Economic Development and Mass Poverty in Africa: Assessment of the Nigerian Experience
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Abstract
The forces surrounding the emerging economies of underdeveloped world, especially Africa has practically stifled its economic progress, growth, development and sustainability. This economic condition brings to the fore the massive onslaught of rural/urban poverty which the African continent grapples with since the post-world war II era to date. The economic misfortunes and incidence of mass poverty in Africa, vis-à-vis Nigeria is used as a point of departure in this study. The paper underscores the ideological and philosophical undertone of corruption by agents of state characterized by the pervasive activities of domestic bourgeoisie class as well as the international capital manifesting in form of colonialism and imperialism as a major character in the historical process of underdevelopment and mass poverty in peripheral states of Africa, Asia and Latin America, respectively. Of particular interest in this study are the activities of domestic bourgeoisie elite class who have vigorously displayed some degree of visionlessness, corrupt tendencies and abject lack of desires to draw up workable plans to redeem the battered image of African/Nigerian economic misfortunes. This state of affairs has practically engendered economic underdevelopment, misery and disturbing levels of poverty in the nation-state system. The paper concludes with the forward towards realizing the vision 20-20-20 objectives in the 21t century and beyond.

INTRODUCTION
The rising tides of post-world war II experiences and the shocks arising from poor socio-economic fortunes of African states remains a major impediments to growth, socio-economic and political development in the region. Africa suffers an ugly trend of colonial domination, exploitation and manipulation to the extent of which the capitalist traits have literally been transferred to the comprador African domestic elite who in turn are constrained by the very nature of their imperial grand masters to do little or nothing to stimulate economic growth as well as alleviate mass poverty. The foregoing is a demonstration of the ideological and philosophical questions of the spirit of primitive accumulation (Luxemburg, 1913; Onimode, 1995; Goulbourne, 1979), the attitude which, of course was handed down to African leadership from their superior masters. The inability to allow for social change as well as adopt home-grown economic designs that could ultimately transform the economies of backward nation-states constitutes a fundamental setback on the road to progress of less developed countries, especially in the African continent. Situations such as this propels underdevelopment, backwardness, lack of focus and vision for strategic development plans; deterioration in living conditions of the African people, unemployment, famine, disease pandemics, illiteracy, terrorism, malnutrition, violence and war and, ultimately entrenchment of poverty in the socio-economic landscape.

Inspite of the structures and institutions put in place in recent decades by the leadership to fast track the development pace of Africa and move the continent to the next level, it appears that such efforts have largely yielded no results thereby further plunging the fragile economies to monumental disaster. For example, African leadership has consummated the much talked New Partnership for Africa’s Development (NEPAD) as a critical structure for Africa socio-economic development and sustainability (Agbokharm, 2005; ADB, 2006; Iradian, 2005). Similarly, the African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM) consummated by African leadership, which basically serves as an avenue for checks and balances remains a lofty policy plan on paper with little or no impact on the dwindling fortunes of the African economies and its people. The multiplier effect of this state of affairs is the deterioration of the social, political and economic prospects of the continent with its corresponding bastardization of infrastructural development including among other hospitals, schools, good road network, electricity, etc. These basic existentials of human needs are simply elusive and, hence, characterizes the life style of the African race. Also worthy of mention is the spate of political unrest, high level of corruption, war, terrorism, environmental degradation, droughts, rebellion, poor political culture and the dearth of good governance; refugee crisis, disease pandemic (including HIV/AIDS, malaria, tuberculosis, etc); unemployment, human trafficking, are mentioned but a few. To be sure, the catasprophies as captured in the aforementioned have become part and parcel of African states. Thus from Nigeria to Sudan, Ivory
Coast, Democratic Republic of Congo, Rwanda, Somalia, Kenya, Zimbabwe and of course, the recent calamities and political upheavals in North Africa (Egypt, Tunisia, Libya etc). All of these, including the already helpless internal political contradictions of African states are quintessential in the description of the suffocating posture of the kind of underdevelopment Africa has faced and is still facing to date. This paper therefore sets to interrogate the missing link in Africa’s efforts at forestalling the bad socio-economic trend. The paper draws from the development strategies of Nigeria aimed at moving away from the murky waters of underdevelopment and excruciating poverty. The paper will also proffer solutions to the sorry state of mass poverty, lack of economic progress and overall national rebirth in all its ramifications.

CONCEPTUAL ISSUES
A closer look at economic development concepts will show a massive revelation of contradictions. Most of its problems therefore arise as a result of the myth surrounding the design and approaches of development paradigm in relation to the actual impacts they have on the social milieu. Todaro (2003) argued that the experiences of the 1950s and 1960s when many developing countries did realize their economic growth – targets but the living conditions of the masses of people remained for the main part unchanged, signaled that something was very wrong with this narrow definition of development. The problematic of development concepts is considered against the backdrop of narrow imaginations and economic assumptions that once there is increase in output, Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and overall net macro-economic index, then, of course, there is development. Smith (1996), Ake (1981) Padayachee (2010) and Rodney (1972) buttress the argument above when they posit that economic development as alluded by managers of states in Africa without a corresponding impact on the level of poverty, unemployment, hunger, etc, is a farce and falls short of globally accepted standard of measurement.

The argument above therefore explains the increasing level of clamour by economists and critics for the “dethronement of GNP” and the prioritization of direct attacks on widespread poverty, increasingly inequitable income distribution, rising unemployment and environmental disasters (Erunke and Usman, 2009; Onimode, 1993; Odusola, 2001). This sentiment is very common amongst rightist scholars of the post-development administration era who holds the view that economic development can be redefined in terms of reduction or elimination of poverty, inequality and unemployment within the context of a growing economy. This is quite antithetical to the growth theory model which may not necessary translate into pro-poor developmental agenda. The undesirability of this kind of development thinking has been criticized by Dudley Seers who poses the basic questions about the meaning of development viz:

The question to ask about a country’s development are therefore: what has been happening to poverty? What has been happening to unemployment? What has been happening to inequality? If all three of these have declined from high levels, then beyond doubt this has been a period of development for the country concerned. If one or two of these central problems have been growing worse, especially if all three have, it would be strange to call the result “development” even if per capita income is doubled (Seers as cited in Smith et al, 2003).

It goes without saying that Seers analysis as above reinforces the initial position held by Erunke and Usman (2009) and those of Onimode (1993) and Odusola (2001), on the need to re-think developmental practices that are capable of empowering and transforming the living standard of less developed economies in all ramifications. To be sure, a number of developing countries experienced relatively high rates of per capita income during the 1960s and 1970s but showed an asymmetrically declining unemployment rates, poverty and low standard of living. By the earlier development concepts therefore, these countries were developing; but there was no corresponding improvement in the people’s living conditions. The aftermath of the state of helplessness of Third world conditions such as the one portrayed above is the direct consequences of the fall-outs of the manipulation orchestrated by the developed worlds including North America and Europe (Aigbokhan, 2008; Hume, 2008; Ayres, 1995).

These political entities constitutes a moving global force represented by capitalism whose ideologies have become dominant epistles in the affairs of governance in the less developed countries (LCDs). Thus, there has been a growing and increasing tendency of African leadership to cave in as a result of external pressures to either deregulate their economies, borrow superficial economic development paradigms and impose the same on its people thereby further exposing the entire continent to the volatility of socioeconomic and political malaise. In Nigeria, for example, the Babangida military autocracy condescended into the idea of Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) in 1986 as
a way of salvaging the comatose Nigerian economy (Islam, 2006; