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Impact of Government Poverty Alleviation Programmes on Rural Development in Kaduna and Gombe States: Implications for Public Administration

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Abstract
In developing societies, a large proportion of the populace lives in rural areas. These areas are largely characterized by defective or poor infrastructural facilities, poor access to health and educational facilities, poor living condition and high incidence of poverty. Thus, Poverty issue and how to minimize its incidence remain a great issue of concern by most countries of the world, especially the developing ones such as Nigeria. This paper focuses on a retrospect of National Poverty Eradication Programmes (NAPEP) inter alia: Farmers Empowerment Programmes (FEP), In Care of the People (COPE) and the Village Economic Development Solutions (VEDS). The paper revealed that NAPEP were actually deficient to empower farmers in the rural communities of Kaduna and Gombe States. Further, findings showed that provision of loans to farmers, supply of modern agricultural equipment, fertilizer, seeds, and other agricultural facilities to aid farming in these rural communities were granted to farmers at random based on their political connectivity and patronage. The paper also found that access to basic health and education in rural communities in Nigeria was deficient. NAPEP has not done enough in the provision of dispensary and maternity homes, rehabilitation and building of primary schools as well as free education for the rural populace. The Paper concluded that poverty alleviation programmes lacked sincerity of purpose, sagacity and tenacity in practice, as it served as political patronage instead of succour for ameliorating the sufferings of rural communities in Nigeria. Government fiscal and monetary policies should be geared towards wealth creation, reducing inequality, rate of unemployment and poverty.

Key Words: Poverty, Government Poverty Alleviation Programmes, Rural Development

Introduction

In virtually all developing countries, significant proportion of the populace lives in rural areas. These areas are largely characterised by defective or poor infrastructural facilities, poor access to health and educational facilities, poor living condition and high incidence of poverty (United Nations Human Development Report, 2008). In Nigeria, based on the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) report, Nigeria's poverty rate has increased over the years from 15% in 1960 to about 66% in 1996 and about 70% in 2000. In fact, the United Nation's (UN) Human Development Reports (HDR) of 2006 rated Nigeria's poverty rate between 1990 and 2005 as 70.8% of the populace (NBS, 2012; UNHDR, 2006). The report of the Fund For Peace for 2012 ranked Nigeria as the 8th nearly failed state in Africa in 2010 and the 14th in the entire world in 2011 (Sheriffdeen, 2012).

Being among the key global challenges of the century, poverty issue and how to minimise its incidence remain a great issue of concern by most countries of the world, especially the developing ones such as Nigeria. This compelled several countries to embark on variety of programmes, projects and strategies as well as adoption of some international treaties such as the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) now Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) in their quest to ensuring that poverty is brought to an acceptable level.

In Nigeria generally, and in Kaduna and Gombe States in particular, subsequent governments have enunciated several programmes and strategies for poverty alleviation. But, largely, these programmes have a national outlook as they are constituent policies that target the entire polity (country) with their impact expected to be felt by all the Nigerian communities. Some of these interventions included Nigerian Agricultural Cooperative Bank (NACB), Peoples' Bank (PB), Family Economic Empowerment and Advancement Programme (FEAP), River Basin Authorities (RBA), Operation Feed the Nation (OFN), Directorates of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures (DFRRI), National Directorate of Employment (NDE), Better Life Programme (BLP), Family Support Programme (FSP) and other similar intervention programmes. Poverty rate in Nigeria has tremendously increased since the attainment of independence in 1960. At that period, only 15% of the populace were living in poverty in the country. By 1980, it grew to 28.1% as well as 66% in 1996 and about 70% in 2000 (NAPEP 2001). The incidence of poverty is predominant, depth and severe in the rural areas than the urban sector. In 1980, the incidence in the rural area was put at about 28.3% of the rural populace while at the same time was put at 17.2% of the urban households. In 2004, the figures revealed a 20 percentage point gap between the poverty incidence of the urban and rural households. While 43 % of urban households are poor, 63.8 of the rural households are poor. This is a reflection of the disparities in the access to opportunities and infrastructure among the different households (NBS, 2009, NBS, 2012).

However, data on poverty profile in the rural areas in 2004 revealed that about 44.4 % cannot meet the food expenditure requirements while 19.38 % of the households, although could meet the food expenditure requirements are unable to meet the minimum expenditure to cover other basic needs. In the case of the urban households, it is only 26.7 % of the households that could not meet the required expenditure on food while 16.4 % of the households are moderately poor since they can meet food expenditure but not other non-food basic needs expenditure (NBS, 2012). Addressing the poverty issue, particularly as it affects rural areas made subsequent Nigerian governments to adopt several institutional mechanisms for tackling the menace. These measures covered almost all sectors of the economy such as education, health, agriculture, transports; housing etc. in spite of all measures taken by the government, poverty still persisted in the country. This has resulted to the establishment of the National Poverty

Eradication Programme (NAPEP) in January, 2001. The programme has several schemes under it that target poverty alleviation, particularly among the rural dwellers.

