

Poverty Alleviation Programme and Food Insecurity in Nigeria

Nwalie Martin Ike

Department of Political and Administrative Studies
(Political economy and Development)
Faculty of Social Sciences
University of Port Harcourt
Nigeria

Abstract

This study investigated the impact of National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) on food insecurity in Nigeria. It found out that very few people benefited from the programme. Among the beneficiaries there was significant improvement on their income status, they were actually lifted above the poverty line. However, living above poverty line could not guarantee them food security. While over 70% of the few beneficiaries of the programme live on or above 2 USD per day, only 24% of them are food secure. High food price inflation wiped out any gain that might have been made in income generation. This shows that living on or above poverty line does not necessarily imply being food secure and brings to fore the vital role of macro-economic factors of trade, exchange rate, monetary policy and inflation in achieving food security.

Keywords: Food security, poverty, macroeconomics, poverty eradication programme.

1 Introduction

Food insecurity became a recognized social and developmental problem in Africa in the 1980s. Prior to this period most Sub-Saharan African nations were food sufficient as a result of vibrant agricultural sector on which most of their economies depended (Ake 1981). From the 1990s however Sub-Saharan Africa became a region of severe and persistent food insecurity. According to Food and Agricultural Organization (2011), over 30% of world hunger incidents occur in Sub-Saharan Africa. In recent regional overview of food insecurity in Africa, FAO (2016) reported that 153 million of individuals above 15 years of age suffered from severe food insecurity in Africa in 2014/2015. Bremner (2012) noted that over 240 million people amounting to one in every four individuals in Africa lack adequate food, while 30 million children are underweight due to poor nutrition. In 2017 Global Hunger Index, out of the 8 countries that suffer from extremely alarming to alarming levels of hunger only Yemen is not from Sub-Saharan Africa. Sub Saharan African countries in that category include, Central African Republic, Chad, Liberia, Madagascar, Sierra Leon, Sudan and Zambia. Various factors have been put forward as responsible for this phenomenon including, population growth, poverty, neglect of agriculture and rural economy, bad macro-economic management, urbanization (rural-urban migration), weather etc. (Crush, Frayne & Pandleton 2012, Nwalie 2017).

In the Nigerian context, The International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI) has consistently been reporting chronic hunger in the country. In 2001 it reported that 18% of Nigerian population were faced with chronic hunger this however changed to 15.5% in 2011. Between 2004 and 2009, 26.7% of children under 5 are underweight while Under 5 mortality rate at the same period stand at 13.8%. The proportion of Nigerian population that were undernourished in 2008 was 5.9%, however in 2016 that proportion has gone up to 7% (IFRP-GHI, 2016). In March 2017 the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) declared that about 7.1 million people in Nigeria are facing acute food insecurity and in need of urgent lifesaving and livelihood protection (Food and Agriculture Organization, 2017). What data from Global Hunger Index indicates is that over the years the hunger situation in Nigeria has remained at the serious category. While it ranked 40th position in 2012, in 2017 It ranked 35th position with value of 25.5. The situation has not changed; Nigeria is still in serious hunger category of IFRP. It is a known fact that hunger and malnutrition result in low productivity mostly as a result of ill health and incompetency. On the social aspect a starving man thinks first of satisfying his hunger before anything else, this has resulted in “politics of the belly” in Nigeria, a situation where personal pecuniary gain comes first before general interest.

As a result, not only are many being wasted, but also the very fabric of civilization is being threatened by the hungry in their search for food. Morality, patriotism, and civility come second to a hungry man. The greatest challenge however is on the security of the country. The prevalence of hunger is becoming increasingly recognized as the root cause of many social conflicts in Nigeria (Oddih, 2009).

As a result, food insecurity has become a topical issue in the policy and academic arenas. This is because of the belief that if the problem of hunger is addressed, there is a chance of achieving global peace and sustainable development. Within Nigeria academic domain a stream of empirical research associated with the theme of food insecurity have been identified. Amongst these are the works of Sachs, (2005); Mukaila, (2009); Abdulatif, (2010); Adebayo, (2010); Adegbola, (2012); and Akinyele, (2012). The above studies show a common analytical trend with regard to the problem of food insecurity. There is a general tendency of linking food insecurity to poverty, especially absolute poverty based on the size of the population living below the poverty line. This thought direction has led to the proffering of solutions that aim at income generation and wealth creation. Based on this the Nigerian government in 2001 inaugurated National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) with a take-off grant of six billion Naira (₦ 6,000,000,000.00). The goal of the programme was eradication/reduction of absolute poverty and food insecurity in the country. Four schemes were created for this purpose, they include, Youth Empowerment Scheme, Rural Infrastructure Development Scheme, Social Welfare Service Scheme and National Resources Development and Conservation Scheme. The NAPEP programme ran from 2001 to 2013 during which over thirty-four (34) billion Naira was expended (Onwe&Nwakanma 2015).

