something to do with poverty. A lot of public funds, which could have been used to take care of the poor, are sometimes misallocated or misappropriated. There are startling revelations of public looting and outright diversion of public funds meant for the execution of welfare schemes for the rural poor into private coffers. This culture of corruption has thus aggravated the condition of the poor rural youths as the various programmes designed and agencies established to help them have not been functioning. Again, corruption also weakens governments and lessens their ability to fight poverty, (NHDR, 1997; Aliyu, 1999; Aluko, 1999).

Furthermore, there is the problem of debt burden and its link with poverty. Given such a debt burden, it is very difficult to achieve much success in poverty alleviation, unless, of course, there is substantial debt relief and the country succeeds in reducing significantly over the years its debt burden. The Nigerian poor youths face the most severe constraints on their food production, in getting the right price for their products and in their access to food from the market which renders them vulnerable to food crises and the consequent human deprivation. Food insecurity also leads to productivity losses due to diminished work performance, lower cognitive ability and poor school performance. For Nigerians

engaged in the agricultural sector, production is usually done at the subsistence level and so such people remain largely poor.

(vi) Subsidy Re-Investment and Empowerment Programme (SURE-P)

The Subsidy Re-investment and Empowerment (SURE) programme of the President Goodluck Jonathan's administration was announced towards the end of 2011. However, the actual implementation of the policy was embarked upon in the early 2012 on February 13th, during which members of the SURE Board lead by Dr. Christopher Kolade was inaugurated. The fundamental socio-economic and political issues according to Obuzuwa (2012) that led to the establishment of the SURE programme was the January 1, 2012 federal government of Nigeria's announced removal of the popular fuel subsidy which increased the pump price of the premium motor spirit (PMS) to over 100 percent. In this exercise the pump price of fuel was increased from its last price of N65.00 per litre to the all high price of N145.00 per a litre. The arguments of the federal government for the removal of the fuel subsidy are multifaceted. Among some of the arguments is that:

(i) The Federal Government intends to save that subsidy money and invest same in the economic development of the nation and thereby eradicating the suffering of the Nigerian masses; and that

(ii) The Federal Government intends to spend the subsidy savings in improving the various sectors of the economy especially in infrastructural and services development (Obuzuwa 2012).

Based on the eventual partial removal of subsidy on the pump price of the fuel product that later settled at N97.00 per a litre, the Sure programme of the Federal Government of Nigeria, under the administration of Goodluck Jonathan was birthed. The issue of Petroleum Subsidy is familiar to Nigerians. Over the years, subsidy on Petroleum Products (Diesel, Petrol and Kerosene) have been subjected to progressive subsidy reduction as a matter of socio-economic necessity, whereby the price of Diesel (AGO) is completely deregulated to zero subsidy level. However, Premium Motor Spirit (PMS-petrol) and Household Kerosene (HHK) are still being subsidized despite its un-sustainability and eminent threat to the socio-economic health of the country.

The Federal Government of Nigeria (FGN) is therefore desirous of discontinuing subsidies on prices of petroleum products because this poses a huge financial burden on the government, disproportionately benefits the wealthy, is inefficient and diverts resources away from potential investments in critical infrastructure. The total projected subsidy reinvestible funds per annum are N1.134 trillion based on average crude oil price of US\$90 per barrel. Out of this N478.49 billion accrues to Federal Government, N411.03 billion to State Governments, N203.23 billion to Local Governments, N9.86 billion to the Federal Capital Territory (FCT) and N31.37 billion as Transfers to Derivation and Ecology, Development of Natural Resources and Stabilization Funds.

This programme is focused on utilization of Federal Government's share of the subsidy. Every State and Local Government is expected to design its own programmes utilizing its portion of the subsidy reinvestment funds. The subsidy reinvestment funds from the

discontinuation of the fuel subsidy will be used for the implementation of the programme and to reduce our borrowing needs. The Federal Government has decided to channel its own share of the resources into a combination of programmes to stimulate the economy and alleviate poverty through critical infrastructure and safety net projects. In order to transform the economy, in line with the Vision 20:2020 objectives, critical infrastructure projects in the power, roads, transportation, water and downstream petroleum sectors will be executed.

The potential impact of the discontinuation of the subsidy regime on the poor can be mitigated through properly targeted safety net programmes including Public works and employment schemes, maternal and child health, mass transit programmes and vocational training and skill acquisition schemes. A robust programme structure has been developed to ensure adequate oversight, accountability and implementation of the various projects. The entire project will be overseen by a Board to be constituted by Mr. President. Consulting firms with international reputation will be appointed to provide technical assistance to the Board in financial and project management. Relevant MDAs will set up Project Implementation Units (one for each project sector) to drive implementation. An independent body will be responsible for monitoring and evaluating the implementation and will report directly to the Board.

Rationale for Discontinuing Subsidies

The specific strategic rationale for discontinuing subsidies on petroleum Products are as follows:

- a. The current subsidy regime in which fixed price is maintained irrespective of market realities has resulted in a huge unsustainable subsidy burden.
- b. Fuel subsidies do not reach the intended beneficiaries. Subsidy level is directly correlated with household income, as richer households consume larger quantities of petroleum products. Consequently, the subsidy benefits the rich mostly.
- c. Subsidy administration is beset with inefficiencies, leakages and corruption.
- d. Subsidy has resulted in the diversion of scarce public resources away from investment in critical infrastructure, while putting pressure on government resources.
- e. Subsidy has discouraged competition and stifled private investment in the downstream sector. Due to lack of deregulation, investors have shied away from investment in the development of refineries, petrochemicals, fertilizer plants, etc. It is important to note that since the year 2000, the government has issued 20 licenses for new refineries, none of which have resulted in construction of industry will lead to rapid private sector investment in refineries and petrochemicals, which will generate millions of job and lead to increased prosperity for our people.
- f. Huge price disparity has encouraged smuggling of petroleum products across the borders to neighboring countries, where prices are much higher. Nigeria therefore ends up subsidizing consumption of petroleum products in neighboring countries.

The discontinuation of the current fuel subsidy scheme will save additional resources for investing in programmes targeted at mitigating poverty and spurring economic growth. The Federal Government of Nigeria is therefore committed to setting up a mechanism to ensure that these additional resources are channeled into high impact and visible programmes that will benefit all Nigerians, and especially target the poor and most vulnerable in the country. International experience has demonstrated that the potential untoward impacts of petroleum subsidy removal on the poor can be mitigated through well targeted safety net programmes. Examples from several countries, including Indonesia, Brazil and Iran demonstrate that the impact of similar subsidy withdrawals on the poor can be mitigated through well targeted and executed safety nets programmes, such as those which focus on pregnant women and youth.

These social safety nets are particularly important in Nigeria as we undergo the demographic transition with a projected significant increase in the young population of working age, providing an opportunity for the country to realize its demographic dividend. The improved fiscal space as a result of the withdrawal of the petroleum subsidy also offers an opportunity to accelerate investments in critical infrastructure that will directly spur economic growth and create jobs. This is consistent with this administration's Transformation Agenda to achieve the Vision 20:2020. Nigerians are craving for improved power, road, rail and other infrastructure to deliver inclusive economic growth and improve their quality of life.

Programme Objectives

The objectives of the proposed subsidy Reinvestment and Empowerment Programme are:

- a. To mitigate the immediate impact of the petroleum subsidy discontinuation on the population, but particularly for the poor and vulnerable segments. This applies to both the direct and indirect effects of subsidy withdrawal.
- b. To accelerate economic transformation through investments in critical infrastructure projects, so as to drive economic growth and achieve the Vision 20: 2020.
- c. To lay a foundation for the successful development of a national safety net programme that is better targeted at the poor and most vulnerable on the continuous basis.

2.1.23 Attempts by Nigerian N.G.Os to Alleviate Poverty

Many Nigeria's N.G.Os has adapted traditional credit practices to finance community programmes in order to impacts positively on the lives of Nigerians. The Farmers Development Union (FADU) and the Country Women Association of Nigeria (COWAN) have a national spread and are involved in micro-credit programmes while the Development Exchange Centre (DEC) and Life above Poverty Organization (LAPO) cover several states within a region where they have comparative advantage. Micro-credit has been noted to increase access to basic social services that enhanced the well-being of the very poor. Other NGOs include the Women Famers Association of Nigeria (WOFAN), Alternative Development (Alter Dev.) to mention but a few. They all focused mainly on poverty alleviating activities among the rural poor throughout Nigeria by specifically promotingcommunity-based agricultural projects.

2.1.24 Millennium Development Goals Programme (MDGs)

At the UN Millennium Summit in September 2000, world leaders adopted the Millennium Declaration, committing their countries to a new global partnership to reduce poverty and achieve sustainable development. For the first time in history, countries collectively agreed on a globally applicable set of development goals, indicators and targets, referred to as the MDGs. MDGs are time-bound and quantified targets for addressing extreme poverty in its multiple dimensions – income poverty, hunger, disease, lack of adequate shelter and exclusion – while promoting gender equality, education and environmental sustainability. As the most broadly supported, comprehensive and specific poverty reduction targets the world has ever seen, the MDGs have become the standards for global and country-level self-assessment, peer review and mutual accountability among countries. Currently, the MDGs constitute vital elements of national policies in developing countries, and have become benchmarks by which citizens can hold their governments accountable. With less than three years to 2015, the global community and countries across the world are taking stock of progress made to date, accelerating actions being taken to meet the targets and articulating post-2015 development priorities.

As a signatory to the Millennium Declaration, Nigeria has continued to respond in various ways to the global push towards achievement of the MDGs. Actions have included incorporating the targets in development plans, starting with the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) in 2004, and subsequently in the various State-level Economic Empowerment and Development Strategies. MDG targets and programmes have been mainstreamed in successive development plans, strategies and sector-specific policies, including the Seven Point Agenda in 2007, the Economic

Transformation Agenda, and the Nigeria Vision 20:2020 First Implementation Plan 2010-2013. Some states of the federation have also made significant progress with MDGs-based planning with the support of the Federal Government and international development partners. The MDGs report series progressively tracks the achievements and challenges towards the MDGs' 2015 targets.

2.1.25 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)

In 2000, 189 countries of the world came together to face the future, and what they saw was daunting, Famines, Drought, Wars, Plagues, and Poverty. The perennial problems of the world, was not just in some faraway place, but in their own cities and towns and villages. They knew things did not have to be this way. They knew we had enough food to feed the world, but that it wasn't getting shared. They knew there were medicines for HIV and other diseases, but that they cost a lot. They knew that earthquakes and floods were inevitable, but that the high death tolls were not. They also knew that billions of people worldwide shared their hope for a better future. So leaders from these countries created a plan called the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). This set of 8 goals imagined a future just 15 years off that would be rid of poverty and hunger. It was an ambitious plan. The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) has been one of the leading organizations working to achieve the MDGs. Present in more than 170 countries and territories; we funded projects that helped fulfil the Goals.

We championed the Goals so that people everywhere would know how to do their part. And we acted as "scorekeeper," helping countries track their progress. And the progress in those 15 years has been tremendous. Hunger has been cut in half. Extreme poverty is

down nearly by half. More kids are going to school and fewer are dying. Now these countries want to build on the many successes of the past 15 years, and go further. The new set of goals, the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), aims to end poverty and hunger by 2030. World leaders, recognizing the connection between people and planet, have set goals for the land, the oceans and the waterways.

The world is also better connected now than it was in 2000, and is building a consensus about the future we want. That future is one where everybody has enough food, and can work, and where living on less than \$1.25 a day is a thing of the past. UNDP is proud to continue as a leader in this global movement. The new Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) goals are:

(1) End Poverty in all its forms everywhere; (2) End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture;; (3) Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages (4) Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote life-long learning opportunities for all; (5) Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls; (6) Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all; (7) Ensure access to affordable, reliable, sustainable and modern energy for all; (8) promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all; (9) Building resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and foster innovation; (10) Reduce inequality within and among countries; (11) Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable; (12) Ensure sustainable consumption

and production patterns; (13) Take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts; (14) Conserve and sustainably use the oceans, seas and marine resources for sustainable development; (15) Protect, restore and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems, sustainably manage forests, combat desertification, and halt and reverse land degradation and halt biodiversity loss; (16) Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels; and (17) Partnership for the goals.

2.1.26 Differences between MDGs and SDGs Programmes

MDGs is a plan of action that 189 countries of the world came together with eight (8) goals to change the world and how things were then but the programmes lasted for fifteen (15 years), that is from (2000-2015) though some of the issues were partly achieved, but the world leaders sees that there is the need to add more goals and to modify some from (8-17) so as to confront the future of the world for better. What differentiate the two plans is that the first one was only 8 goals while the later has 17 goals which mean some modifications have been made in order to achieve the target objectives of the both plans of actions.

2.1.27 Why Poverty Alleviations Programmes Failed in Nigeria

In Nigeria, government efforts at poverty reduction have not succeeded in reducing poverty. Some of the factors responsible for this lied in the nature of the socio-political and economic structures, which alienate and exclude the poor from decisions affecting their welfare. Programmes are imposed from the top, with huge overheads, which favoured

contractors, consultants and the cronies of those in power. The politicization of policies aimed at poverty reduction and the interplay of corrupt practices has often led to the displacement of goals and the objectives of programmes designed to reduce the incidence of poverty.

Coupled with this is the problem of political instability, the rapid turnover of programmes of faction and office holders, leading to the truncation of programmes midstream and unnecessary duplication and waste of public resources. Aliyu (1999) contended that in some cases, there is the non-existence of the right or appropriate implementation agencies and strategies thus; creating gaps in the implementation trends of the programmes. Again, there is the problem of poor management, poor accountability, high level of corruption and dishonesty, pursuit of parochial interests, poor staffing, incompetence, lack of commitments, among the rank and file of the workers in many of the implementation agencies.

It has been observed that many of the poverty alleviation programmes failed for several reasons. One of such is the use of wrong approaches. Those who designed the programmes did not involve the poor who are the prospective beneficiaries. It is believed that the target groups should have been involved during the planning and designing stages. Another reason for the failure has been the issue of designing, implementation, and policy acceptability. Other reasons for the failure of poverty alleviation programmes include: their ad-hoc nature, poor design and execution, inadequate staffing and lack of equipments also contributed to the failure of poverty alleviation programmes in Nigeria.

In addition, it has been noted that the scope of the activities of most agencies set up for PAP is too broad. Consequently, the available resources are thinly spreaded into too many activities. An example is the case of DFRRI and Better Life for Rural Women whose programmes covered almost every sector and overlapped with many other existing programmes. Furthermore, wrong location of poverty alleviation projects also led to failure in achieving the set objectives. Designers and planners often make the mistake of sitting projects in places of their own choice without recourse to their appropriateness in view of the population which may be served by such projects. These choices were often informed by personal interests in terms of religions, politics, ethnicity or social inclination. The use of over-sophisticated equipments is another cause of failure.

In an attempt to impress certain individuals, some government/donors often provide sophisticated equipments to communities instead of simple but equally effective and efficient machines. When these equipments got damaged, the programmes too collapsed because there were no spare parts or the technical know-how to operate and maintain them. Besides, the running cost of such equipments may be beyond the reach of the beneficiaries of the projects. It is therefore, important to put into consideration the maintenance and operation of equipments as constant breakdown of equipments often discourage young entrepreneurs. The absence of effective collaboration among the three tiers of governments, duplication of functions and unhealthy rivalries also contributed to the failure of the programmes.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

The analytical framework that underpins this study is the cultural theory of poverty. From the micro perspective, poverty is seen as arising largely from individual dispositions what Bilton et al. (1987) termed the product of deficient personal character and morality. The poor rural youths were seen as thriftless, lazy and undisciplined; lacking initiative and moral fibre. The poor are believed to breed large families. All these submissions are in line with the 'culture of poverty' theory which suggests that the poor are poor because they have different values and a way of life different from the rest of the society. That is, the poor rural youth have a culture of their own which prevents them from achieving success and prosperity. According to Lewis (1966) the poor have a strong sense of fatalism, helplessness, and inferiority. They are oriented to the present and do not plan for the future.

Proponents of this theory argued that the poor rural youths are not simply lacking resources, but also acquire a poverty perpetuating value system. This is due to the fact that youths in the rural Nigeria tend to be traditional, conservative and resistant to change because of the nature of their socialization processes. And the suitable theory to explain the rural youths poverty is the culture of poverty theory, because the theory attributed the rural youths poverty to their culture and their shared beliefs is shared among the members and transmit it from one generation to the next. Although, the major occupation of the rural youths is farming but even in the case of farming they tend to be more practicing the crude and old methods of farming. And also, even in the case of modern techniques they still tend to prefer their olden days methods and implements.

Youths in the rural areas are not exception of these kinds of practices. Even, in the case of land tenure system, the land ownership tends to be fragmented as lands are usually shared among the family members by virtue of inheritance. This has necessitated the youths in the rural areas to engage in subsistence farming thereby producing smaller quantities of output. The overall effect of the above practices are lack of socio-economic and political opportunities manifested in the forms of widespread poverty, unemployment, illiteracy and so on, which deteriorated further the quality of life of the rural youths.

2.2.1 The Cultural Theory of Poverty

The culture of poverty is a social theory that expands on the circle of poverty. Early proponents of this theory argued that the poor rural youths are not simply lacking resources, but also acquire a poverty perpetuating value system. According to anthropologist Oscar Lewis:

The sub-culture of the poor develops mechanisms that tend to perpetuate it, especially because of what happens to the world view, aspirations, and character of children who grow-up in it (Moynihan, 1969: 199).

The theory of a “culture of poverty” was created by the anthropologist Oscar Lewis in his 1959 book, *Five Families: Mexican case studies in the culture of poverty*. The theory roots the cause of poverty in the culture. The culture of poverty theory states that living in conditions of pervasive poverty will lead to the development of a culture or sub-culture adapted to those conditions. This culture is characterized by pervasive feelings of helplessness, dependency, marginality and powerlessness. Furthermore, Lewis described individuals living within a culture of poverty as having little or no sense of history and therefore lacking the knowledge to alleviate their own conditions through collective actions, instead focusing solely on their own troubles.

Thus, for Lewis, the imposition of poverty on a population was the structural cause of the development of a culture of poverty, which then becomes autonomous, as behaviours and attitudes developed within a culture of poverty get passed down to sub-sequent generations through socialization processes. Lewis (1989) contended that poverty is like a culture; it passes down from generation to generation. Thus, the phrase “culture of poverty” is associated with him. According to Lewis as quoted in Compton and Galaway (1989), the life style of the poor is culturally deficient. Poverty spirit sets in motion a self-perpetuating circle of poverty. Lewis believes that poverty breeds poverty. A poor individual has the potentials of breeding poor ones because of the disabilities associated with low income.

This theory is sometimes linked with the individual theory of poverty, but. The ‘culture of poverty’ suggests that poor people learn to be different, and adapt to poverty. This theory suggests that poverty is created by the transmission over generations of a set of beliefs, values, and skills that are socially generated but individually held. Individuals are not necessarily to be blamed because they are victims of their dysfunctional sub-culture or culture. Technically, the culture of poverty is a sub-culture of poor people in ghettos, poor regions, or social contexts where they develop a shared set of beliefs, values and norms for behavior that are separate from but embedded in the culture of the main society. Oscar Lewis was one of the main writers to define the culture of poverty as a set of beliefs and values passed from generation to generation. He posits that:

Once the culture of poverty has come into existence it tends to perpetuate itself. By the time rural/slum children are six or seven they have usually absorbed the basic attitudes and values of their sub-culture. Thereafter, they are psychologically unready to take full advantage of changing conditions or improving opportunities

that may develop in their life-time (Scientific American, October 1996 quoted in Tessy, 2007:120).

This theory of poverty is based on perpetuation of cultural values that has been fraught with controversy. No one disputes that poor people have sub-cultures or that the sub-culture of the poor are distinctive and perhaps detrimental. Looking at the poverty situation in our rural villages, one can say that this theory has presented explanations on rural poverty situation and it is relevant to know that rural people (youths) are poor and they perpetuate their position by the way of their beliefs, custom, tradition and values as well as skills that are socially passed on to the next generation. So we ought to understand that rural poverty in our society is generated by the rural dwellers and sustained in the rural areas by passing the beliefs and values to the next coming generations.

Culture of poverty theory is a global version of modernization theory. The culture of poverty analyst argued that the value systems of the poor rural areas interfere with those areas development and modernization. Such rural areas are therefore, “less developed” or “more primitive” than the “developed” urban areas. Many industrialized urban areas have helped poor rural areas improve their quality of life, but we must be careful not to confuse the sharing of expertise, knowledge, and equipments with a judgement concerning cultural values.

The poverty of some youths in the rural areas is because of their failure to adapt to the “appropriate”, “progressive” western values are the reason for their poverty and under-development. Modernization theory is largely based on the view that for the rural youths to develop means to become ‘modern’ is by adopting Western cultural values and social

institutions. It is suggested that underdeveloped societies (rural areas) had subscribe to the value systems and institutions that hinder with their development process and to develop means the rural areas should copy from the Western style of development (urban areas) for them to progress and develop. From this theoretical position, poverty is seen as largely resulting from individual dispositions. In other words, the poor rural youths are poor because their way of life is different and as such any alteration in this condition had to be achieved through their own efforts. This suggests that the individual's destiny lies in his own hands.

2.2.2 The Capitalist Theory of Poverty

The capitalist theory according to Ohikhueme (1997), states that the rich must be selfish, aggressive and exploitative to be able to maintain the status-quo. This theory tends to lend credence to this, because in such countries or societies there is enough aggregate income to go round, such that no one would have to live in poverty. This phenomenon is, in most cases, associated with countries or societies that are naturally endowed with mineral resources that serve as ready source of foreign exchange.

However, Novak (1995) rightly captured the role of the capitalist system in breeding the conditions of poverty. According to him, poverty is produced by the operation of a capitalist wage labour market because to operate efficiently, that wage labour market needs poverty, or rather poor people existing on the fringes of it. Fear of poverty acts as a disciplinary force on workers and provides evidence that just as hard work and obedience will bring its rewards, so will idleness or inactivity lead to punishment which is poverty.

This shows that poverty is a product of an unequal or capitalist society, therefore only if we change the society will poverty cease to exist in our society. This is because the theory is much closer to explaining poverty in rural Nigeria than all others. No right thinking person will dispute the existence of abundant natural resources in Nigeria that can go round such that no one would have to live in abject poverty like it is the case now. Fear of poverty is used as an instrument of controlling the workers, thereby making people to believe that hard work and obedience brings success while idleness leads to poverty. Since rural areas provided an important source of cheap labor to the capitalists, their prosperity will no doubt decrease the inflow of cheap labor needed by the capitalists and reduce the income disparity between the rich and poor.

Hence, capitalists who also, controlled the government will see to it that rural areas remain poverty ridden so as to maintain the status quo. Until there is radical change in the economic ideology, poverty will have a permanent base in the rural Nigeria. The problem of the state ideology is closely related to the discourse on the politics of poverty. Nigeria is a capitalist nation and one of the evils of capitalism is that it polarizes the society into two camps the rich and the poor. Marx (1963) argued that poverty is largely a problem arising from the exploitative relationship between the workers and the owners of the means of production. The poor rural youths in Nigeria remain poor because the state under capitalism did not establish enough welfare policies and social programmes to take care of the poor.

2.2.3 The Basic Resources Theory

The basic resource theory emphasizes the role of basic natural or environmental resources in the development of any locality, region or (rural area). The model stipulates that economic growth depends on the presence, quality and magnitude of basic natural resources within particular areas or economic regions. It argues that the development of these resources attracts investment capital to these areas, and thereby increasing income level and employment as well as money in circulation in the area or region. There is no doubt that natural resources have a role to play in the development of any locality especially in the initial stages of the process of economic development. In such situations regions or areas with basic resources tend to have a higher income and to grow faster than those with meager resources.

Experience indicates that in many parts of the world, natural resources have influenced their rapid rate of development relative to others. In the context of rural development the model suggests that rural areas with adequate natural resources such as good climate, fertile soils, moderate land-form etc., will grow faster than those without. In other words, this theory emphasizes on the basic natural or environmental resources for which a place is endowed with in the development of the locality. The theory stipulates that economic growth is dependent on the quality and quantity of basic natural resources present within a particular area (rural).

But critics of the theory argued that despite the importance of natural resources in development, it must be noted that the mere availability of basic resources is not sufficient to guarantee development in any area. There are examples of areas where the abundance

of natural resources did not stimulate development while in other areas limited natural resources have led to rapid development. It has therefore been argued that in the long run what really counts is the availability of a technically competent labour force and a leadership strongly dedicated to the objective of economic development rather than the mere availability of basic natural resources.

The reason for choosing the Cultural Theory of Poverty is because the theory is the one that is more relevant in explaining the problem of rural youth's poverty in the rural areas of Rano local government areas. This is because the theory explains the roles culture plays in shaping the behaviour of its people. Although, agriculture being the major occupation of the rural people but, even in the case of agriculture the rural people (youths) in most cases are not willing to accept new changes in the farming activities. The Culture of Poverty is related to the facts that in our rural areas the rural youths are in an iniquitous paradoxical situation where the children of the poor might end up being poorer and children of the elite who are privileged to be properly educated, thereby reproducing widespread poverty.

This is due to the fact that youths in the rural Nigeria tend to be more conservative and resistant to change. And the suitable theory to explain the rural youths poverty is the culture of poverty theory, because the theory attributed the rural youths poverty to their culture and this shared beliefs is shared among the members and transmit it from one generation to the next. Looking at the poverty situation in our rural villages, one can say that this theory has presented explanations on rural poverty situation and it is relevant to

know that rural youths are poor and they perpetuate their position by the way of their beliefs, custom, tradition and values as well as skills that are socially passed on to the next generation. So we ought to understand that rural poverty in our society is generated by the rural dwellers and sustained in the rural areas by passing the beliefs and values to the next coming generations.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY AND DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY AREA

3.0 Introduction

This section describes the research area and the methodology used in the study. Under the methodology, the target population, sample size and sampling techniques, method of data collection used and the data analysis technique are given. Quantitative and qualitative methods were used to gather data for the study.

3.1 Description of the Study Area

Like many African cities, Rano Town is one of the oldest settlements in this part of the country. The history of the town dates back to 523 A.D. and it is among the seven Hausa States (Hausa Bakwai) of Hausaland in northern Nigeria. Rano town got its name from the founder known as 'Ranau' who came from the eastern part of the world. According to history, Rano town by then was surrounded by 'Rauno' (a long grass named after the first ruler of Rano, (Musa and Jamilu, 2012:30). Rano was one of the seven divisional headquarters of Native Authority (N.A.) of Kano state in 1967 and was made a Local Government Area in 1975. Geographically, Rano is situated at the Kano south-west about 58 kilometers away from the state capital. The population of Rano Local Government Area according to 2006 Census is 145,439; with 74,967 males and 70,472 females (NPC, 2007).

The Local Government is blessed with fertile land enabling the people to cultivate various crops like millet, corn, beans, groundnuts, tomatoes, rice, wheat etc. There are institutions like Rano General Hospital, KNARDA (Kano Agricultural and Rural Development

Agency) Zonal Office, and Zonal Agency for Mass Education, Zonal Health Services Management Board, Kano South Zonal Police Headquarters, a Senior and Junior (Boarding Secondary) Schools for both boys and girls, various Health Centers, one of the campuses of the Kano State Polytechnic, Zonal Library Board, Rehabilitation Centre, Prison Centers and four courts of law; High Court of Appeal, Upper Shariah court, Area Court and Magistrate Court.

Predominantly people in the local government area are the Fulani/Hausa other ethnic groups include the Yorubas, Igbos, and other minor Nigerian tribes who are mostly farmers by occupation and are mainly poor generally due to the nature of their economy. The people of Rano Local Government strongly believe in their traditional and religious values. Most of the people in Rano are Muslims who sometimes mixed their traditional custom with Islamic values. The people of the area are located across ten (10) wards, only three are located in the main town and the surrounding, putting the people in the area at higher advantage of being close to social amenities and employment opportunities.

