Towards Effective Poverty Eradication in Idah Local Government Area of Kogi State, Nigeria

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ABSTRACT

Poverty, which could be both an effect and a cause of itself among a people, has been a contemporary issue of global concern. It is most endemic among rural dwellers. In this study, the existence or otherwise of poverty in Idah Local Government Area of Kogi State was analyzed. Poverty in the area was decomposed into its distribution, depth and severity among four major occupational groups using the Forester, Greer and Thorbecke (FGT) family of poverty measures, and other Social Indicators of Poverty. The results show that poverty is most endemic among the farmers (which is the largest occupational group in the area) while the Artisans, though having the next headcount ratio (HCR), had the lowest severity. The paper therefore recommends among other things that, Institutions that provide the right set of incentives to farmers and entrepreneurs should be strengthened by government and relevant authorities to provide accessible funding and education to agricultural and related businesses and to create good market outlets for farm produce.
Keywords: Poverty, Poverty Definition, Poverty Measurement, Alleviation, FGT-Measure

INTRODUCTION

There is no single worldwide standard of poverty, and hence no acceptable count of the poor. But it is believed that "from one-third to two-third of the world's people consume fewer than 1,500 calories daily and are regularly hungry. These people live in poor countries, which represent two- thirds of the nations of the world" (Lewis 1966). According to the World Bank Report (1996), poverty is hunger; lack of shelter, being sick and not being able to go to school, not knowing how to read; not being able to speak properly, not having a job; fear for the future, losing a child to illness brought about by unclean water; powerlessness; lack of representation and freedom. Most contributors, according to Tussing (1975), view poverty in two different perspectives as referring to "moneylessness" and "powerlessness". Another distinction is between the concept of "relative" and "absolute" poverty. There is no total agreement on what all these terms mean. Therefore the "poverty

line" is various (Tussing, 1975). "Moneylessness" does not merely mean an insufficiency of cash but chronic inadequacy of resources of all types to satisfy such basic human needs as nutrition, rest, warmth, and bodily care. In some societies, many such needs can be satisfied without money, for example by one's agricultural production. What are deemed basic human needs also seem to vary over time and place. "Powerlessness" is a characteristic of poverty which is of great concern to analysts but which "moneylessness" is often mistaken for. The powerless are those who lack the opportunities and choices open to the non-poor, whose life to them seem governed by forces and persons outside their control, i.e. people in positions of authority, by perceived "evil forces" (forces which they do not know but believe to be evil since these forces do not always act in their favour) or "hard luck".

Causes and Effects of Poverty

Narayan (2000) posited that the causes of poverty may be classified into Structural and Transitional causes. Structural causes are more permanent and dependent on a host of (exogenous) factors such as limited resources, lack of skills, location disadvantage and other social and political factors. The disabled, orphans, landless farmers, households headed by females fall into these categories. The transitional causes are occasioned by structural adjustment reforms and changes in domestic economic policies that may result in price changes, unemployment and so on. Natural calamities such as wars, environmental degradation and so on also induce transitional poverty.

Most theories of poverty can be grouped under two broad headings viz. the "case theories" and the "generic theories". The former holds that poverty is explained on a case by case basis by such personal characteristics and circumstances as intelligence, education, or skill; health, age and handicaps; race together with discrimination; and attitudes such as work orientation. It holds that poverty count can be taken as the total count of the occurrences of each of these characteristics. And that poverty will be eradicated if such characteristics are reversed e.g. providing more education, fighting discrimination and so on (Lewis 1966). The later holds it to be the result of general nationwide forces. It argues for example that the economy provides too few non-poverty jobs and that at any time some must be unemployed and others employed at low wages, irrespective of racial discrimination, the number of handicapped and so on (Lewis 1966).