However, in Kaduna state there is a record of poverty in the state and it covered more than half of the populace in between 1990 and 2004 (NBS, 2006). The situation in Gombe state is worse as the state has about 83.6% of its inhabitants living in poverty in 2004 (Isah, 2009). Based on the National Bureau Statistics (NBS) report of 2006, the primary school enrolment as at 2006 was 61.5%. This was poor compared to 82.3% recorded for South-South geo-political zone of Nigeria and 72.8% for neighbouring North Central geo-political zone of Nigeria. As at 2004 however, life expectancy was put at 40 years as against 54 years national average. Infant mortality was 120 per 1000 live births. In fact, between 1996 and 2006, only 45% of women had access to prenatal care in the state.

This paper focused on the following programmes inter alia: Farmers Empowerment Programme (FEP), which is special agricultural credit assistance to poor rural farmers aimed at enhancing farmer's productivity and potentials for increased output. Another programme is the In Care of the People (COPE). The target of the programme is the provision of grants to qualified poor households on the condition that they engage in investments in the human capital development of their children or ward. Specifically, qualified households are expected to fully participate in all free government basic education and healthcare programmes. Another programme is the Village Economic Development Solutions (VEDS) Scheme which is popularly called Villages Solutions; in the Village Solutions, local villages/communities are guided in their community economic development efforts that involve modernizing their villages and promoting income generating activities (NAPEP, 2004). All these poverty alleviation schemes/programmes are meant to ensure improvement in farming activities, which is the key economic undertaking of the rural populace, enhancing access to education and health and improvement in income generation activities among people in the rural areas. The basic issue is, has the poverty alleviation programmes effectively impacted on the rural development in Kaduna and Gombe States, Nigeria? This paper proffers solutions to the afore mentioned.

Literature Review and Theoretical Framework

The Concept and Nature of Poverty

Poverty, like many other concepts, has a bewildering conception. Despite the difficulty in defining the concept, various scholars and researchers have attempted its definition under different perspectives.

Attahiru and Haruna (2002) defined poverty as the totality of a state of being where individuals, households or communities are unable to fulfil the basic necessities of life such as food, including water, clothing and shelter as well as other economic and social obligations. Similarly, Johnson (1966) defined poverty as "a situation when the resources of individuals or families are inadequate to provide a socially acceptable standard of living." In other words, the individuals live below the conventional poverty line demarcating the poor from the non-poor. Iyayi (2005:51), defined poverty as a state of deprivation in the means needed to sustain life at some level of human dignity. According to Alubo (2005:22), Poverty refers to life experience/existence in which people lack food (either because they have none at all or they eat whatever they can to keep alive), shelter (as defined by standard in the community), clothing as well as opportunity to respond to challenges

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

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

The World Bank (1999:12) states that "in some instances the gender dimensions of powerlessness were articulated, with implications for women and men, boys and girls, it went further to illustrate with one Ayakale Odogun in Nigeria where "poor households were seen to be characterized by the inability of men to fulfil their role as provider". According to NBS (2012), the "processes causing poverty affect men and women in different ways and degree. Female poverty is more prevalent and typical more severe than male poverty". It stated that women 'suffer violence by men on a large scale. They are more likely to be illiterate as well as politically and socially excluded in their communities. Hence, abilities of women to overcome poverty are generally different from those of men". There is also gender-related 'time poverty'. According to NBS (2012), this refers to the lack of time for all tasks imposed on women, for rest and for economic, social and political activities. Hence, poverty is symbolic feature of the state of disempowerment of women the world over (World Bank, 1999: NAPEP; 2001, 2004). Women are more vulnerable than men to extremes of poverty and its consequences. To the extent that poverty is being described as having feminine face with severe consequences for infant mortality and mobility (Bardhan 1996, Moshen, 1991: Todaro 1991). It is an important additional burden, which in many societies is due to structural gender inequality – a disparity that has different means for women and men. It is necessary to view poverty from all-inclusive to enable adequate and effective polices to be formulated and implemented. In this vein, the World Bank Report of 1990 adopted a view of poverty that covered various aspects of deprivation as "encompassing not only material deprivation (measured by an appropriate concept of income or consumption) but also low achievements in education and health".

In terms of causes, many causes of poverty identified ranges from unemployment to lack of social services and infrastructures and to issues of weak social capital. Lack of water, limited access to education, health facilities and productive inputs and markets are the major problems of other urban and rural poor. The poor recognizes their vulnerability to shocks – the death of a bread winner, harvest problems, weather changes, divorce, widowhood and even changes in government policy (such as the devaluation of naira) as well as their lack of access to justice and vulnerability to corruption, violence and crime. They therefore invest in ownership of assets – houses, farms and farms input or insurance – savings, investments, children and membership of local organisations (See

World Bank Voices of the Poor, Narayan , 2000).

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

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

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

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

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

Galbraich (1971) made a cursory observation on the causes of poverty in the three regions of the developing world, the sub-Saharan Africa, Latin America and Asia. For sub-Sahara Africa, he ascribes poverty to the absence of opportunity rather than absence of aptitude as the countries of this region have had only a few years of independence to face the task of economic development. He observed that in this region, people with requisite education, training, and honesty for performing public tasks are unavailable. Consequently, taxes are collected in haphazard or arbitrary fashion and public funds are spent inefficiently or for no particular purpose except the reward of the recipients. He sees this situation as a potential source of instability, as those who do not have access to public income will have a strong incentive to seek out those who do. Furthermore, he noted that law enforcement in sub-Saharan Africa was unreliable and essential public services, which exist, could only make primitive local trade flourish with the attendant handicaps. But modern large, technically advanced corporate enterprises, which require more, demanding environment for the protection of their personnel and property cannot operate, because their business cannot be transacted in the absence of (efficient) postal services, telephones, security and common carrier transportation.

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

World Bank (1996) also argued that low human capacity endowment, destruction of natural resources resulting in environmental degradation, poor maintenance culture, corruption and political instability. Others are inadequate access to employment, physical assets, market, means of supporting assistant to those living at the margin and those victimized by transitory poverty.Poverty is also caused by lack of income and assets to attain basic necessities; a sense of voicelessness and powerlessness in the institutions of state society, and vulnerability to adverse shocks linked to an inability to cope with them (Bassey, Umobong and Usoro, 2008).

Ohale (1998), corroborating on the above, summarised the causes of poverty into two categories as follows:

i. Instability of certain key people in the family to get or hold steady well-paying job. This may be due to lack of expansion of productive activities in the economy and under capacity utilisation due to excessive dependence on foreign inputs. Allied to the above is the lack of relevant education, skills or talents needed by the existing jobs; and
ii. Economic forces and changes in labour requirement. For example, inflation reduces the quantity of goods and services a given income can purchase and leads to poverty intensification. The structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) and the fiscal and monetary policies of the government including the exchange rate measures, had served to fuel inflation and worsen poverty situation in the country.

In a study carried out by the Central Bank of Nigeria in collaboration with the World Bank (1999), tagged "Nigeria's Development Prospects: Poverty Assessment and Alleviation Study ". The causes of poverty was summarised as follows; the stage of economic and social development; low productivity, market imperfections, physical or environmental degradation; structural shift in the economy; inadequate commitment to programme implementation; political instability; and corruption.

The various causes of poverty highlighted above are prevalent in Nigeria; hence the problem is very serious, in spite of the country's vast resources. The causes are complex and the consequences often reinforce the causes, leading to further impoverishment. However, the NBS(2001:34) argued that "one route of investigating the causes of poverty is to examine the dimensions highlighted by poor people". These are put as follows:

i. Lack of income and assets to attain basic necessities – food, shelter, clothing and acceptable levels of health and education;
ii. Sense of voicelessness and powerlessness in the institutions of state and society; and
iii. Vulnerability to adverse shocks, linked to an inability to cope with them."
iv. Inadequate access to employment oppor4tunites for the poor. This often caused by the stunted growth of economic activities or growth with labour saving devices;
v. Lack or inadequate access to assets such as land capital by the poor; this is often attributed to the absence of land reform and minimal opportunities for small-credit;
vi. 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;
vii. Inadequate access to markets for the goods and services that the poor can sell: this is caused by their remote geographic location or other factors.
viii. Inadequate access to education, health, sanitation and water services. This emanates from inequitable social service delivery, which consequently results in the inability of the poor to live a healthy and active life and take full advantage of employments, which has led to reduce productivity in agriculture, forestry and fisheries. This often resulted from the desperate survival strategies of the poor as well as inadequate and ineffective public policy on natural resource management.
ix. The inadequate access to assistance by those who are the victims of transitory poverty such as drought, floods, pests and war. This is brought about by lack of

well conceived strategies and resources; and

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

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

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

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

(a) The determination of a yardstick for assessing living standard.
(b) Defining a poverty line
(c) Constructing an appropriate poverty profile.