The three other wards are close to Tiga and Rurum Dams and irrigation channels that facilitate all season farming and fishery. While the other four wards, rely on seasonal farming and rearing of animals like goats and cattles. Similarly, apart from the people in the three wards located in the main town, the people of the other seven (7) wards have to use one form of transportation or the other to link up to the main town at a price determined by commercial operators. Most of the prices are high due to poor road networks.

3.2 Methodology

This section discussed the methodology followed in the conduct of this study. Hence, target population, sample size and sampling techniques, methods of data collection and methods of data analysis.

Target Population

The target population for this research are rural youths both males and females between the ages of (18-35 years) of age in Rano local government area. The population of the study also include: Youths Development Officer of Rano local government area of Kano State, Nigeria, Youths Association Leaders and some members of the general public. The total population of Rano local government area, according to 2006 Census was 145,439; with 74,967 males and 70,472 females (National Population Commission, 2007).

3.3 Sample Size and Sampling Techniques

A total sample size of three hundred and one (301) respondents was drawn from the total population of Rano local government area of Kano State. It is from this sample that both quantitative and qualitative data is generated. First, five (5) out of the ten (10) wards were selected to generate the data. Multi-stage cluster sampling method was used to draw the sample. At stage one, five (5) wards were selected from the ten (10) wards in the Local Government Area using lottery method. The names of the ten (10) wards were written on slips, folded, put in a container thoroughly mixed and the five (5) were picked one after the other without replacement. The wards chosen were Rurum, Tsohuwa, Lausu, Madachi, Zurgu and Zinyau Wards. In the second stage, the wards were sub-divided into the clusters of villages and five (5) villages were selected using the same lottery sampling method. At stage three, questionnaires were administered on twelve (12) respondents in each of the

villages selected using availability sampling. The researcher's reason for allocating equal number of respondents to each of the five (5) wards selected is because of the homogeneity of the population implying that obtaining equal respondents from the wards will not harm the study.

A total of sixty (60) respondents were obtained from each ward thereby making the total questionnaires administered to be 300. However, snowball sampling method was used to select six (6) respondents for in-depth interview which made the total number of the respondents (306). The in-depth interview was conducted with Youths Association Leaders traced through the Youths Development Officer of Rano Local Government Area who was also part of the interviewees.

3.4 Methods of Data Collection

Accurate data collection is essential to maintaining the integrity of the study. Self-administered questionnaires and in-depth interviews (IDIs) tools were the instrument used in collecting both quantitative and qualitative data for the study. The questionnaire was structured, written in English and administered in Hausa and English language by the researcher and research assistant where the need arose. The questionnaires used consisted of open and close ended questions. It consists of two parts. The first part dealt with the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents such as: age, marital status, gender, income and level of education. The second part comprised of responses on the issues raised on the topic.

In-depth interview was conducted on the Youths Association Leaders and youths development officer of the Community Development Department of Rano Local Government Area. Structured interview guide was used in carrying out the interview. A tape recorder was used to record the responses. Similarly secondary data from relevant journals, gazettes, books, documents, etc. were consulted to supplement the quantitative and qualitative data. One youth leader from each of the five wards and youths development officer of Rano local government area, were interviewed. The interview was conducted using interview guide.

3.5 Method of Data Analysis

The quantitative data generated was cleaned, organized, analyzed, processed and presented using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), where frequency distributions and percentages were obtained for the presentation and analysis of data. The qualitative data were transcribed, translated (where applicable) and discussed under appropriate sub-headings to complement the quantitative data. In the same vein, data from secondary sources such as books articles, gazettes, newspapers etc. were used to complement the data from both quantitative and qualitative sources. The analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data generated, however, was guided by the research objectives as well as research questions.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATIONS AND ANALYSIS

4.0 Introduction

The chapter presents and analyzes the data obtained from the field. Both the quantitative and qualitative data were collected from the three hundred and six (301) respondents through questionnaires, and in-depth interview conducted with the youths in the rural areas, Youths association leaders and Youths development officer of Rano local government area of Kano State are here presented and analyzed. Finally, a discussion of the major findings regarding the objectives of the study was made.

4.1: Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

This section of the chapter presents the demographic features such as age, sex, marital status, educational qualifications, occupations and income of the respondents.

Table 4.1.1: Age Distribution of the Respondents

Age Category	Frequency	Percentage
18-25 years	101	34.2
26-35 years	182	61.7
36-45 years	12	4.1
Total	295	100.0

Table 4.1.1 above shows that (34.2%) of the respondents have fallen within the age range of 18-25 years, while (61.7%) who are the majority were between the ages of 26 -35 years. This shows that majority of the respondents were within the age range of 26-35 years representing the category of people that are within the active and productive periods. While only (4.1%) of the respondents are within the age range of 36-45 years are the least

of the respondents. This is because the target population of the study is mainly youths ranging from 18-35 years and complemented by some other members of the society.

Table 4.1.2: Sex Distribution of the Respondents

Sex Category	Frequency	Percentage
Male	192	65.1
Female	103	34.9
Total	295	100.0

Table 4.1.2 above table indicates the sex distribution of the respondents. Males respondents were the majority who constituted about (65.1%) of the respondents, while females constituted (34.9%) of the respondents. This differences can be associated with religious and cultural reasons, accounting for the significant margin between the sexes since Islam (the religion of the most, if not all of the respondents) and the culture of the area discourages the intermingling of men and women, which emphasize genderised division of labour, in which men provide for the family and females take care of the home. One of the Youths Association Leader lamented that:

Most of our male children usually are having more economic opportunities than their females counterparts, due to the cultural and religious reasons in our societies, (Youth Leader, Rano, 2015).

Table 4.1.3: Marital Status of the Respondents

Marital Status	Frequency	Percentage
Single	103	34.9
Married	192	65.1
Total	295	100.0

Table 4.1.3 above shows that (34.9%) of the respondents were singled, while (65.1%) of the respondents who are the majority are married. And this is due the cultural and religious reasons which tend to give the rural youths more opportunities to marry more than their urban youth counterparts. This is a fair distribution because a study of this nature required both singledor married respondents, for some of them may have unique experiences that may be peculiar with regards to the rural youth poverty and its consequences. This shows that married respondents are the majority with(65.1%), while single respondents are the least with (34.9%) of the respondents in the study areas.

Table 4.1.4: Educational Qualification of the Respondents

Educational Qualification	Frequency	Percentage
Primary Certificate	80	27.1
SSCE/GCE	104	35.5
Diploma/NCE/IJMB	45	15.3
Bachelor Degree/HND	12	4.1
Informal Education/Others	54	18.3
Total	295	100.0

Table 4.1.4 above table shows the literacy level of the respondents, which indicates that, only (27.1%) of the respondents hold primary School Leaving Certificates, (35.5%) holds SSCE/GCE ‘O’ Level certificates, while (15.5%) hold either Diploma, NCE or IJMB.

However, (17.4%) hold either Bachelor Degree or Higher National Diploma, while (18.3%) are without formal or have Informal Education. This indicates that a majority of the respondents possess lower level qualifications (primary or secondary levels). While, those respondents having the higher certificates were the least with only (17.4%) of the total. The availability of primary and secondary schools in the study area is due to (UPE/SUBEB) which gave the rural residents of the area opportunity to obtain lower level qualifications as only few are without formal education.

Table 4.1.5: Respondents' Primary Occupation

Responses on the Primary Occupation	Frequency	Percentage
Fish Farming	9	3.1
Poultry Farming	12	4.1
Animal Husbandry	11	3.7
Crops Farming	101	34.2
Public/Civil Service	39	13.2
Trading	51	17.3
Crafts Work	17	5.8
Unemployed	55	18.6
Total	295	100.0

Table 4.1.5 above shows that a majority of the respondents are both engaged in both fish farming (3.1%), poultry farming (4.1%), animal husbandry (3.7%) and crops farming who represented (34.2%) of the respondents. This shown that (55.1%) of the respondents who are the majority claimed to have engaged in one agricultural activities or the other as their main occupation. However, a significant portion of the youths (18.6%) were unemployed. The occupational distribution may be related to the nature of the environment; in Rano

Local Government Area of Kano State. These are settlements where many public/civil servants could be found as some Local, State, and Federal owned agencies and other businesses could be found there. There are still few who work in the city.

Table 4.1.6: Respondents' Secondary Occupation

Responses on the Secondary Occupation	Frequency	Percentage
Fish Farming	18	6.1
Poultry Farming	20	6.8
Animal Husbandry	18	6.1
Crops Farming	126	42.7
Public/Civil Service	9	3.1
Trading	65	22.0
Pastoralist	15	5.1
Others	15	5.1
Total	295	100.0

The table 4.1.6 above shows that (6.1%) of the respondents are fish farmers, while (6.8%) of the respondents are poultry farmers, while (6.1%) of the respondents engaged in animal husbandry, while (42.7%) of the respondents engaged in crops production/farming, while (3.1%) of the respondents are public/civil servants, while (22.0%) of the respondents engaged in trading activities, while (5.1%) of the respondents are pastoralist whereas (5.1%) of the respondents are the Others. This indicates that majority of the respondents are crop farmers as their secondary occupations and engaged into farming in order to produce for subsistence which is to feed their families and produce surplus where available for income earnings.