2 Literature Review

Poverty:

Studies on the issue of poverty are numerous. There is no paucity of programmes and projects designed and formulated by various bodies and governments for poverty eradication. However, the way poverty is defined or framed has been a major determinant in shaping the way these programmes are designed. As a result of this, no single universal model has been achieved. A clear understanding of poverty in its entire ramification is therefore necessary in the study of poverty alleviation programmes.

Ateneo Research Network for Development (2003) has observed that poverty is multidimensional especially in the developing countries; as such its definition varies from place to place, while its indicators change over time. Often, and this is by no means restricted by space and time, poverty is equated with hunger, lack of shelter and other basic necessities of life. For others it is lack of jobs and an insecure future or lack of access to basic social services. Whichever way, poverty translates to powerlessness and limited economic choice. The multidimensional aspect of poverty is also recognized by Narayan (1999) in whose opinion poverty can be said to stand for some kind of hydra-headed socio-economic problem characterized by complex relationships that ultimately results in social exclusion.

From an aggregated view as suggested in the literature, poverty is characterized by a dovetail of socio-economic indicators such as lack of income, employment or job, land, food, health and even freedom. All these lacks can be categorized into broad areas as different dimensions of poverty such as, economic dimension, social dimension, cultural and ecological dimension.

Apart from these strands of poverty, there are other poverty related concepts that are essential to this study. These concepts can be broadly categorized into two; absolute and relative poverty. The operational understanding of the concept of absolute poverty which is sometimes referred to as subsistence poverty has to do with deprivation or lack of elementary or basic resources necessary to maintain a minimum standard of living in a given society. By this understanding, the literature on absolute poverty tends to define the concept within the familiar terrain of basic human needs (Haralambos and Heald, 1980). Maintaining a minimum standard of living depends on the availability of essential resources usually measured in terms of income. As a result, households or individuals who are unable to obtain these essential resources are classified as absolutely poor (Nweze and Ojowu, 2002). This measure of absolute poverty underscores most international poverty benchmarks often described in terms of poverty line. In other words, a minimum level of income below which those essential resources cannot be obtained is called the poverty line.

Thus, poverty line becomes the benchmark for determining those who are poor or not. In this regard, the World Bank has adopted one United States Dollars (1USD) per person per day (UNDP, 1997:70) as the benchmark for determining the poverty line.

Thus it is assumed that anyone living below one US dollar a day cannot afford those basic necessities to guarantee a minimum living standard, and as a result, the person, based on this standard, is categorized poor in the absolute conceptualization of poverty. Currently the poverty line for Nigeria has been shifted to 2 US Dollar per day in to order to reflect the obtainable exchange rate.

On the other hand, while absolute poverty focuses on minimum living standards as a measure of poverty, relative poverty derives its parameters from measuring economic equity. It can simply mean a situation where an individual or household income is less than the average income of the population in a given society. As a result, those with lower than average income have lower goods and services than the well to do households or individuals (Oladunni, 1999). Unlike absolute poverty, relative poverty varies from society to society as it has to do with national income. Those who have a lower share of the national income ultimately have lower resources and as such may not partake fully in the ordinary living pattern of a particular society, resulting in social exclusion which typifies poverty.

From the above analysis it is easy to decipher why an acceptable universal model or paradigm of poverty alleviation programme has not been reached, since in most cases scholars view poverty differently. Scholars are divided between tackling relative poverty or absolute poverty. Most scholars on the left are of the opinion that the best way to tackle poverty is to address the issue of inequality. They argued that though poverty is not inequality but that solving the problem of inequality can help people out of poverty. Unwin (2007) categorically stated that if we cannot address relative poverty, we cannot eliminate absolute poverty. This view is also expressed in Archibong (1997) that the poor in a society arise spontaneously with inequality. Poverty is therefore seen as a function of entrenched social and economic inequality, as a result the greatest poverty is to be found where there is the greatest difference in income level and access to resources (Tella, 1997 and Unwin, 2007). The link between social policy and poverty reduction is stressed by these scholars, issues like land redistribution and resource re- allocations are held to be key factors in poverty alleviation. For these scholars what is needed is the reconstruction of the social order in terms of redistribution of social /economic powers to make room for a fairer and equal control of country's wealth (Lappe and Collins, 1982).

On the other hand, the rightists as represented by Jeffrey Sachs and supported by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank insist that poverty eradication must center on absolute poverty (Sachs, 2005). This position is predicated on the perception that poor countries are more concerned with basic needs (absolute poverty) than living standard (relative poverty). Moreover, it is believed that poverty eradication under relative poverty in developing nations is harder than absolute poverty. O'Donnell (1997) opined that what is common in developing nations is absolute poverty as against relative poverty. Based on this rightist idea, supported by the IMF and the World Bank, most attempts towards poverty eradication in developing countries, Nigeria inclusive have been aimed at absolute poverty. The record however is not showing a corresponding success when compared to hopes and commitments.