It is difficult to tell which theory applies in a given instance. One reason is that the individual characteristics, which cause poverty in the "case theory", explains its distribution in generic ones. One very important cause of poverty of individuals is poverty itself. There are a number of effects of poverty that are in turn causes of its persistence in individuals, families, races and other groups. According to Tussing (1975), Balogh (1974) and Harrington (1970), aspects of such vicious circle of poverty include:

i. *Schooling:* Less money is spent per pupil on schools attended by poor children, who spent few years in school, do less well, while there, and do not obtain the degrees, diplomas and certificates essential to later job successes.

ii. ***Health, Nutrition, and Safety:*** The poor have less nourishing diets and more birth defects, accidents, disease and reported mental illness than others. They are most likely to have reduced IQ's as a result of these factors and of lead poisoning, lack of parental care and infant sensory deprivation. They are also more likely to be alcoholics and narcotics addicts. As a result, they have higher absenteeism at work and school, lower energy levels, lower productivity and shorter lives.

iii. ***Crimes:*** Violent crimes such as rape, assault, homicide, and armed robbery are committed by and against poor people far more than the non-poor; and studies indicates that poor people are more likely to be arrested (falsely or rightfully), less likely to be released pending trial, and more likely to receive stiffer sentences (including capital punishments) than the non-poor.

iv. ***Racism:*** An American social scientist Gunnar Myrdal, in his classic study of Negroes in the U.S wrote "White prejudice and discrimination keeps the Negro low in standard of living health, education, manner and morals. This in turn gives support to white prejudice." A vicious circle.

v. ***Consumer Problems:*** Studies have shown that the poor pay higher prices and interest rates and are more frequently victimized in their purchases, and they pay more for housing.

vi. ***Politics:*** Poor people vote in much smaller number, are more likely to sell their votes and / or opinions for money, and are poorly organized to influence any government agent.

vii. ***Employment:*** The poor are more liable to face unemployment, irregular employment and low wages.

Recent studies show that about 45% of the approximately 590 million people living in the sub-Saharan Africa live below the poverty line. In 1993, an estimated 40% of the people lived on less than U.S $1 per day, and at least 50% of the world's poor live in five east Africa countries and Nigeria (World Bank, October 1996). World Bank (May 1996) also reports from a study conducted in Nigeria over the period 1985-1992 that "while the total number of people in poverty declined by over a million, there were significantly different trends in the rural and urban area. The number of poor people in the rural area fell sharply from 26.3 million to 22.8 million, while those in urban poverty rose from 9.7 million to 11.9million." This implies that a good number of Nigerians are caught in the web of poverty, and that a larger proportion of these Nigerians reside in rural areas. Therefore, it is obvious that concerted efforts must be channeled towards releasing these Nigerians from the web of poverty. The Nigeria governments over the years, in a bid to eradicate poverty set up a number of national programmes and agencies to fight poverty (Abiola and Salami, 2011). The United Nations Development System has contributed to these advances

by supporting many development projects in the social and economic sectors. In the process, thousands of Nigerians have been trained, national capacities have been built and close to U.S 250 million dollars in grant aid has been disbursed over the past 25 years (World Bank, June 1995). Despite various articulated poverty reduction policy initiatives, the menace of poverty on human life remains unabated (Alade, 2015). Therefore, poverty is still endemic in Nigeria most especially in the rural areas.

In Idah (our study area), young school aged children and even married women hawking all kinds of foods in the streets even when the children should be in school, is a common sight. The town, though located by the river Niger, does not have portable water supply and people rely on water from a stream which is supplied by old, rusty water Tankers. Outside Idah town itself there are no access roads to the villages. Where there is any, it not motorable. Most children in the streets have torn dresses on them. The people in this area live in fairly small sized houses either roofed with zinc sheets or thatched; it is common sight to find an average of three to five members of a family living in only one room. The streets in the town are very poorly planned as houses are built just any-how with very little element of urban planning.