Table 4.1.7: Monthly Income Distribution of the Respondents

Monthly Income	Frequency	Percentage
N5000 and Below	181	61.4
N5, 001 - N20, 000	75	25.4
N20, 001 - N40, 000	36	12.2
N40, 001 and Above	3	1.0
Total	295	100.0

From the table 4.1.7 above it shows that (61.4%) of the respondents earned a monthly income of below N5, 000 and Below, (25.4%) earns between N5, 001 – N20, 000, while (12.2%) earned a monthly income of N20, 001 – N40, 000. Similarly, (1.0%) of the respondents earned N40, 001 and above. The above is a clear indication of financial conditions of therural youths in which majority of the respondents belong to the low income category. This prevailing financial situation of the rural youths has been a major problem of rural household in Nigeria as observed by Ogwumike (1987) who described most of the rural dwellers as those incapable of providing sufficient income to satisfy its need for food, shelter, education, clothing and transportation.

This shows that people’s inability to provide necessary income for the satisfaction of their basic daily needs makes them to be in a condition of poverty. But, the rural youths in Rano local government area are in one way or the other engaged in different types of occupations to satisfy these needs.

Study of Poverty among the Rural Youths in Rano Local Government Area of Kano State

This section presents data of the responses of poverty among the rural youths in the study and analyzed below.

Table 4.2.1: Responses on the Prevalence of Poverty among the Rural Youths

Responses on Prevalence of Rural Youths Poverty	Frequency	Percentage
Very Prevalent	292	99.0
Not Prevalent	0	0.0
Don't Know	3	1.0
Total	295	100.0

Table 4.2.1 above presents data on the prevalence of poverty among the rural youths among the respondents. Based on the data collected on the prevalence of rural youth poverty among the respondents (99.0%) of the respondents were of the opinion that rural youth poverty is Very Prevalent, while none of the respondents were of the opinion that poverty among the rural youths is not prevalent. However, only (1.0%) of the respondents were not aware whether there is prevalence of poverty among the rural youths or not. The table clearly shows virtually all of the respondents were aware of the prevalence of youths poverty in the study area.

A Youth Association Leaders were asked about the prevalence of poverty in the rural areas all agreed and said it is prevalent. According to one of them:

Poverty is both a rural and urban phenomenon, but is higher and more prevalent in the rural than in urban areas, because of low availabilities of opportunities for the rural youths, (Youth Leader, Madachi, 2015).

Another Youth Leader pointed out that:

Poverty is widespread and it does not hide itself, especially during this democratic dispensation, where some greedy politicians are using the youth's for their political motives serving them as political thugs during the elections. The poverty of some of the youths is the major reason pushing the youths and even their parents to engage into such acts of political thuggery, (Youth Leader, Zurgu, 2015).

Another Youth Leader observed that:

Poverty is widespread all over, but there are few opportunities for a person to get out of it such as through rural-urban migration, (Youth Leader, Lausu, 2015).

However, the above situation was expressed by a poor man in one of the Kenyan villages when he said that:

Don't ask me what poverty is because you have met it outside house. Look at the house and count the number of holes. Look at my utensils and the clothes that, I am wearing. Look at everything and write down what you see. What you see is poverty (Narayan et' al, 2000:30).

Table 4.2.4: Respondents' Access to clothing

Access to Clothing	Frequency	Percentage
Have Access	176	59.7
No Access	119	40.3
Total	295	100.0

Table 4.2.4 above indicates that (59.7%) of the respondents are capable or have access to clothing, whereas (40.3%) of the respondents have no access to decent clothing for themselves due to their economic conditions. This suggests that the level of poverty among the rural youths is intense because (40%) is a significant proportion.

Table 4.2.5: Respondents' Access to Shelter

Access to Shelter	Frequency	Percentage
Have Access	73	24.7
Have no Access	222	75.3
Total	295	100.0

Table 4.2.5 above indicates that (24.7%) of the respondents have access to shelter, were as a majority of the respondents (75.3%) have no access to shelter. This is because most of the respondents are rurally based and are not satisfied with where they live because of the nature of the rural settlements and absence of basic amenities necessary for human existence. This is in line with the UNDP (2004) findings which connected Poverty with hunger, lack of shelter, being sick and not being able to see a doctor, not having access to school and not knowing how to read.

Table 4.2.6: Nature of the respondents' Shelter

Responses on the Nature of Shelter	Frequency	Percentage
Mud House	207	70.2
Grass House	27	9.2
Block/Concrete Building	61	20.7
Total	295	100.0

Table 4.2.6 above shows that (70.2%) of the respondents are living in Mud Houses, while (9.2%) of the respondents are living in Grass Houses, were as (20.7%) of the respondents are living in Blocks/Concrete Buildings. This shows that majority of the respondents with (70.2%) are living in a locally mud made houses and this is because they largely poor.

Table 4.2.7: Respondents' Access to Medical Care

Responses on Access to Medical Care	Frequency	Percentage
Have Access	105	35.6
Have no Access	190	64.4
Total	295	100.0

Table 4.2.7 above shows that (35.6%) of the respondents are of the opinion that they have access to medical care, while a majority of the respondents (64.4%) have no access to medical care. This indicates that majority of the respondents have no access to medical care in the study area. Though there is the availability of the health care centres in some places, but given their incomes categories the residents of the area cannot access these opportunities. The ranges of choices like Dispensaries, Rano General Hospital and Murtala Muhammad Specialist Hospital, Aminu Kano Teaching Hospital as well as other private clinics could not be accessed by many of these rural youths.

Table 4.2.10: Respondents' Access to Portable Drinking Water

Responses on Access to Drinking Water	Frequency	Percentage
Have access	99	33.6
Have no Access	196	66.4
Total	295	100.0

The table 4.2.10 above indicates that (33.6%) of the respondents have access to portable drinking water while, (66.4%) who are the majority do not have access to portable and cleaned drinking water. This shows that a majority of the respondents have no access to portable drinking water in the study area. This shows that the respondents might have been getting drinking water from other sources as reflected in the following table.

Table 4.2.11: Respondents' Major Source of Drinking Water

Responses on the Major Source of Water	Frequency	Percentage
Well Water	116	39.3
Dam Water	9	3.1
Borehole Water	131	44.4
Pipe/Pump Water	3	1.0
Package Water	33	11.2
Bottle Water	3	1.0
Total	295	100.0

Table above 4.2.11 shows that a majority of the respondents (39.3%) have Well Water as their major source of drinking water, while (3.1%) of the respondents uses Dam Water, whereas (44.4%) of the respondents uses Borehole Water as their major source. However, only (1.0%) of the respondents has Pipe/Pump water as their major source, while (11.2%) of the respondents uses Package water as their major source, whereas (1.0%) of the respondents uses Bottle Water as their major source of drinking water. This shows that majority of the respondents utilizes well and borehole water. Thus, some effort has to be made by the government to construct more wells, boreholes and pipe/pump water for the people of the area. However, more need to be done for those who still use unhealthy and water in the study area.

Table 4.2.12: Respondents' Affordability to send Children to School

Ability to send Children to School	Frequency	Percentage
Can afford	164	55.6
Cannot affordable	131	44.4
Total	295	100.0

The above 4.2.12 table indicates that (55.6%) of the respondents can afford to send their children to School, while (44.4%) of the respondents cannot afford to send their children to School. This is because most of the Schools are public/governments schools and the cost of sending their children to Schools is very insignificant as with little amount they can be able to send many children to school. However, those who could send their children were mainly influenced by culture or sometimes poverty.

Table 4.2.13: Number of Children sent to School by the Respondents

Number of Children sent to School	Frequency	Percentage
1 – 3 Children	116	39.3
4 – 5 Children	33	11.2
6 – 10 Children	6	2.0
More than 10 Children	3	1.0
Total	158	100.0

The 4.2.13 table above shows that (39.3%) of the respondents who are the majority are capable of sending their (1-3) children to school, (11.2%) of the respondents has the ability to send (4-5) children to school, (2.0%) of the respondents to sends (6-10) children to schools, (1.0%) of the respondents could send more than 10 children to school. This finding is also supported by a study conducted by IFAD(2006) which revealed that some

families in the rural areas usually, find it very difficult to finance their children's education.

Table 4.2.14: Respondents Access to Electricity

Responses on the Access to Electricity	Frequency	Percentage
Have Access	178	26.4
No Access	217	73.6
Total	295	100.0

Table 4.2.14 above shows that only (26.4%) of the respondents have access to electricity, while (73.6%) of the respondents who are the majority could not access electricity. This is because not all the people have the financial strength to buy a generator since generators are becoming the major source of electricity in Nigerian rural areas.

Table 4.2.15: Respondents' Source of Light

Responses on the Source of Electricity	Frequency	Percentage
Personal Generator	54	18.3
PHCN / KEDCO	36	12.2
Kerosine Lamp/Solar/Rechargeable Lamp	205	69.5
Total	295	100.0

Table 4.2.15 above indicates that (18.3%) of the respondents have Personal Generators, while (12.2%) of the respondents have access to the Power Holding Company of Nigeria now known as (Kano Electricity Distribution Company), whereas (69.5%) of the respondents uses other sources of light like Kerosine/Solar/Rechargeable Lamp. This is due to the fact that many of the respondents rely on the use of other generating power

sources. This is a clear indication that access to electricity from the KEDCO is low and thus, more need to be done to improve the situation.

Table 4.2.16: Respondents' Assessment of own Living Conditions

Responses on the Assessment of Living Conditions	Frequency	Percentage
Good	78	26.4
Poor	200	67.8
Very Poor	17	5.8
Total	295	100.0

The table 4.2.16 above shows that a majority of the respondents (67.8%) assessed their conditions as being poor, while (26.4%) of the respondents assessed their living conditions as good, still (5.8%) of the respondents assessed their living conditions as being very poor. This means that those who assessed their living conditions as being poor are the majority of the respondents. This has reaffirms the findings of Narayan et' al (2000), UNDP (2000), Townsend (1962), Onuoha (2007) and World Bank (1994).