Poverty lines and profiles can be compiled from different data sources. The most important consideration in assembling such data is to obtain information, which will be useful for policy analysis. Information on household income or consumption levels, employment, occupational status, education, nutritional and health status, non-farm income, assets, housing facilities etc. can be obtained from household surveys. Community surveys are also useful sources of information for poverty profile construction. A number of important components, which affect the standard of living, include markets for labour and commodities consumed by the poor, access to clean water, sanitation, health, education and transportation. Administrative surveys and institutional surveys (schools, health centres, markets, and so on) are also useful sources of information; an eclectic approach could also be used to obtain data. In many developing countries where up-to-date and comprehensive household data are not available, data is sometimes obtained from micro surveys in the various relevant sectors of markets, agriculture and urban and rural casual labour may provide rough estimates of income. Setting or defining the poverty line, a tool for measuring poverty, is usually the starting point in poverty measurement. It is often based on income or consumption data and represents the level of income that categorizes the household of a particular size, place and time into poor or non-poor. Okoh (1998), it is also intended to designate equivalent levels of deprivation (Watt, 1977). According to the World Bank (1993), poverty lines can be set in relative or absolute terms. Relative poverty assesses the position of an individual or household in comparison with the average income in the country, while absolute poverty is the position of an individual or household in relation to a poverty line whose real value is fixed over time. Poverty lines also establish the welfare comparability of nominal expenditure or income across the poverty profile (Ravallion and Bidani, 1994).

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

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

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

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

However, understanding the incidence of poverty in the country requires understanding of the poverty trends in various dimensions such as sector (urban/rural), occupations, geopolitical zones, states, gender, and occupation among others. The incidence of poverty is predominant, depth and severe in the rural areas than the urban sector. In 1980, the incidence in the rural area was put at about 28.3% of the rural populace while at the same time was put at 17.2% of the urban households. In 2004, the figures reveal a 20 percentage point gap between the poverty incidence of the urban and rural households. While 43 % of urban households are poor, 63.8 of the rural households are poor. This is a reflection of the disparities in the access to opportunities and infrastructure among the different households

By and large, data on poverty profile in the rural areas in 2004 revealed that about 44.4 % cannot meet the food expenditure requirements while 19.38 % of the households, although could meet the food expenditure requirements are unable to meet the minimum expenditure to cover other basic needs. In the case of the urban households, it is only 26.7 % of the households that could not meet the required expenditure on food while 16.4 % of the households are moderately poor since they can meet food expenditure but not other non-food basic needs expenditure Geopolitically, The Northeast zone had a higher incidence of poverty followed by

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

Theoretical Framework

This paper was anchored on the Suchman's Evaluative Theory.

Evaluative theory

This theory was propounded by Suchman (1967). According to the theory, the Process is represented in a cyclical form with the end of one process constituting the beginning of another. The evaluation process is shown in the figure below:

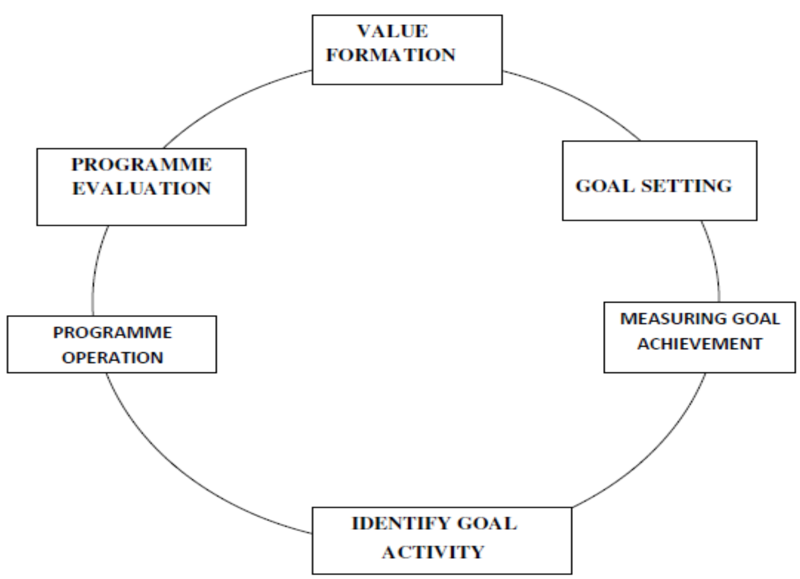

Fig 1: Evaluation Process

Evaluation, according to Suchman (1967) is aimed at assessing the successful attainment of a valued objective. Evaluation process starts with value formation. Value is any aspect of a situation, event or object that is invested with a preferential interest of being good or bad, desirable or the like. The second stage of the process is goal setting. Here, the objectives to be achieved are formulated based on the value formation. The third step in the process is measuring goal attainment. That is identifying criteria for measuring goal attainment. The next step in the process is the identification of some goal- attainment activities. This involves the Planning of programmes that would be geared towards goal- attainment. The next is putting the goal activities into operation, in other words implementing the Planned Programme. This is called programme operation. The final stage of the evaluation process is programme evaluation. At this stage, the degree to which the operating programme has achieved the pre-determined objectives evaluated. On the basis of the assessment, a judgement is made as to whether the goal-directed activity (program) is worth-while. Based on this, a new value might be formulated, or the old one re-designed, reassessed or re- affirmed. Thus, the evaluation process is a continuous one, the end of a process leads to the beginning of another one.

Evaluation Criteria

According to Suchman (1967), Evaluation research is conducted in terms of varying levels of objectives and different categories of effects. In the later, the categories represent various criteria of success of failure according to which the programme may be evaluated. They may be applied to any level of objective. Though it does not give key answers, it can be valuable. At least it indicates that something is being done in an attempt to meet or solve a problem and it as well defines the type of measure to be used in judging activity. Suchman proposed five categories of criteria according to which the success or failure of a programme may be evaluated. They include, effect, performance, adequacy of performance, efficiency, and process. These criteria were further discussed below.

1. **Effort**: Evaluation in this category has the criterion to assess the quality and quantity of activities that takes place. This represents an assessment of inputs or energy regardless of outputs. It is intended to answer the questions what did you do?" and how did you do it." Yardstick for measurement in this category are based either on the capacity for efforts itself. Effort evaluation assumes that the specific activities are a valid means of reaching higher goals. Although effort evaluation does not give key answers, it can be valuable. At least, it indicates that something is being done in an attempt to meet or solve a problem. This is necessary, if not sufficient condition for accomplishment.
2. **Performance:** Performance of effect criterion measures the result of effort rather than the effort itself. This requires a clear statement of objectives to be achieved. It is aimed at answering questions like, how much is accomplished. Did any change occur? Was the change the intended one? To him, the ultimate justification of a program must rest on the proof of its effectiveness in alleviating the problem being addressed. This as well depends on its validity and reliability. He further recognised some key validity assumptions involved in most evaluation of performance. The fact that a large number of people are reported as receiving services does not ensure that all of these services were given properly were truly complete. Thus, the problem of reliability is also extremely important in performance rating or standard and must be taken into consideration.

3. **Adequacy of Performance**: This criterion of success refers to the degree to which effective performance is adequate to the total amount of need. For example, a poverty reduction programme specifically designed for a group of rural poor might be thoroughly inadequate as a public measure. Adequacy is therefore a relative measure depending on how high an objective is set. According to Suchman (1967), the criterion of adequacy needs to be compared by a realistic awareness of what is possible at any giving state of knowledge and available resources. There is a tendency in service programme to think in terms of total effectiveness. Much or less ambitious ultimate goals must be set in general for judging adequacy.
4. **Efficiency**: A positive answer to the question, does it work?" is there any better way to attain the same results? Often gives rise to a follow-up question, is there any better way to attain the same results? Efficiency is concerned with the evaluation of alternatives paths or methods in terms of costs in money, time, personnel and public convenience. In a sense, it represents a ratio between effort and performance-output divided by inputs. As defined in glossary of administration terms in public health, efficiency is the capacity of an individual, organisation, facility, operation, or activity to produce results in proportion to the efforts expended.
5. **Process:** According to Suchman (1967), in the cause of evaluating the success or failure of a programme, a great deal can be learned about and why a programme works or does not work. An analysis of process can have both administrative and scientific significance, particularly where the evaluation indicates that a programme is not working as expected. Locating the cause of the failure may result in modifying the programme so that it will work, instead of its being discarded as a complete failure.

The analysis of the process may be made according to four main dimensions dealing with; the attributes of a programme itself, the population exposed to the programme, the situational context within which the programme takes place and the different kinds of effects produced by the programme. Furthermore, these analyses could be viewed in terms of the following specification of each of the dimension.

1: Specification of the attributes of the programme that makes it more or less successful. This type of evaluation attempts to diagnose specific causes of success or failure within the programme itself. It requires a breakdown of the component parts of the programme and the identification of those aspects which contribute to or detract from the over all effects of the programme.

2: Specification of the recipient of the programme who are more or less affected. It raises the question of, which people are most affected by the programme? Who makes the best target population for a programme? Is it the individual, group or the public? Is it an end of a product or as influence by others?

3: Specification of the conditions under which the programme is more or less successful. This could be in terms of area, timing, auspicious and so on.