Poverty and Food Insecurity

According to the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO, 1996) food consumption insecurity exists when a certain individual or group cannot gain access to adequate food given their nominal income and the price and the availability of food. On the other hand, World Bank (1986) defined food security as access of all people at all times to enough food for an active, healthy life. Further FAO (1996) described food security as a situation that exists when all people, at all times, have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food that meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life. In General, Food security is taken to be access by all people at all times to sufficient food for an active, healthy life without the need to resort to use of emergency food supplies, begging, stealing or scavenging. While food insecurity is limited or uncertain availability of nutritionally adequate and safe food. From the above a linkage can be established between poverty and food insecurity. Both are mutually reinforcing concepts in theory and practice. In this regard, the relationship between the two concepts has been significantly acknowledged in policy and academic cycles. This is perhaps why poverty alleviation programmes are seen as universally acceptable platforms for tackling or even eradicating food insecurity problems. People are hungry because they are poor and cannot afford food; it is then assumed that the best way to eliminate hunger is through poverty alleviation programmes.

However, the relationship is not as simple and as clear as it may first appear. Nevertheless, mainstream scholars within the social and management sciences still hold the view that there is a strong inverse relationship between income and food insecurity (Almao et al. 1998; Bartfeld and Dunifon, 2003).

The perception is that food insecurity and poverty are closely linked and form a vicious circle. They claim that food insecurity is five times more prevalent when households live below poverty line. On the contrary however, some recent researches have shown that food insecurity is much more complex than a simple income dependent phenomenon. Not all food insecure households are living below the poverty line and not all households living below the poverty line are food insecure. As demonstrated by Rose (1999), there is no one-to-one correspondence between poverty and food insecurity. Using data from the United States, Rose (1999) shows that only about 13.1% of households categorized as living in poverty also experienced hunger, and among those who are hungry only 50% are also living below the poverty line (Hamilton, Olsen et al. 1997; Rose 1999). Similarly, in Nigeria, Akinyere (2010) reported that although food energy poverty incidence is high among the poor about 54.7% than non-poor. However, when disaggregated by geographical zones it is observed that whereas the poor in North West, North East, and North Central have higher food energy poverty than the non-poor, in the South East, South West, and South-South, the contrary is the case. In the Southern areas of Nigeria food/energy poverty is higher among the non-poor than those living below the poverty line. These go a long way to show that food insecurity is not wholly poverty dependent. The adoption of poverty alleviation programme as a major instrument for food insecurity elimination is therefore questionable. Sen (1981) posits that it is a reductionist view to equate an individual's capacity to access food with the level of his income. While it is easily agreeable that income is an important factor in food insecurity, it is nevertheless too simplistic to evaluate and base food insecurity issues wholly on income as this would mean leaving the tale half-told. Poverty centered view of food insecurity takes no account of nonmonetary food transfer and the consumption of subsistence food as shown in the case of Southern Nigeria. Majority of people in southern part of Nigeria live on subsistence farming such that although most live below poverty line but they are not correspondingly food insecure. This confirms the Nigeria proverb that says "a family that owns farm, when climate is good suffers no hunger."

Aggregating perspectives from the literature reviewed so far, it is easy to see that adopting a poverty alleviation programme that is founded on the theoretical assumptions of absolute poverty (focusing on those that live on less than 2dollars a day) is likely to be less effective in reducing food insecurity. Most food insecure households will be excluded as they already live above poverty line, while those that live below poverty line but are food secure will be included. This has been a major setback of the "narrow focus model" of poverty alleviation for it hardly reaches the majority of members of a particular target group. And in most cases a great number of the beneficiaries are not even within the target group (Hume and Mosley, 1996).

3 Materials and Method

The broad objective of this work is to assess the impact of The National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) on the situation of food insecurity in Nigeria in general and Rivers state in particular. It is a case study on the impact of National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) on food insecurity situation in Nigeria with focus on Rivers state. Specifically, we want to ascertain the effectiveness of poverty alleviation programmes as an instrument for food insecurity eradication in Nigeria. We aimed at providing answer to the question on whether poverty alleviation programmes are effective in terms of reducing/eradicating food insecurity in Nigeria. The study covers the period 2003 to 2012. The poverty alleviation programme it covered were those undertaken by the Federal Government of Nigeria under National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) of 2001 to 2013.

The study was conducted in Rivers state in the South-South geo-political zone of Nigeria. The state is made up of twenty-three local government areas with a population of about 5,198,716 based on 2006 population census (NPC 2017). Six local government areas were selected out of the 23 to represent the different geographical and demographic character of the state. These are Obio-Akpor (Population: 464, 789), Bonny (Population: 214, 983) and Oyiibo (Population: 122, 687) representing urban population. While Etche (Population: 249, 454), Degema (Population: 249, 773) and Emuoha (Population: 201, 901) represent the rural population. The estimated total population the six LGAs based on the National Population Commission's (2006) census publication is put at 1,503,587. This figure constitutes the study population for the first phase of the study.