Table 4.2.17: Respondents' Self Assessed Economic Class

Responses on Self Assessed Economic Class	Frequency	Percentage
Upper Level	0	0.0
Middle Level/ Class	78	26.4
Poor	217	73.6
Total	295	100.0

Table 4.2.17 above shows that (26.4%) of the respondents are Middle Level, while (73.6%) of the respondents are said to be Poor. However, none of the respondents assessed

self as being in the upper class. This shows that majority of the respondents are the poor income earners, while fewer of them are middle level.

Table 4.2.18: Respondents' Acres of Farmland Cultivated Annually

Number of Acres of Farmland Farmed Annually	Frequency	Percentage
1 - 5 Acres	124	42.0
6 - 10 Acres	39	13.2
11 - 15 Acres	27	9.2
16 - 20 Acres	5	1.7
Total	195	100.0

Table 4.2.18 above shows that (42.0%) of the respondents cultivates (1-5 Acres), while (13.2%) of the respondents cultivates (6-10 Acres), whereas (9.2%) of the respondents cultivates (11-15 Acres), (1.7%) of the respondents cultivates (16-20 Acres) of land, whereas (33.9%) of the respondents occupations other than farming. Another Youths Leader has this to say about the land tenure system in the rural areas, he said that:

Youths in the rural areas are not exception in the case of land tenure system; the land ownership tends to be fragmented as lands are usually shared among the family members by virtue of inheritance. This has necessitated the youths in the rural areas to be engaged in subsistence farming thereby producing smaller quantities of output, (Youth Leader, Saji, 2015).

Table 4.2.19: Type of Labour Used by the Respondents

Responses on the Type of Labour Used	Frequency	Percentage
Family Labour	138	46.8
Hired Labour	57	19.3
Total	195	100.0

Table 4.2.19 above indicates that (46.8%) of the respondents used family labour, while (19.3%) of the respondents used hired labour to do the farm work, while (33.9%) of the respondents were farmers, but engages in some other occupations in the area.

Table 4.2.20: Farm Implements Used by the Respondents

Responses on the Farm Implements Used	Frequency	Percentage
Traditional Farming Implements	174	59.0
Modern Farming Implements	21	7.1
Total	195	100.0

Table 4.2.20 above shows that majority with (59.0%) of the respondents used Traditional Farming Implements (such as: Hoe, Cutlass, Axe, for farming etc.), were as (7.1%) of the respondents used modern farming implements (such as: Tractor, Combined Harvester for farming activities etc.).

Table 4.2.21: Respondents' Usage of Chemical Fertilizer

Responses on the Use of Chemical Fertilizer	Frequency	Percentage
Used	180	61.0
Not Used	15	5.1
Total	195	100.0

Table 4.2.21 above shows that majority with (61.0%) of the respondents used fertilizer for farming, while (5.1%) of the respondents do not use chemical fertilizer for farming. This shows that the majority of the respondents used chemical fertilizer for farming activities.

Table 4.2.22: Respondents' Source of Fertilizer

Responses on the Source of Fertilizer	Frequency	Percentage
Government	53	18.0
Market	142	48.1
Total	195	100.0

Table 4.2.22 above shows that few with (18.0%) of the respondents admitted that government is providing them with chemical fertilizer, while (48.1%) of the respondents, who are the majority, argued that they are buying chemical fertilizer from the market.

Table 4.2.23: Respondents on Government Provision of Farming Inputs to the Rural Farmers

Government provides Farming Inputs	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	46	15.6
No	149	50.5
Total	195	100.0

Table 4.2.23 above shows that (15.6%) of the respondents have agreed that government provides farming inputs to its people, while (50.5%) of the respondents have the opinion that government does not provided them with farming inputs. This shows that government in the study area contributes little in terms of providing the rural people with what they needed to improve their sources of livelihood.

Table 4.2.24: Responses on the Sufficiency of the Farming Inputs provided by the Government

Sufficiency of the Farming Inputs provided by the Government	Frequency	Percentage
Sufficient	3	1.0
Insufficient	192	65.1
Total	295	100.0

Table 4.2.24 above shows that (1.0%) of the respondents agreed that government provided the sufficient farming inputs to its people, while (65.1%) of the respondents are of the opinions that government does not provides sufficient farming inputs, but rather insufficient farming inputs to its people.

Table 4.2.25: Respondents' Major Source of Farming Inputs

Major Source of Farming Inputs	Frequency	Percentage
Market	183	62.0
Government	12	4.1
Total	195	100.0

Table 4.2.25 indicates that (62.0%) of the respondents used market to purchased their farming inputs, while (4.1%) of the respondents are getting their farming inputs from the government.

Table 4.2.26: Responses on the Major Cause of Poverty in the Rural Areas

Major Causes of Poverty in the Rural Areas	Frequency	Percentage
Absence of Economic Opportunities	29	9.8
Lack of Industries in the Rural Areas	3	1.0
Unemployment	33	11.2
Illiteracy	9	3.1
All of the Above	221	74.9
Total	295	100.0

The table 4.2.26 above shows that (9.8%) of the respondents are of the opinions that absence of economic opportunities is one of the cause of poverty, while (1.0%) of the respondents believed that the one cause of the problem is lack of industries in the rural areas is another problem, while (11.2%) of the respondents are said that unemployment is one of the causes of poverty, while (3.1%) of the respondents are of the opinions that illiteracy is also among the causes of the problem, while (74.9%) of the respondents believed that all of the above are the major causes of the rural youths poverty.

One of the youth's association leaders argued that:

Lack of irrigational facilities, good road networks, markets for commodities were among the other major causes of poverty of the rural youths, (Youth Leader, Rurum Tsohuwa, 2015).

Table 4.3.2: Respondents on the Consequences of Poverty on the Rural Population

Consequences of Poverty on the Rural People	Frequency	Percentage
Hunger	6	2.0
Sickness	0	0.0
Ignorance	0	0.0
Social Destitution	0	0.0
Unemployment	6	2.0
Underdevelopment	0	0.0
Increase Crimes	6	2.0
Begging/Thuggery	3	1.0
All of the Above	274	92.9
Total	295	100.0

Table 4.3.2 above indicates that (2.0%) of the respondents believed that poverty can cause hunger to the people, whereas (92.9%) of the respondents who are the majority strongly believed that poverty among the rural youths can leads to a number of social problems such as hunger, sickness, ignorance, social destitution, unemployment, underdevelopment, increase crime, begging and thuggery among other things.

Table 4.3.3: Whether Poverty has any Consequences on the Individuals

Responses on Whether Poverty has any Consequence on the Individuals	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	229	77.6
No	66	22.4
Total	295	100.0

Table 4.3.3 above shows that a majority of the respondents (77.6%) are with the opinions that poverty has effects on the individuals, while (22.4%) of the respondents are of contrary view. Therefore, majority of the respondents have agreed that poverty is consequential to the well-being of individuals in the rural communities.

Table 4.3.4: Responses on the Consequences of Poverty on the Rural Families

Responses on the Consequences of Poverty on the Rural Families	Frequency	Percentage
High Incidence of Divorce	6	2.0
Marital Instability	5	1.7
Domestic Violence	10	3.4
Separation	8	2.7
Broken Homes	6	2.0
Conflict	5	1.7
Malnutrition	8	2.7
Sickness	5	1.7
Illiteracy	4	1.4
All of the Above	238	80.7
Total	295	100.0

Table 4.3.4 above table shows that the respondents of this study believed, that poverty could be a factor in the high incidence of divorce (2.0%), marital instability (1.7%), separation (2.7%), broken homes (2.0%), conflict (1.7%), malnutrition (2.7%), sickness (1.7%), and illiteracy (1.4%). However, a bulk majority of the respondents (80.7%) have the single opinion that poverty is responsible for all of the above problems that characterized the rural families of today. One of the Youth Leader argued that:

When there is poverty in the society, there will be social problems like broken homes, domestic or community violence, malnutrition, rural-urban migration, which leads to underdevelopment of the people and the area, (Zurgu Youth Leader, 2015).

Table 4.3.5: How Does Poverty Affect the Communities?

Responses on Whether Poverty Affects the Communities	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	289	98.0
No	6	2.0
Total	295	100.0

The table 4.3.5 above indicates that (98.0%) of the respondents agreed that poverty generally affects their community development negatively. However, only (2.0%) of the respondents expressed a contrary opinion, which shows that poverty does not inversely affects community development. This is in line with the findings by The Federal Ministry of Economic Development (1992), UN, (1990) and Onuoha (2006). Another opinion is that of Rurum Tsohuwa Youth Leader, who lamented that:

Poverty in the rural community distracts the smooth running and development of the rural areas, and often leads to the evil practices among the rural youths in the study area, (Rurum Tsohuwa, Youth Leader, 2015).

4.2 DISCUSSION OF THE MAJOR FINDINGS

The broad objective of this research is the study of poverty among the rural youths. One specific objectives of this study is to study the nature of poverty among the rural youths in Rano local government area of Kano State. The study revealed that poverty is prevalent in the study area. Hence, the majority of the respondents are aware that poverty is widespread in the study area. Furthermore, the study seeks to identify the causes of poverty

among the youths in the rural areas of Rano local government area, of Kano state. The data obtained revealed that majority of the respondents are of the opinion that absence of economic opportunities, lack of industries in the rural areas, unemployment, illiteracy are the major causes of rural youths poverty. However, other causes of the rural youths poverty discovered were over-population, political instability and discrimination, lack of public enlightenment and absence of judicial use of the rule of law and neglect of the agricultural sector are among the other reasons for the causes of the problem in the study areas.