There is no universally accepted definition of poverty. Several attempts to define the term have had various meanings attached to some very key phrases in the definition of poverty (Ukwu, 2002). According to the American government, "Poverty is concerned with the relationship between the minimum needs of people and their ability to satisfy these needs" (Sharp, Register and Grimes, 2009). Tussing (1975) defines poverty as: "The insufficiency of means relative to human needs". Hornby, McIntosh and Wehmeier (2005) sees poverty as: "A state of having little money, not having, and not being able to get the basic necessities of life". In all the attempts above the underlined phrases will require further definition, which of course will reflect the context in which poverty is being defined. For instance, "minimum needs of people" in the context of a particular country is certainly not the same as in the context of another country. Even within the same country this term varies in effect as one moves from place to place. It is therefore argued that since basic needs vary over time and place, poverty is relative i.e. that which constitutes poverty at one time and place will not in another. Others contend that human needs ought to be interpreted as absolute, and that the poor comprise only those lacking adequate resources for a given level of consumption (Lewis, 1966).

A strict distinction between "relative poverty" and "absolute poverty" concepts however, cannot be sustained. As one goes from place to place or one compares periods in one place, not only do standards of adequacy change, but so do ways of satisfying given needs. For instance, in some societies people walk to the market and buy their supplies daily, and families store little food at home. In other places, most food is distributed in large shopping centers and a week's supply or more is purchased at once and stored at home. In some societies like the United States, it is difficult to satisfy the food needs without a refrigerator and in many cases a vehicle. Lack of these and other needs such as telephone constitutes deprivation in such societies, unlike in simpler societies. A product socially required in its consumption and distribution is also a necessity just like food (Balough,

1974). Direct comparison of basic needs and living levels is therefore invalid across places with different levels and types of development (Enahoro and Ikpefan, 2005; Harrington, 1970 and Lewis, 1966). These arguments underlie the concept of **relative poverty**. The concept of **absolute poverty,** which sees poverty with respect to an accepted (reference) level, usually called the **poverty line,** appears to be more appropriate for poverty in the developing world. The concept was used in the studies of poverty done in countries like Cote d'ivoire, Indonesia, Malaysia, Korea, etc (Grootaert 1994 and Johansen 1993).

Poverty has very devastating effects on the people. Alade (2015) outlines ten devastating social problems of poverty as follows:

(1)   It generates social conflict and crises.
(2)   It leads to attendant health hazards.
(3)   Illiteracy and ignorance are seen to be on the increase.
(4)   Poverty constitutes a serious threat to social, economic, political and educational stability of a country.
(5)   Environmental degradation is heightened.
(6)   It generates high level of unemployment and corruption.
(7)   Dependency ratio of the poor on the rich becomes high.
(8)   It breeds criminality in the society.
(9)   Poverty undermines global competitiveness.
(10)   Job creation is at a low ebb.

Measurement of Poverty

There are a number of leading indicators in the measurement of poverty. Johansen (1993) in a study of poverty reduction in East Asia utilized what is referred to as social indicators of poverty and listed them to include:

1.   *Food intake:* The over- dependence on some particular food types as grains (which lack some essential minerals, vitamins and nutrients) leads to increased incidences of diseases especially among young women and children. Therefore the pattern of food intake is an indicator of the presence or absence of poverty.

2.   *Safe drinking water and sanitation:* Poor sanitation contaminates surface waters. Waters becomes unsuitable for drinking. It also reduces fish supplies, the cheapest source of protein for many. This is also another indicator of poverty. It is measured in most cases in terms of infant mortality (per thousand births).

3.   *Life expectancy and infant mortality:* Longer lives reflect better standards of living. This is measured in terms of infant mortality (per '000 births), or the number of deaths as a percentage of the total population.

4.   *Population growth:* A lower population growth rate facilitates a high human resources development within a given global economic growth by making more

available per capita. It is hardly possible to both have a high population growth rate and fast improvement in living standards. This is measured in the number of births and immigrants in the region per year.