While Obio-Akpor has a huge presence of oil and gas companies and workers, Oyiibo has little or no presence of oil industries. While both Obio-Akpor and Oyiibo are in upland terrain Bonny is an island. This difference in terrain and economy also manifest in the peoples means of livelihood and the cost of living. The local governments in rural areas (Etche, Degema and Emuoha) are mostly agrarian economies but while the population of Etche and Emuoha are predominantly farmers, in Degema you find many in the fishing industry.

Focusing on related geographic, economic and social diversities in the selected population we hope to get a fair representation of all shades of people and situation that is likely to lead to an accurate representation of the situation in Rivers state. The ultimate target population however were members of the respondents in the phase one who between 2003 and 2013 benefited in one way or the other from any of the poverty alleviation programmes of NAPEP in Rivers State. This population therefore is a sub-set of the population in phase one. What set them apart from the rest, is their participation/being beneficiary of the poverty alleviation programmes of NAPEP. They constitute our ultimate population of study.

In phase one a structured questionnaire was randomly administered among the residents of selected local government areas. The aim was to ascertain their means of livelihood, awareness of Poverty Alleviation Programmes and to confirm if they participated/benefited from any of the schemes of National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) between 2002 and 2012(see Tables 1&2 and Chart 1). In phase two a questionnaire and an in-depth focused interview were administered and conducted on a sub-set of the phase one respondents (those who benefited from any of the schemes of NAPEP between 2002 and 2012). The aim was to ascertain their current daily income; current food security status and the effect if any of the poverty alleviation programme scheme on their income and food security status (see Tables 3& 4).

3. Data presentation and Analysis

The data presented are primary. In phase one the data was obtained through structured questionnaire administered on respondents from six local government areas in Rivers state. Among the six local government areas, three are rural while the other three urban. Four (400) hundred questionnaires were administered in each local government totaling two thousand four hundred (2,400) questionnaires. Out of the two thousand four hundred (2,400) administered questionnaires, one thousand four hundred and thirty-eight (1,438) were completed and returned, amounting to about 60% return rate (see Table 1). In the administered questionnaire, the final section asked the respondents to indicate their willingness to be contacted for future interview by providing contact information. All the one thousand four hundred and thirty-eight completed and returned questionnaire indicated their willingness to be contacted and interviewed. Thus they formed our sample size for phase two.

The demographic and occupational variables of the respondents consist of location (rural and urban), gender (men and women) and employment status are shown. Specifically, under location, out of the 1,438 questionnaire that were collated for analysis 573(40%) of the respondents were from rural areas, while 865(60%) of them were from urban areas. With regard to the second variable (gender of respondents), the data reveals that out of the 1,438 respondents that took part in the study, 880(61%) of them were males, while 558(31%) of them were females. This is likely a result of the fact that most of the households are largely dominated by males as their heads. Finally, regarding the third variable (employment status) out of 1,438 respondents in the study, 520(36%) of them are self-employed artisans, 505(35%) of them are farmers, 113(8%) of them are employed in the formal sector, while 300(21%) of them are unemployed (see chart 1).

In table2, three questionnaire items were used to address their awareness and participation in NAPEP schemes. Item one which tests for their awareness of the poverty eradication programme was adjudged positive for out of the 1,438 respondents, 1,079 (75%), were aware of the programmes. Item two which tests for their participation in the programmes was however judged negative for out of 1,438 respondents only 374 (26%) acknowledged participating in the programme. Because the number of respondents who participated/ benefited from poverty alleviation programmes under NAPEP are below 50% item 2 is judged negative. This shows that 75% of the respondents were aware of the poverty alleviation programmes. However, the level of awareness did not correspond with the level of participation. They actually seem to be in inverse proportion; while we have 75% level of awareness the level of participation is 26%. The low level of participation is made more glaring in item three where 65% claimed ignorant of any beneficiaries in their community. This shows the paucity of the number of beneficiaries per community.

In chart 2 seven sub-items were raised in trying to find out the poverty alleviation programmes that the respondents benefited from. Out of the 374 respondents that benefited from various NAPEP schemes, 3% benefited from cash transfer, 11% from capacity acquisition programme, 6% farmers' empowerment scheme, 7% from management attachment and 73% benefited from Keke NAPEP (commercial tricycle project). In essence, out of 1,438 respondents, only 374 benefited from NAPEP programme. Moreover, out of these 374 respondents, 274 amounting to 73% of the beneficiaries benefited from the "keke NAPEP" (tri-cycle) poverty alleviation

scheme. This clearly shows that out of the seven poverty alleviation schemes that were executed by NAPEP, only one has the most impact in terms the number of people who have been part of it. In the same vein, it can be rightly agreed that since the programmes covered very few people, its impact on food insecurity is also minimal.