Similarly, it is one of the objectives of the study to examine the gender dimensions of poverty among the males and females youths in the study area. Data obtained shown that young females are poorer than their male counterparts in the study area. This differences can be associated with religious and cultural reasons, accounting for the large margin between the sexes since Islam (religion of the most, if not all of the respondents) and the culture of the area discourages the intermingling of men and women, which emphasize the division of labour, in which men provide for the family and females take care of the home.

Similarly, the study seeks to examine the consequences of poverty on the rural youths and their community at large. The data obtained revealed that a majority of the respondents believed that all the consequences mentioned such as: hunger, sicknesses, ignorance, underdevelopment, begging/social destitution, unemployment, drug abuse, involvement in thurgerry activities and other crimes as a result of poverty of the rural youths in the study area are found to be happening. One of the Youth Leader argued that:

When there is poverty in the society, there will be social problems like broken homes, domestic or community violence, malnutrition, rural-urban migration, which leads to underdevelopment of the people and the area, (Zurgu Youth Leader, 2015).

Furthermore, data in confirmed that majority of the respondents are low income earners which is usually, N5, 000 and below. This means that the great majority of the respondents belong to the low and average income categories; this is because of the nature and occupational distributions in the study area. Thus, data obtained revealed that the respondents are not capable of affording their Three Square Meals while only few of them are capable of the respondents. This shows that the majority of the respondents cannot afford to provide three square meals for their families. This indicated that the youths in the rural areas of Rano are not capable of provides three square meal a day, which is one of the basic needs of human existence.

In addition, the study found that a majority of the respondents are not capable of affording or providing clothing. Available data shown that majority of the respondents cannot afford their clothing, were as only few of the respondents are capable of providing their clothes which are mostly low cost types of materials. This indicates that majority of the respondents are not capable of affording shelter in the study area, though depending upon the type available, but yet they are facing a challenge because only few who are not significant proportion can afford clothing in the study area. This is because some of the respondents lived in either traditional/local or modern buildings in the study area.

Furthermore, the study highlighted that majority of the respondents are also not comfortable with the nature of their shelter, whereas only few of the respondents are comfortable. This shows that a majority of the respondents are not comfortable with their shelter in the study area. In addition, the study also, revealed that only few of the respondents have access to medical care, though with variations while a majority of the respondents have no access to medical care in the study area. This shows that the majority of the respondents have no access to medical care in the study area. Though there is the availability of the health care centres in the area which gives the residents of the area range of choices, like Dispensaries, Rano General Hospital within Rano and in Kano at Murtala Muhammad Specialist Hospital, Aminu Kano Teaching Hospital as well as private clinics where the people are able to afford and access health care services but yet the majority of the respondents have no access to medical care, due to their economic purchasing power. The study also, revealed that the majority of the respondents have no access to portable drinking water, while few of the respondents had access to portable drinking water. This shows that there are some other sources of portable drinking water in the study area but a lot need to be done solve the problem of shortage of drinking water.

Furthermore, the study revealed that majority of the respondents are capable of affording sending their children to school, while few of the respondents are not capable of affording sending their children to school. This is because most of the schools are public/governments schools and the cost of sending their children to school is very insignificant as with little amount they can be able to send many children to school.

However, those who could not send their children were mainly influenced by culture and sometimes poverty. Similarly, other objectives of the study are

In addition, the data revealed that of the respondents who are the majority do not have access to electricity in the study area. This is because not all the people have the financial strength to buy a generator since generators are becoming the major source of electricity in Nigerian rural areas. Also, the study indicated that a majority of the respondents uses other sources of light like Kerosine/ Solar/ Rechargeable lamp. This is due to the fact that many of the respondents rely on the use of other generating power sources. This is a clear indication that access to electricity from the KEDCO is low and thus, more need to be done to improve the situation in the study area.

Furthermore, the study found that a majority of the respondents assessed their conditions as being poor. This means that those who assessed their living conditions as being poor are the majority of the respondents. This has reaffirms the findings of Narayan et' al (2000), UNDP (2000), Townsend (1962), Onuoha (2007) and World Bank (1994). Similarly, the study revealed that a majority of the respondents are said to be Poor. However, none of the respondents assessed their self as being in the upper class. This shows that majority of the respondents are the poor income earners, while fewer of them are middle level. Furthermore, the data indicated that a majority of the respondents cultivates (1-5Acres) of land. Another Youths Leader has this to say about the land tenure system in the rural areas, he said that:

Youths in the rural areas are not exception in the case of land tenure system; the land ownership tends to be fragmented as lands are usually shared among the family members by virtue of inheritance. This has necessitated the youths in the

rural areas to engage in subsistence farming thereby producing smaller quantities of output (Youth Leader, Saji, 2015).

The study confirmed that a majority of the respondents used family labour. Also, the study found that a majority of the respondents used Traditional Farming Implements (such as: Hoe, Cutlass, Axe, for farming etc.), while some engages in occupations other than farming.

The study also, revealed that a majority of the respondents used fertilizer for farming, whereas only few of the respondents do not farm or have other occupations. This shows that the majority of the respondents used chemical fertilizer for farming activities in the study area. The study confirmed that majority, of the respondents argued that they are buying chemical fertilizer from the market. In addition, the study confirmed that majority of the respondents are of the opinion that government does not provided them with farming inputs. This shows that government in the study area contributes little in terms of providing the rural people with what they needed to improve their sources of livelihood.

Furthermore, the data confirmed that a majority of the respondents are of the opinions that government does not provides sufficient farming inputs, but rather insufficient farming inputs to its people, whereas only few of the respondents either have other occupations or they do not even engaged into farming activities. The study also, revealed that a majority of the respondents used market to purchase their farming inputs, whereas few of the respondents have other occupations or are not engaged into farming activities. Similarly, the study revealed that a majority of the respondents are of the opinions that lack of economic opportunities, agric centres, and industries in the rural areas,

unemployment, and illiteracy are believed to be the major causes of the rural youths poverty in the study area.

One of the youth's association leaders argued that:

Lack of irrigational facilities, good road networks, markets for commodities were among the other major causes of poverty of the rural youths, (Youth Leader, Rurum, 2015).

One of the objectives of this study is to examine the effects of poverty on the community. The study found that majority of the respondents agreed that poverty generally affects their community development generally.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter deals with the summary and conclusion of the research. Some recommendations were also offered which may help in eradicating or controlling the problem of rural youth poverty in the study area.

5.1 Summary

The first chapter deals with the general introduction, statement of the problem, research questions, aims and objectives of the study, significance of the study, scope of the study, and definition of the key terms. Secondly, chapter two of this research work was a review of some relevant literature related to the study topic. The chapter was treated under the sub-headings, such as introduction, the concept and nature of poverty, manifestations of poverty, dimensions of poverty, youths and society, youths unemployment, poverty and national development, the concept and theories of development, theories of development, national development, rural poverty, rural development, agriculture and rural development, theories of rural development, and theoretical framework.

Thirdly, chapter three of this research work was a methodology and brief description of the study area, target population, sample size and sampling techniques, method of data collection and data analysis, discussions of the summary findings of the research. Fourthly, chapter four of this study presented and analyzed the data collected, summary of the major findings of the research. Fifthly, Chapter five of this research work consists of summary, conclusion and recommendations and possible ways of improving the situation, questionnaire sample, and in-depth interview guide sample and references.

5.2 Conclusion

Generally, speaking the problem of rural poverty among the youths exist in our society especially in the study area, where it is found to be one of the problems affecting the welfare and development of the rural youths. The findings of the research revealed that there is widespread poverty among the rural youths in the study area. The study found that

there is prevalence of poverty among the youths in the rural areas mainly caused by absence of economic opportunities, lack of industries, illiteracy and unemployment. It was similarly, discovered that young females are poorer than their male counterparts and that poverty is the major cause for hunger, sicknesses, underdevelopment, begging and other forms of social vices, unemployment, drug abuse, involvement in social/political thuggery activities, and other crimes and security problems to the rural youths. The study recommends that government, non-governmental organizations and other stakeholders should prioritize agriculture, education, provision of capital and skills for small scale businesses and provision of vocational training to the rural youths.

However, the potentials of the Nigerian youth as the locomotive engines of national development must be properly harnessed and utilized through conscious and consistent efforts aimed at rural youth empowerment and development. The future of the Nigerian rural youths like their fatherland is very bleak. With several problems especially unemployment and poverty staring them daily in the face, their situation could not have been worse. Yet, our leaders carry on as if everything is fine. Also, widespread poverty in Nigeria has not only induced youth disempowerment, but also create conditions that underlie the gravitation by youths to criminal behaviours that hinder economic growth, political stability, harmonious social cohesion, and overall national development. The triggers of poverty in Nigeria were identified to include bad governance, weak social structures and poor implementation of social policies like the national youth development policy and poverty alleviation strategies engaged by different administrations. Widespread poverty in Nigeria, persist not so much because of the inability of the Nigerian youths to

utilize their creative energies for productive ventures but more as a product of the manner in which power, authority and resources are used in the country. Finally, some recommendations were offered to address the problems of the rural poor.