5. *Literacy:* Education increases potential productivity and incomes and the more educated women choose lower fertility rates. This is measured in terms of the number of people who have attended at least the fifth grade level of education.

6. *Urbanization:* It avoids pressure on agricultural land and the related lower rural productivity, and allows economics of agglomeration, scope and scale to benefit residents in the growing cities. This is measured as the number of people who leave the rural areas for urban centers in a year.

7. ***Gross National Product (GNP) Per Capita and Income Distribution:*** It's short comings is an indicator of poverty (Johansen 1993 and Meier 1984).

The Concept of Poverty Line
In the United States, Mollie Orshansky (1965) and her associates used minimum food budgets by family size and age and sex of the family head. Since poor people spend about one third of their income on food, this food budgets were then multiplied by three to obtain the minimum income or poverty line. The poverty line normally has four characteristics viz.:
1. It is based on an absolute concept of poverty. This explains why measured poverty could decrease even when measured income inequality did not.
2. It is a cash income concept, which ignores not only wealth but also non-money income and transfers.
3. It is a nationwide average. In spite of large regional differences in average income and living costs, only one set of poverty threshold has been established.
4. It is a conservative estimate. By setting the line at a low level, the government can achieve public agreement that those below the line are poor (Harrington 1970).

The poverty line used in the study of poverty and poverty reduction in East Asian countries namely China, Indonesia, Thailand, Korea, Malaysia, and the Philippines in 1990 is the amount of calories consumed in a day by one person. This was fixed at 2,150 calories per person per day, with about 90% derived from grains (Johansen 1993).

Development Strategies Successful in Alleviating Poverty
According to Asian Development Bank (1997) and World Bank (1999), after a half century of development experience, there is a broad consensus regarding the major strategic elements that contributed to poverty retreating faster in some regions or countries than in others. These elements are:
1. A rapid poverty reduction has been much more likely to occur in countries and periods characterized by rapid economic growth;

2.   An outward orientation and a strategy of export-led growth, based on labor intensive manufacturers, is particularly conducive to poverty alleviation;

3.   Emphasizing agricultural and rural development at an early stage and encouraging the adoption of Green Revolution technologies contribute to productive employment creation and lower food prices thereby benefiting the poor;

4.   Investment in physical infrastructure and human capital which adds to the resource endowment of the poor unskilled households;

5.   Institutions that provide the right set of incentives to farmers and entrepreneurs such as property rights and a reliable and transparent judicial system and, finally;

6.   Social policies to promote health and education (particularly female primary education) and social capital as well as minimal safety nets to help protect not only the chronically poor but also those households caught in transient poverty.

METHOD

Data for this study which were basically primary were collected from a sample of households selected from the study area. The primary data were generated from field interviews and structured questionnaire administered to the respondents in the area.

Idah Local Government Area located 7^005'N, 6^045'E with a land mass of $36km^2$ has a population of 79,815 by the 2006 National Population Census, is made up three districts namely Old-Egah, Edeke and Idah native districts. The actual population of each of these districts is not known, but from observation, they are relatively small, with an average of about 26,000 people each. Stratified Random Sampling was used to collect the data to ensure good representation. The three districts were used as strata for data collection. Within each stratum, an equivalence sub-sample of forty households were selected using simple random sampling, from where data were collected. A total of one hundred and twenty (120) households were selected as respondents in this study. The Forster Greer Thorbecke (FGT) family of poverty measures, a model developed by Forster, Greer and Thorbecke (1984) which has been widely used in composite poverty studies was used to decompose the poverty level among occupational groups of respondents in the study.

$$P_\alpha = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{q}\left(\frac{z - yi}{z}\right)^\alpha$$ The Forster, Greer and Thorbecke FGT index also called the

P-alpha ($P_á$) measure is as follows:

Where:

n $\Rightarrow$ Number of people in the professional sub group.
q $\Rightarrow$ Number of poor people in the professional sub group.
z $\Rightarrow$ The poverty line.
yi $\Rightarrow$ Expenditure per capita of individual i.
α $\Rightarrow$ Poverty aversion parameter.