4: Specification of the effects produced by the programme. The question is what aspect of the final results should be used as criteria of judgement? For example, effect could be broken down in the following ways;

a. Unitary or multiple effects
b. Unintentional or side effect
c. Duration of effect
d. Types of effect, (i.e. cognitive, attitudinal, and behavioral).

Answers to these questions provide the background against which the accomplishment of a project may be evaluated. Suchman however opined that the number and extent to which these specifications are included in an assessment study depends on the statement of objectives, the research resources available and administrative support.

Research Methodology

The population of this study was divided into two; the staff of the poverty alleviation programme in Kaduna and Gombe states who stood at 67 at the headquarters and 6 local governments to be selected in the two states. The local governments are Kudan, Birnin-Gwari and Chikun in Kaduna state as well as Dukku, Yamaltu Deba, and Billiri in Gombe state. The other population was the beneficiaries of the three programmes/schemes (FEP, COPE and VEDS) in the two states. The total number of beneficiaries that benefitted from the aforementioned programmes/schemes in the study area were 3,956. In terms of sample size, Yamane's (1967) formula as cited in Israel (1992) was used. The formula is expressed as

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

Where n = Sample size
N = Total population
e = Merging of error at 5%

The sample was thus determined as:

$$\therefore \mathrm{n} = \frac{3956}{1 + 3956(0.05)^2}$$

n = 362.269
n = 362 (approximately)

The sample size consisted of 362 respondents.

The paper adopts qualitative and the quantitative methods of data analysis. These include descriptive statistics analysis using frequency tables and simple percentages in analyzing and interpreting the data collected. Inferential statistical tool of analysis of Chi-square was adopted.

Results and Discussion

Table 1 shows the academic profile of respondents with 6 respondents with a postgraduate qualification and 14 respondents with a Degree/HND certificate while 20 respondents are NCE/OND holders, thus, 53 respondents have SSCE while 55 respondents have FSLC and 52 respondents having other formal educational qualifications as well as 78 respondents with informal educational qualification. This shows that the respondents' level of education is in tandem to knowing the changing trends and circumstances of NAPEP activities in Nigeria.

Table 2 shows that the awareness of 2 respondents are very high while the awareness of 131 respondents are high, 39 respondents are undecided while the awareness of 58 respondents are low and the awareness of 48 respondents are very low. This shows that the people of Kaduna and Gombe States are aware of the activities of NAPEP in their various localities

Table 3 shows that 14 respondents strongly agree that NAPEP has assisted in Farmers empowerment in Kaduna and Gombe States while 35 respondents aligned to agree that NAPEP has assisted in Farmers empowerment, 25 respondents were undecided while 107 respondents disagreed and 97 respondents strongly disagreed. This statistics shows the presence of NAPEP in Kaduna and Gombe States,

Table 4 shows that 26 respondents strongly agreed to fact that NAPEP has improved access to basic health and education in both Kaduna and Gombe States while 50 respondents also agreed to the afore submission and 29 respondents were undecided while 86 disagreed and 87 strongly disagreed. This shows that access to basic health and education in both States in deficient. NAPEP has not done enough to improve the accessibility of health care delivery system as well as basic education.

Table 1: Respondents Level of Education

Category	Kaduna	Gombe	Total
Postgraduate	6		6
Degree/ HND	5	9	14
NCE/OND	9	11	20
WAEC/NECO/GCE	33	20	53
Primary Certificate	31	24	55
Other Formal Education	20	32	52
Informal Education	38	40	78
Total	142	136	278

Source: Field Survey, (2016).

Table 2: Respondents Opinion on the Awareness of NAPEP

What is your level of awareness of the activities of NAPEP?	Kaduna	Gombe	Total
Very High		2	2
High	72	59	131
Undecided	23	16	39
Low	27	31	58
Very Low	20	28	48
Total	142	136	278

Source: Field Survey, (2016).

Table 3: Respondents Opinion on NAPEP Intervention in Farmers Empowerment in the States

Do you agree that NAPEP has assisted in Farmers' empowerment in your State?	Kaduna	Gombe	Total
Strongly Agree	5	9	14
Agree	25	10	35
Undecided	11	14	25
Disagree	57	50	107
Strongly Disagree	44	53	97
Total	142	136	278

Source: Field Survey, (2016).

Table 4: Respondents Opinion on NAPEP Intervention on Improved Access to Health and Education in the States

Do you agree that NAPEP has improved access to basic health and education in your State?	Kaduna	Gombe	Total
Strongly Agree	11	15	26
Agree	29	21	50
Undecided	20	9	29
Disagree	45	41	86
Strongly Disagree	37	50	87
Total	142	136	278

Source: Field Survey, (2016).

Table 5 shows that 80 respondents strongly agreed that NAPEP has improved income generation of the Rural populace with 35 and 45 expression opinions from Kaduna and Gombe States while 89 respondents also agreed to the fact that NAPEP has improved income generation of rural populace in these States and 24 respondents were undecided while 37 respondents aligned to disagreement and 48 respondents strongly disagreed. This uncovers that the activities of Tricycle riders, Traders, Tailors, Motor Cyclists etc assisted by NAPEP in these States have a multiplying effects and by extension a chain reaction to the circular floor of income.

Table 6 shows that 24 respondents strongly agreed that NAPEP intervention has improved the affordability of health and educational services in Kaduna and Gombe States while 29 respondents agreed, and 102 respondents disagreed to the affordability of these services while 97 respondents strongly disagreed. This reveals to the fact that NAPEP Intervention has not improved the affordability of health and educational services in the States under review. This expression opinion alluded to the widening gap between the rich and the poor where private Schools and Hospitals are on the increase.

Table 7 shows that 1 respondent strongly agreed that NAPEP has been successfully implemented in Gombe State while 46 respondents were undecided to the successful implementation, thus, 57 and 44 respondents from Kaduna and Gombe States disagreed to the successful implementation amounting to 101 opinion expression while 63 and 61 respondents from Kaduna and Gombe States strongly disagreed that NAPEP was not successfully implemented in both States. This shows that the NAPEP programs were not fully executed in the States under review.

Test of Hypotheses 1

The data collected from the field were analysed using the Chi Square non parametric tools to determine the acceptability or rejection of the hypotheses formulated.

The hypothesis 1 for this study states that:
H_0^1 There is no significant relationship between poverty alleviation programmes and farmers empowerment in the Rural Communities of Kaduna and Gombe States.

Table 5: Respondents Opinion on NAPEP Improvement of Income Generation of the Rural Populace in the States

Do you agree that NAPEP has improved the Income Generation in the State?	Kaduna	Gombe	Total
Strongly Agree	35	45	80
Agree	40	49	89
Undecided	19	5	24
Disagree	26	11	37
Strongly Disagree	22	26	48
Total	142	136	278

Source: Field Survey, (2016).

Table 6: Respondents Opinion on the Affordability of Health and Educational Services in the States

Do you agree that NAPEP intervention has improved the affordability of health and education services in your State?	Kaduna	Gombe	Total
Strongly Agree	10	14	24
Agree	20	9	29
Undecided	15	11	26
Disagree	50	52	102
Strongly Disagree	47	50	97
Total	142	136	278

Source: Field Survey, (2016).

Table 7: Respondents Opinion on the Implementation of NAPEP in the States

Do you agree that NAPEP has been successfully implemented in your State?	Kaduna	Gombe	Total
Strongly Agree	0	1	1
Agree	4	2	6
Undecided	18	28	46
Disagree	57	44	101
Strongly Disagree	63	61	124
Total	142	136	278

Source: Field Survey, (2016).

Table 8 reveals that a total of 204 respondents favoured the null hypothesis with 101 respondents from Kaduna State and 103 respondents from Gombe State while a total of 74 respondents favoured the alternate hypothesis with 41 from Kaduna and 33 from Gombe States respectively.

Table 8: Observed Frequencies for Hypothesis 1

Observed Opinion	Kaduna	Gombe	Total
H_0	101	103	204
H_1	41	33	74
Total	142	136	278

Source: Field Survey, (2016)

Determination of Expected Frequencies

In order to calculate the expected frequencies the following formula was used:

$$E = \frac{\sum R \, x \sum C}{\sum G}$$

Where E = Expected frequencies
$\sum$R = Rows total
$\sum$C = Columns total
$\sum$G = Grand total

Source: (Obasohan et al, 2004:156).

Table 9 shows that 204 opinions were in agreement to the null hypothesis with a total of 73.38% expression opinion while 74 opinions were in disagreement to the null hypothesis representing 26.62% expression opinion. Result of Chi square test is presented in Table 10.

Table 9: Expected Frequencies for Hypothesis 1

Expected Opinion	Kaduna	Gombe	Total	1/12 Expression Opinion
Agreement to null hypothesis	104.20	99.79	204	73.38%
Disagreement to null hypothesis	37.79	36.20	74	26.62%
Total	142	136	278	100%

Source: Field Survey, (2016).