Another set of questionnaire was then administered on this judgment sample (374 respondents that benefited from the government programme) centered mostly on their income and food security status. The survey instrument was designed to take approximately 10 minutes to complete. It consists of (1) social demography (2) employment status (3) income level (4) food procurement/eating habit. Food insecurity was measured with the US Department of Agriculture Food Security Core Module (USDA, 1999). The core module consists of eighteen questions but as nine were primarily about households with children they were excluded without any loss in precision. The remaining nine items were used. In correlating the responses, “sometimes” and “often” were collapsed to “Yes” while “never” stood for “No”. The answers to these nine items were summed to create a food insecurity scale. Based on the scaling procedure developed by the USDA, individuals with zero to two affirmative responses to the 9 items were categorized as being food secured, individuals with three to five affirmative responses were categorized as food insecure without hunger, and individuals with six to nine affirmative responses were categorized as food insecure with hunger (Bickel, Nord, Price, Williams, & Cook, 2000). Also, decision rule was established at the criterion mean score of 50% using two response options of Yes and No as the benchmark. This implied that any questionnaire item that has a weighted value below 50% was rejected (negative) and those above were accepted (positive).

Based on the above, Chart 3 below was derived. The data in the pie chart reveals that out of 374 respondents that are beneficiaries of National Poverty Alleviation Programme (NAPEP) only 24% amounting to 90 individuals are food secure. Those that are food insecure are categorized into two with 67 amounting to 18% being food insecure without hunger while 217 amounting to 58% being food insecure with hunger. It shows that those belonging to category of food insecure with hunger outweighed those that are in the categories of food insecure without hunger and food secured. As a result, it is obvious that benefiting from poverty alleviation programmes does not translate into food security. In other words, the NAPEP has not being able to significantly address the problem of food insecurity even among the beneficiaries.

Using the exchange rate of ₦ 360 per 1 USD it could be seen that over 70% of the respondents are living on or above 2 USD per day as shown in table 4. However, when compared with table 3 it could be observed that despite their daily income being above 2 USD per person per day, only 24% are food secure while the remaining 76% remained food insecure in different categories.

4 Discussions

In this study 26% of the respondents acknowledged participating and benefitting from NAPEP (National Poverty Eradication Programme). Among these, 86% claimed that participating in the programme brought increase in one way or the other to their daily income as shown in table 4. Unfortunately, this increase in income, which actually lifted them above poverty line, was not able to guarantee them food security as highlighted in table 3. What this shows is that when poverty alleviation is conceived from the perspective of absolute conception of poverty, its success may not always lead to food security. Living above poverty line (2 US dollar per person per day) does not automatically mean food security and food security does not imply living above the poverty line. There are other considerations.

As shown in table 4 the 7% that does not know their daily earning are mostly among the rural farmers and fishermen. These village farmers though lacking in most basic amenities and living in financial hardship nevertheless most of them are food secure as the farm invariably takes adequate care of their feeding needs. This takes us to the complex relationship between absolute conception of poverty, income and food security.

Living on 2 USD plus a day cannot guarantee food security due to high inflation rate in an import dominated economy like Nigeria. This puts a big question mark on the conventional method of absolute conceptualization of poverty using 1 or 2 USD poverty line as a measure of living standard. Any discerning Nigerian knows that whosoever lives on seven hundred naira (₦ 700.00) a day will be living in squalor, nevertheless he will not be categorized as living in absolute poverty when using 1 or 2USDper person per day as poverty line. Poverty in this way is underestimated because consumption pattern occurring as a result of high food price is not usually considered.

Poverty alleviation schemes even when it results in income generation will have no significant impact on food insecurity if proper macroeconomic management is lacking. This shows the crucial role of macro-economic factors of trade, exchange rate, monetary policy and price inflation rate in food security (Nwalie 2017). This is one of the reasons why most analysis of food insecurity seems to sound too economic. With high inflation rate and over dependence on imported food in Nigeria, it is not surprising that food price inflation plays a major role in Nigeria's food insecurity as it determines the quantity of food a consumer could acquire at a particular point in time with a specific amount of money even in the face of physical availability. Thus unchecked rise in food price can undermine any gain made in poverty reduction with regard to food security, and this has been confirmed in this study.