α can take any positive value or zero. The higher the value of α the more the index 'weighs' the situation of the poor. Of specific interest is when $\alpha = 0$ and when $\alpha = 1$. When:

1. $\alpha = 0$: determines the percentage of people below the poverty line.(i.e. the headcount ratio of poverty HCR). This ratio fails to pay attention to the depth of poverty. There is need to consider also the extent to which the expenditure of the poor people fall below the poverty line ie 'the income – gap ratio' which expresses the average shortfall as a fraction of the poverty line itself i.e.

2. $\alpha=1$: determines the depth of poverty and the amount of resources (a proportion of the poverty line) that must be contributed to raise the income level of the so identified poor to above the poverty line, that is to say, proportionate poverty gap (PPG). This reflects both the incidence and depth of poverty. It indicates the minimum amount of resources needed to eradicate poverty. When α is greater than one, the index gives more weight to the situation of the poorest so that a comparison of P1 and P2 can show whether the distribution among the poor has worsened or improved.

3. $\alpha = 2$: measures the degree of income inequality among the poor. (i.e. the FGT index) this is also a measure of the severity of poverty among the poor in the region of interest (Grootaert 1994).

   Let $y = (y_1, y_2, ... y_q)$ be a vector of household incomes in increasing order, and suppose that $z > 0$ is the predetermined poverty line. Where $g = z - y_i$ is the income shortfall of the ith household, $q = q(y; z)$ is the number of poor households (having income no greater than z), and $n = n(y)$ is the total number of households, consider the poverty measure P defined by

$$P_\alpha = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{q} \left(\frac{g_i}{z}\right)^\alpha$$

Following Sen (1976), poverty is a (normalized) weighted sum of the income shortfalls of the poor. In contrast to the Sen Measure, which adopts a "rank order" weighting scheme, P takes the weights to be the shortfalls themselves; deprivation depends on the distance between a poor household's actual income and the poverty line, not the number of households that lie between a given household and the poverty line. Sen (1976, 1979) also formulate two axioms for a poverty measure to satisfy:

Monotonicity Axiom: Given other things, a reduction in the income of a poor household must increase the poverty measure.

Transfer Axiom: Given other things, a pure transfer of income from a poor household to any other household that is richer must increase the poverty measure.

It can be shown that P satisfies these two axioms. Further; P is associated with a well-known inequality measure, the squared coefficient of variation.

Let $H = \frac{q}{n}$ be the headcount ratio,

$I = \sum_{i=1}^{q} \frac{g_t}{(qz)}$ be the income-gap ratio,

and $C_p^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{q} \frac{\left(\overline{y}_p - y_i\right)^2}{\left(q\overline{y}_p^2\right)}$,

where $\overline{y}_p = \sum_{i=1}^{q} \frac{y_i}{q}$.

Then $P(y:z) = H[I^2 + (1 - I)^2 C_p^2]$

Finally, the squared coefficient of variation C^2 is the measure of inequality "corresponding" to P in the sense that C^2 is obtained when n and y (the mean of y) are substituted for q and z in the definition of P (Sen, 1976).

A Class of Decomposable Measures

It can be seen from $P(y; z)$ above and the properties of C_p^2 (Atkinson, 1970) that a given transfer has the same effect on P at low or high income levels. Kakwani (1977) has proposed a property that stresses transfers among the poorest poor:

Transfers Sensitivity Axiom: If a transfer $t > 0$ of income takes place from a poor household with income y_i to a poor household with income $y_i + d$ $(d > 0)$, then the magnitude of the increase in poverty must be smaller for larger y_i. While P does not satisfy this axiom, it can be generalized to a class which contains poverty measures that do. For

each á > 0, let $P_á$ be defined by $P_\alpha(y; z) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{q} \left(\frac{g_i}{z}\right)^\alpha$