5.3 Recommendations

This study would be more meaningful if the lasting solutions regarding the problems of rural youth poverty are proposed and presented. In line with the above, some recommendations have been made as follows:

1. Government should improve and embrace the agricultural sector, so as to reduce or eradicate the rural youths poverty;
2. Provision of educational opportunities, employment opportunities, rural youths empowerment schemes/programmes can help in improving the conditions of the rural youths;
3. Provision of agricultural subsidies, and establishment of the small scale industries in our rural areas etc.;
4. There is the need for increased and sustained investment on human capital development in Nigeria, by way of increased provision and funding of free qualitative education, health care delivery, and public housing for the rural people;
5. There is the need for the Nigerian government to initiate and partner with the private sector to develop a functional microcredit schemes for the rural poor, especially the unemployed rural youths;

6. Government at all levels should partner with national and international development agencies to establish vocational education and entrepreneurship skills acquisition centers, both in the urban and rural areas. Despite, successfully completing higher education, there are still many young people who lack basic skills needed to support their post-school life;
7. Rural development and mechanized agriculture should be pursued by government and private sector;
8. Provision of rural youths empowerment schemes for the rural youths without regards to political affiliations; and
9. Sound education and public enlightenment for encouraging the rural youths to Participate in self-help organization.

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APPENDIX I

BAYERO UNIVERSITY, KANO

FACULTY OF SOCIAL AND MANAGEMENT SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY

QUESTIONNAIRE

I am an M.Sc. student from the Department of Sociology, Bayero University, Kano, conducting research on “**A study of Poverty among the Rural Youths in Rano Local Government Area of Kano State, Nigeria**”. Your assistance in answering the questionnaire will be highly appreciated. You are requested to complete the questionnaire by ticking and stating your opinion appropriately the boxes and spaces provided. All the information gathered will be treated confidentially and used for academic purposes only.

SECTION A: Demographic and Socio-economic Data

1. Age: (a) 18 – 25 years ☐ (b) 26 – 35 years ☐ (c) 36 – 45years ☐
(d) 46 – 50 years ☐ (e) 50 years and above ☐
2. Sex: (a) Male ☐ (b) Female ☐
3. Marital Status: (a) Single ☐ (b) Married ☐ (c) Widowed ☐
(d) Separated ☐ (e) Divorced ☐
4. Highest Educational Qualification:
 - (a) Primary School Leaving Certificate ☐
 - (b) SSCE/GCE/NECO NABTEB O' Level ☐
 - (c) Diploma/NCE/GCE A' Level/IJMB ☐
 - (d) Degree/HND ☐
 - (e) M.Sc. /M.A. ☐
 - (f) PhD ☐
 - (g) Others (Specify) _____

5. Monthly Income (in Naira)

- (a) N 500 and Below ☐
- (b) N5, 001 – N 20, 000 ☐
- (c) N20, 001 –N40, 000 ☐
- (d) N40, 001 – N60, 000 ☐
- (e) N 60, 001 – N 80, 000 ☐

- (f) N 80, 001 – N 100, 000
- (g) Above N101, 000

SECTION B: A Study of Poverty among the Rural Youths in Rano Local Government Areas of Kano State

6. Do you think there is prevalence of poverty among the youths in the rural areas of Rano local government?

(a) Very Prevalent (b) Not Prevalent (c) Don't Know

7. Are you able to afford three square meals a day?

(a) Yes (b) No

8. If your answer in question (7) above is (No) then, how often do you have meals a day?

(a) One Time (b) Two Times (c) Three Times

9. Are you capable of affording decent clothing? (a) Capable (b) No

10. If your answer in question (9) above is (No) then, what type of clothes do you often use? _____

11. Are you comfortable with your shelter/home? (a) Yes (b) No

12. If your answer in question (11) is (No) then, what is the nature of your shelter?

(a) Mud House (b) Grass House (c) Timber House
(d) Block/Concrete Building

13. Do you have access to medical care? (a) Yes ☐ (b) No ☐

14. If your answer in question (13) above is (Yes) then, what type of medical care do you use? (i) Traditional Medicine ☐ (ii) Modern Medicine ☐ (iii) Both ☐
(a) Modern Medicine:

15. If your answer in (14) above is Modern Medicine, then what type of health care Centre do you mostly attend when sick? Tick only one.

16. Do you have access to a portable drinking water?

(i) Dispensaries/ PHC ☐ (ii) General Hospital ☐ (iii) Specialist Hospital ☐
(v) Teaching Hospital/Federal Medical Centre ☐

(b) Traditional Medicine: (i) Traditional Healers ☐

17. Do you have access to a portable drinking water? (a) Yes ☐ (b) No ☐

18. If your answer in question (16) above is (No) then, what is the major source of your drinking water? Please tick only one below:

(i) Well Water ☐ (ii) Dam Water ☐ (iii) Stream Water ☐
(iv) Borehole Water ☐

(v) Pipe/Pump Water ☐ (vi) Pure Water ☐ (vii) Bottle Water ☐

19. Do you afford to send your children to school? (a) Yes ☐ (b) No ☐

20. How many children are you able to send to school? (i) 1-3 ☐ (ii) 4-5 ☐

21. (iii) 6-10 ☐ (iv) Over 10 ☐ (v) None ☐

22. Do you have access to electricity? (a) Yes ☐ (b) No ☐

23. If your answer in (20) above is (Yes) then, what is the source of the electricity?

(a) Personal Generator ☐

(b) Kano State Electricity, Board ☐

(c) Power Holding Company of Nigeria ☐

(d) Others (specify) _____

24. How would you assess your living condition?

- (a) Very Good
- (b) Good
- (e) Poor
- (f) Very Poor

25. Based on the above responses, can we say that you are:

- (a) Rich (b) Middle Level (c) Poor

26. Occupation:

(a) Primary Occupation:

- (i) Fish Farming
- (ii) Poultry Farming
- (iii) Animal Husbandry
- (iv) Crops Farming
- (b) Public/Civil Servant (c) Trading
- (d) Crafts Work
- (e) Others (Specify) _____

(b) Secondary Occupation:

- (i) Fish Farming
- (ii) Poultry Farming
- (iii) Animal Husbandry
- (iv) Crops Farming
- (b) Public/Civil Servant
- (c) Trading
- (d) Crafts Work
- (e) Pastoralist
- (f) Others (Specify) _____

27. How many acres/farmland are you able to farm every year? (i) 1-3 (ii) 3-5

(iii) 6-10 (iv) 11-15 (v) 16-20 (vi) 20 and above.

28. What type of labour do you use?

(a) Family Labour ☐ (b) Hired Labour ☐ (c) Communal Labour ☐

29. What types of farm implements do you use to farm? (i) Hoe and Cutlass ☐

(ii) Tractor ☐ (iii) Plough ☐ (iv) Ox-Plough ☐ (v) Combine Harvester ☐

30. Do you use chemical fertilizer? (a) Yes ☐ (b) No ☐

31. If yes how do you obtain it? (i) Government ☐ (ii) Market ☐ (iii) Both ☐

32. Does the government provide farming inputs to the people? (i) Yes ☐ (ii) No ☐

33. If your answer in question (30) above is (Yes) then are they sufficient? (i) Yes ☐
(ii) No ☐

34. Where do most farmers obtain the farming inputs?

(i) Market ☐ (ii) Government ☐

(iii) Others please specify _____

SECTION C: Causes of Rural Youths Poverty

35. What do you think are the causes of widespread poverty in the rural areas?

(a) Absence of economic opportunities ☐

(b) Lack of industries in the rural areas ☐

(c) Unemployment ☐

(d) Illiteracy ☐

(e) All of the above ☐

36. Can you mention those factors responsible for poverty in the rural areas other than those outlined above? (a) Yes ☐ (b) No ☐

37. If your answer in question (34) above is (Yes) Please explain: _____

36. What kinds of consequences does poverty have on people?

- (i) Hunger ☐ (ii) Sickness ☐ (iii) Ignorance ☐
 (v) Social Destitution ☐ (vi) Unemployment ☐ Underdevelopment ☐
 (vi) Crimes ☐ (ii) Begging/Jagaliya (Viii) All of ☐ above ☐
 (vii) Others please specify _____

37. Do these consequences have impacts on the individuals?

- (a) Yes ☐ (b) No ☐

38. Please explain _____

39. What consequences do you think poverty has on the rural families? (a) Divorce ☐

- (b) Marital Instability ☐ (c) Domestic Violence ☐ (d) Separation ☐
 (c) Broken Homes ☐ onflict ☐ lnutrition ☐ ckness ☐
 (h) Illiteracy ☐ (i) All of the Above ☐

40. Does poverty affect the community? (a) Yes ☐ (b) No ☐

41. If your answer in (40) above is yes please explain _____

42. What do you think can be done to alleviate the youths poverty in the rural areas? ____

43. What suggestions would you give that would further improve the living conditions of the rural youths?

Thank you so much for responding to my questions.

APPENDIX II

**In-depth Interview Guides for Rano Youths Association Leaders/ and Youths
development Officer of Rano Local Government Areas of Kano State**

Q1. What do you understand by the term Poverty?

Q2. Is poverty a problem among the rural youths in Rano Local Government Areas?

(a) Yes ☐ (b) No ☐

Q3. How widespread/limited/not widespread/undecided is the problem?

(a) Widespread ☐ (b) Limited ☐ (c) Not Widespread ☐ Undecided ☐

Q4. What do you think are responsible for the type of above poverty among the youths of Rano local government areas?

Q5. Among the causes of youth poverty which do you think is the primary cause?

Q6. Generally speaking, which group of youths are poorer (male/female)?

Q7. Explain your response to Q6 above?

Q8. Does poverty have any consequences on the lives of the youths? If yes, can you please explain?

Q9. What efforts do you make at governmental level to address the problem of poverty?

Q10. What are the impacts of your efforts?

Q11. What are the major problems encountered?

Q12. What suggestion would you make on the way out?

Thanks for your time