From the data presented in this study, it could be observed that food insecurity in Nigeria is less of physical access but more of sustainable and economic access. People are not hungry because there is no food, but because they do not have enough money to buy, in other words the price is too high when compared to income. The response to the question on whether they worry about food running out before they have money to buy more recoded 61.5% yes. On whether they eat smaller meal than they needed due to lack of money we have 62% yes. On the same vein on whether they skip meal in order to spend money on other needs we have 77% saying yes, but when asked whether they go a whole day hungry due to lack of money, only 35% say yes. What this shows is that though overwhelming population of Nigerians are food insecure, nevertheless they are not starving. This is corroborated by Akinyere (2009) whose study shows that 51% of Nigerians ate twice a day, 10% once a day and 34% thrice. Sachs (2005) may actually be describing an average Nigerian when he stated: "They live above mere subsistence, although daily survival is pretty much assured, they struggle in the cities and country side to make ends meet. Death is not at their doors but chronic financial hardship and lack of basic amenities are part of their daily lives" (p62).

The fact therefore must be recognized that the benefits from Poverty Alleviation Programme had minimal, almost unrecognizable effect on the consumption pattern (food security status) of the few beneficiaries.

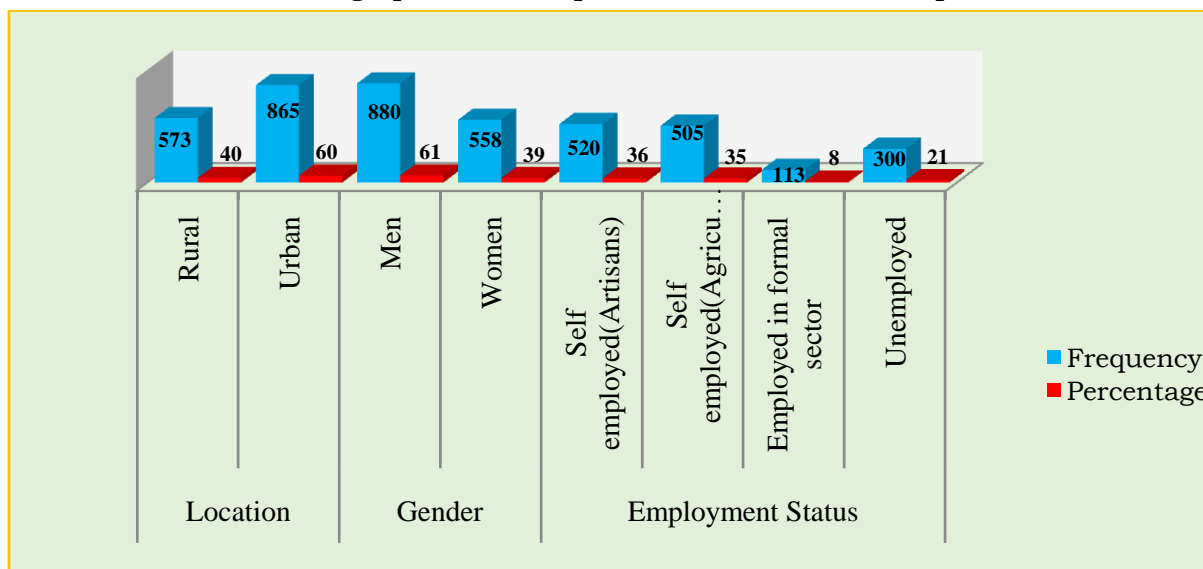
Tables and Charts:

Table 1: Questionnaire Distribution and Retrieval Based on Six Local Government Areas of Rivers State.

S/N	Local Government Areas	Number Distributed	Number Retrieved	Return Rate (%)
1.	Obio-Akpor	400	335	84
2.	Bonny	400	280	70
3.	Oyigbo	400	250	63
4.	Etche	400	200	50
5.	Emuoha	400	239	56
6.	Degema	400	134	33.5
	Total Responses	2,400	1,438	60