The measure P_0 is simply the headcount ratio H, while P_1 is $H*I$, a renormalization of the income-gap measure. The measure P is obtained by setting á = 2. The parameter á can be viewed as a measure of poverty aversion: A larger á gives greater emphasis to the poorest poor. As á becomes very large $P_á$ approaches á "Rawlsian" measure which considers only the position of the poorest household. It has been proved from the following proposition, Kolm (1976) that: The poverty measure $P_á$ satisfies the Monotonicity Axiom for á > 0, the Transfer Axiom for á > 1, and the Transfer Sensitivity Axiom for á > 2.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

From the table 1, it can be seen that most family heads in the survey were males. This is a positive indicator in poverty reduction. From the table 2, it can be seen that more than half

of the respondent households (58.33%) have four children or more. This is a characteristic of a poor population. From the table 3, it can be seen that almost half of the respondents (44.17%) have primary schooling or less. This is a characteristic of a poor community.

From the table 4, more than half of the respondents live in one room apartment. This is also a characteristic of a poor community. From the table 5, more than half of the respondents have access to borehole water. This is a safe source of drinking water. The table 7 shows the values of the various poverty indices by Occupational distribution computed from the incomes of poor households (Appendix I). From the table, Column 5 shows the Head count ratio of poverty (HCR) (α=0) for each of the groups. It shows that poverty is most prevalent among the Farmers, followed by the Artisans and then the Traders. The civil servants have the least prevalence. Column 6 shows the poverty gap ratio (PG) (α=1). This indicates how far below the poverty line the average income of the poor in this occupational group is. From the ratios, the farmers have the highest gap followed by the Traders then the Civil Servants. The Artisans ironically have the least gap. This shows that, though the prevalence is high among this group, the gap is small.

Column 7 shows the FGT ratio (α=2). This indicates the severity of poverty in the Occupational group. The farmers have the highest severity followed by the Traders, then the Civil Servants while the Artisans have the lowest severity.

From the analyses above, there are a number of social indicators of poverty in the area such as Family size, Educational level of family heads, quality of housing and source of water supply. The occupational distribution shows that the Farmers are the worst hit by poverty both in its incidence, prevalence and severity, Followed by the Traders and then the Civil Servants. The Artisans have a higher prevalence than the Traders and the Civil Servants but have the least depth and severity. This means that even though they have the highest incidence of poverty, the scourge is least severe. This could be explained by the fact that the remuneration they get for their work is poor. Since their clients come from these groups that have a more severe scourge of poverty, they are likely pay little or less than the value of the works done to them.

Table 1: Distribution of Respondent by Sex

Sex	Number	Percentage
Male	99	82.50
Female	21	17.50
Total	120	100

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Table 2: Distribution of Respondent Family Size

No of Children	Number	Percentage
None	17	14.17
1 – 3	33	27.50
4- 6	40	33.33
7 and above	30	25.00
Total	120	100

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Table 3: Respondents' Educational Qualification

Educational Qualification	Number	Percentage
Primary School Or Less	53	44.17
SSCE & Equivalent	20	16.67
OND / NCE & Equivalent	18	15.00
Graduates and Above	29	24.17
Total	120	100

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Table 4: Respondents' Residence Pattern

Residence Pattern	Number	Percentage
Single-Room Apartment	72	60.0
Two-Room Apartment	24	20.0
Three-Room Apartment	14	11.7
Self-Contained Apartment	10	8.3
Total	120	100

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Table 5: Respondents' Sources of Water

Sources Of Water	Number	Percentage
Inachalo	20	16.67
Tanker	40	33.33
Borehole	60	50.00
Total	120	100

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Table 6: Respondents' Occupational Distribution

Occupation	Number	Percentage
Farming	39	32.50
Civil servants	15	12.50
Artisan	44	36.67
Traders	22	18.33
Total	120	100