Table 10: Chi Square Table for Hypothesis 1

O	E	O-E	$(O-E)^2$	$(O-E)^{2/E}$
101	104.20	-3.2	10.24	0.09
103	99.79	3.21	10,30	0.10
41	37.79	321	10.30	0.27
33	36.20	-3.2	10.24	0.28
				0.75

Source: Field Survey, (2016)

Test of Hypothesis 2

The hypothesis 2 for this study states that:
H_o^1 There is no significant relationship between poverty alleviation programmes and improved access to education and health in Kaduna and Gombe States

Table 11 reveals that a total of 173 respondents favoured the null hypothesis with 82 respondents from Kaduna and 91 respondents from Gombe State while a total 105 respondents favoured the alternate hypothesis with 60 from Kaduna and 45 from Gombe States respectively.

Table 12 shows that 173 opinions were in agreement to the null hypothesis with a total of 62.23 % expression opinion while 105 opinions were in disagreement to the null hypothesis representing 37.77 % expression opinion. Result of Chi square test is presented in Table 13.

Table 11: Observed Frequencies for Hypothesis 2

Observed Opinion	Kaduna	Gombe	Total
H_0	82	91	173
H_1	60	45	105
Total	142	136	278

Source: Field Survey, (2016).

Table 12: Expected Frequencies for Hypothesis 2

Expected Opinion	Kaduna	Gombe	Total	1/12 Expression Opinion
Agreement to null hypothesis	88.37	84.63	173	62.23%
Disagreement to null hypothesis	53.63	51.36	105	37.77%
Total	142	136	278	100%

Source: Field Survey, (2016).

Table 13: Chi Square Table for Hypothesis 2

O	E	O-E	$(O-E)^2$	$(O-E)^{2/E}$
82	88.37	-6.37	40.58	0.46
91	84.63	6.37	40.58	0.47
60	53.63	6.37	40.58	0.76
45	51.37	-6.37	40.58	0.78
Total				2.48

Source: Field Survey, (2016).

Interpretation of Results for Hypothesis One

The critical value of 21.03 is greater than the test X^2 of 0.75. Therefore the null hypothesis that states: there is no significant relationship between poverty alleviation programmes and farmers' empowerment in the rural communities of Kaduna and Gombe States should be accepted

Interpretation of Results for Hypothesis Two

The critical value of 21.03 is greater than the test X^2 of 2.48. Therefore the null hypothesis that states: there is no significant relationship between poverty alleviation programmes and improved access to education and health in Kaduna and Gombe States should be accepted

Summary of Major Findings

Findings revealed that most households in Kaduna and Gombe states are between 6-15 persons. This revelation shows the need for government intervention programme to ameliorate the situation of the rural communities in these states.

Results from this study revealed that NAPEP programmes were actually deficient to empower farmers in the rural communities of Kaduna and Gombe States. Though revelations showed that modern agricultural equipment, fertilizer, seeds, loans and other agricultural facilities to aid farming in these rural communities were granted to farmers at random based on their political connectivity and patronage. This finding is consistent to Umar (2014) who conducted a study on Appraising Poverty Alleviation

Programmes of Successive Governments in Nigeria and found that abuse of power and manipulation of ethnic relationship by those in position of authority by way of nepotism, tribalism, favouritism and religious bigotry are the major reasons why successive poverty reduction strategies proved fiasco.

Findings therein revealed that access to basic health and education in both rural communities of Kaduna and Gombe States was deficient. NAPEP has not done enough in the provision of dispensary and maternity homes, rehabilitation and building of primary schools as well as free education for the rural populace. This finding is consistent to previous studies such as Oyesanmi e tal (2015) who conducted a study on evaluation of the concepts, implementation and impact of poverty alleviation programmes in Nigeria and found that the impact of various programmes has not contributed significantly to the well being of the poor in Nigeria.

Conclusion

The Study underscores the impact of poverty alleviation programmes in the rural communities of Kaduna and Gombe States and concludes that access to basic health and education was deficient. NAPEP has not done enough in the provision of dispensary and maternity homes, rehabilitation and building of primary schools as well as free education for the rural populace. By and large, farmers in these rural communities were not actually empowered. These prevailing circumstances have led to the increase in poverty rate, severity and incidence in the North West and North East geopolitical zones.

Recommendations

The study recommends the following for policy action

The poverty alleviation programmes lack sincerity of purpose, sagacity and tenacity in practice, as it serves as political patronage instead of succour for ameliorating the sufferings of rural communities in Nigeria.

Palliative measures should be adopted by the government with the view to reducing the poverty rate, severity and incidence of the rural communities in Nigeria.

There should be a paradigm shift and policy redirection of government programmes to meet the yearnings and aspirations of the target population.

Government fiscal and monetary policies should be geared towards wealth creation, reducing inequality and rate of unemployment as well as poverty. This will serve as a panacea for sustainable growth and development.

Policy evaluation and monitoring committee should be set up by the government to expedite the policy decision/action on poverty reduction strategies in line with its policy objectives to avoid deviation.

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