Source; Survey Data, 2017

Chart 1 Demographic and Occupational Variables of the Respondents



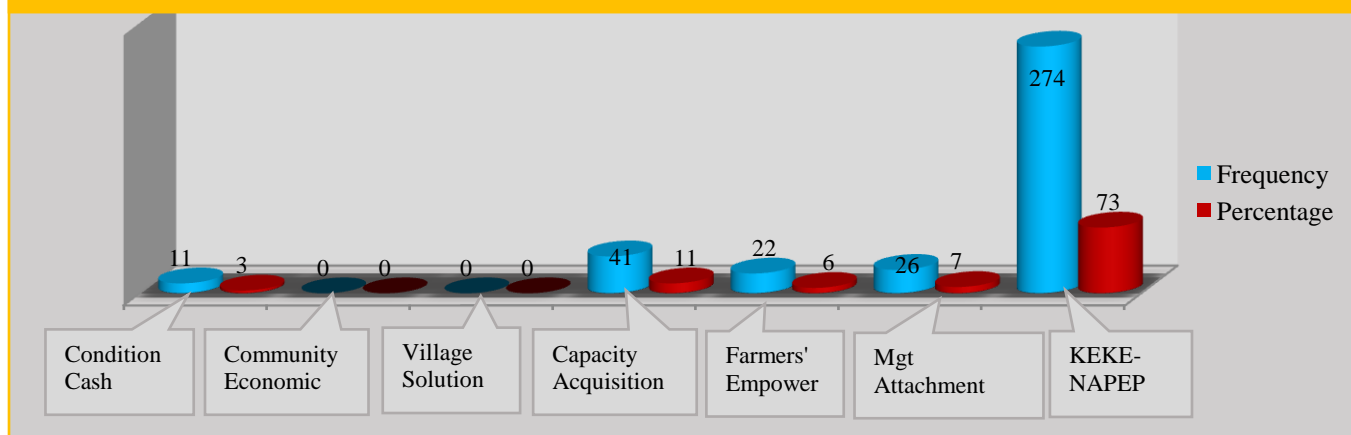
Source; survey Data, 2017

Table 2: Awareness and Participation in Napep Schemes

S/N	Questionnaire Items	Response Option								Remark
		Yes		No		Not Sure		Total		
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
1.	Are you aware of any government poverty alleviation programmes between 2002 to 2012	1,079	75	345	24	14	1	1,438	100	Positive
2.	Did you participate in or benefit from any poverty alleviation programmes of NAPEP from 2002 to 2012	374	26	1,055	73.4	9	0.6	1,438	100	Negative
3.	Do you know of any one in your community that benefit from poverty alleviation programme between 2002 to 2012	502	35	936	65	0	0	1,438	100	Negative

Source: Field survey, 2017

Chart 2: NAPEP Programmes that Respondents have Benefited from

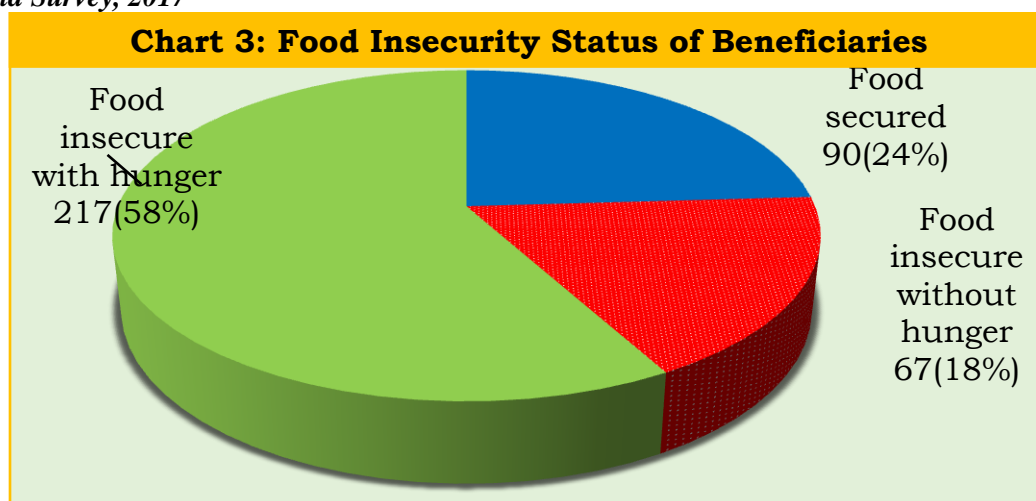


Source: Field survey, 2017

Table 3: Food Security Survey

S/N	Question	NO		YES		No. of Response
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
1	In the last 12 months, have you experienced worry whether you will run out food before you have money to buy more?	144	38.5	230	61.5	374
2	In the last 12 months, have you experienced a situation whereby the food you have finished and you did not have money to buy more?		39	228	61	374
3	In the last 12 months, is there a time you have not been able to eat the kind of food preferred for lack of money?	16	4.3	359	96	374
4	In the last 12 months, have there been a time that you ever lacked food in your house for lack of money to buy?	144	38.5	230	61.4	374
5	In the last 12 months, have you stayed for a whole day without food for lack of money to buy?	281	75	93	25	374
6	In the last 12 months, have you gone to bed at night hungry for lack of food to eat?	213	57	161	43	374
7	In the last 12 months, have you remain on a diet daily for lack of money?	61	16.4	312	83.5	374
8	In the last 12 months, have you eaten small meal than you ever do for lack of money?	138	37	233	62.3	374
9	In the last 12 months, have you skipped meal or go hungry because you needed to spend money on other more pressing needs?	86	23	288	77	374

Source: Field Survey, 2017



Source: Field Survey, 2017

Table 4: Current Average Daily Earning Of the Respondents

S/n		Frequency	Percentage
1	₦100 to ₦199	-	-
2	₦200 to ₦ 399	-	-
3	₦400 to ₦ 599	-	-
4	₦600 to ₦ 999	54	14%
5	₦1,000 to ₦ 1,999	260	70%
6	₦2,000 to ₦ 4,999	26	7%
7	₦5000 upwards	8	2%
8	Don't know	26	7%
9	Total number of respondents	374	100