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Table 7: FGT Poverty Indices for the Different Occupational Groups

Occupational Group	Sample Size	Number of the poor	Poverty line	Head Count Ratio	Proportionate Poverty Gap	FGT
Farmers	39	29	23000	0.7436	0.3637	0.7274
Civil Servants	15	7		0.4667	0.1373	0.0623
Artisans	44	29		0.6591	0.0121	0.0011
Traders	22	12		0.5455	0.1501	0.0938

Source: Field Survey, 2016

APPENDIX I

INCOMES OF THE POOR BY OCCUPATIONAL GROUP IN ASCENDING ORDER

S/N	Farmers	Civil Servants	Artisans	Traders
1	N 1,867.00	N 10,126.00	N 5,767.00	N 1,839.00
2	N 2,039.00	N 12,218.00	N 5,910.00	N 2,045.00
3	N 2,663.00	N 13,822.00	N 9,032.00	N 3,882.00
4	N 2,767.00	N 15,543.00	N 9,714.00	N 4,837.00
5	N 3,021.00	N 18,064.00	N 10,856.00	N 5,748.00
6	N 3,042.00	N 19,894.00	N 11,363.00	N 5,928.00
7	N 3,876.00	N 21,950.00	N 12,462.00	N 6,823.00
8	N 4,427.00		N 12,786.00	N 7,020.00
9	N 5,644.00		N 13,237.00	N 8,053.00
10	N 7,067.00		N 13,415.00	N 17,317.00
11	N 7,804.00		N 14,748.00	N 17,810.00
12	N 8,336.00		N 14,897.00	N 22,086.00
13	N 9,734.00		N 15,928.00	
14	N 10,392.00		N 16,909.00	
15	N 11,399.00		N 17,020.00	
16	N 12,240.00		N 17,334.00	
17	N 12,346.00		N 17,654.00	
18	N 13,919.00		N 17,720.00	
19	N 16,438.00		N 18,691.00	
20	N 16,731.00		N 19,363.00	
21	N 17,027.00		N 19,576.00	
22	N 18,185.00		N 19,762.00	
23	N 19,451.00		N 20,610.00	
24	N 20,551.00		N 20,647.00	
25	N 20,829.00		N 20,987.00	
26	N 21,305.00		N 21,257.00	
27	N 21,961.00		N 21,465.00	
28	N 22,830.00		N 21,810.00	
29	N 22,857.00		N 22,761.00	
30	N 27,990.00			
31	N 29,611.00			

Source: Field Survey, 2016

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study concludes that poverty is generally prevalent in Idah Local Government Area. The most affected occupational group are the farmers. The Traders are next followed by the Civil Servants. The Artisans are least affected by the scourge of poverty though they have the highest number of poor people. This can be explained by the fact that most of these occupational groups depend on the civil servants who have not been paid regularly except for the Federal Civil Servants. From the findings above, it is recommended that:

i.   Attention must be directed first to the farmers in the design of development programmes in the area.

ii.   Institutions that provide the right set of incentives to farmers and entrepreneurs such as micro-finance institutions and agricultural extension services should be strengthened by government and relevant authorities to provide accessible funding and education to agricultural and related businesses and also create rewarding market outlets for farm produce.

iii.   Well-meaning individuals should be encouraged to establish low-fee high quality institutions or provide scholarships to enable the poor access quality education.

iv.   Government must intensify Investments in physical infrastructure and human capital which adds to the resource endowment of the poor unskilled households;

v   Government must provide social policies to promote health and education (particularly female primary education) and social capital as well as minimal safety nets to help protect not only the chronically poor but also those households caught in transient poverty.

vi.   Creation of access roads to the interior settlements will enhance commerce in the area.

vii   Government must dialogue with the poor to design programs that meet their needs, as it is only the poor that understand what they are going through and what they actually need.

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