Source: Field Survey, 2017

References

- Abdulateef, U. & Ijaiya, T., (2010). Agricultural Trade Liberalization and Food Security in Nigeria. *Journal of Economic and International Finance*, 2 (12), 299-307.
- Adebayo, A. (2010). Food Security Status in Nigeria. *International Journal of Economic Development Research and Investment* (1) 1, 124-146.
- Adegbola, J. (2012). Food Security in Nigeria. *Journal of Advances in Food and Energy Security*. (2)2, 1-9.
- Ake, C. (1981). Political Economy of Africa. Harlow, Essex: Longman
- Akinyere, I. O. (2009). Ensuring Food and Nutritional Security in Rural Nigeria. Nigeria Strategy Support Programme (NSSP) Paper No. NSSP.007
- Archibong, P.E. (1997). *Nigeria: Towards a Realistic and Integrated Anti-poverty Strategy*. National Economic Summit 1997, Ibadan.
- Ateneo Research Network for Development (2003). Institutional Convergence Framework for Local Poverty Reduction Strategy Programme. NAPC Philippine.
- Bartfield, J. & Dunifon, R. (2003). State –level and Household level Predication of Food Insecurity. Washington D.C. Association for Public Policy Analysis.
- Bickel, G., Nord, M., Price, C., Hamilton, W., & Cook, J. (2000). Guide to measuring household food security. Washington, D.C. United States Department of Agriculture, Food and Nutrition Service.
- Bremner, J. (2012). Population and Food Security. Washington, Population Reference Bureau.
- Crush, J., Frayne, B., & Pandleton, W. (2012). The Crisis of Food Insecurity in African Cities. *Journal of Hunger and Environmental Nutrition*, Vol.7, 271-292.
- Food and Agriculture Organization. (2011). State of Food Insecurity in the World – Food security indicators. Retrieved from www.fao.org/publications/sofi/en/.
- Food and Agriculture Organization. (2017). Food Security and Nutrition Situation in Sahel and West Africa. Retrieved from: reliefweb.int/report/Nigeria/food-security-and-nutrition-situation-in-sahel-and-west-africa-currentmarch-may-2017.
- Food and Agriculture Organization. (2016). Africa Regional Overview, Food Security and Nutrition. www.fao.org/publications/rofsn-africa/en.
- Food and Agriculture Organization (1996) Rome Declaration on World Food Security and World Food Summit Plan of Action. <http://www.fao.org/docrep/003/w3613e/w3613e00.HTM>.
- Food and Agriculture Organization (2012). State of Food Insecurity In The World - Food security indicators www.fao.org/publications/sofi/en/ accessed on 12/10/2013.
- Hamilton, Olsen et al. (1997). Household Food Security in the USA in 1995. FCS/USDA Washington D.C.
- Haralambos, M. & Heald, R. M. (1980). Sociology: Themes and Perspectives. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Hume, D. and Mosley, P. (1996). Finance Against Poverty. London Routledge: International Food Policy Research Institute, (2017). Global Hunger Index 2016. Washington: International Food and Policy Research Institute. Retrieved From: www.ifpri.org/publication/2016-global-hunger-index
- International Food Policy Research Institute, (2012). Nigeria food security portal www.Foodsecurityportal.org/Nigeria.
- Lappe, F. & Collins, J. (1982). Food First. London Abacus.

- Mukailia, I. (2009). Agricultural Credit Guarantee scheme and Food Security in Nigeria. *Journal of international Economic Review Vol.2*
- Narayan, D. (1999). Bonds and Bridges: Social Capital and Poverty. World Bank
- Nwalie, M. (2017). The Paradox of Food Insecurity in Nigeria (2011-2017). *African Journal of Agriculture and Food Security Vol. 5 (5), pp. 202-208*
- Oddih, M. (2009). Globalization and socio-political conflict in Nigeria. In Ikejiani-Clark(ed.) *Peace Studies and Conflict Resolution in Nigeria, Spectrum Books Ibadan (2009).*
- Onwe, S. & Nwakanma, M. (2015). An Assessment of National Poverty Eradication Programme in Nigeria: A Case Study of Ebonyi State. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences, 5(2) 227-237*
- Rose, D. (1999). Economic Determinants and Dietary Consequence of Food Insecurity In USA. *Journal of nutrition 129*
- Saach, J. (2005). End of Poverty. Penguin Publishers New York.
- Sen, A. (1981). Poverty and Famines: An Essay on Entitlement and Deprivation. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Tella, S. (1997). Schema for Monitoring Poverty Alleviation. Ibadan National Economic Summit 1997.
- Unwin, T. (2007). No end to poverty. *Journal of Development studies, 43:5.929-953.*
- United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), (2001). Human Development Report. Oxford University Press
- World Bank, (2014). Global undernourishment report. www.worldbank.org/indicator/SN.ITK.DEFC.ZS.
- World Bank (1986). Poverty and Hunger. Washington D.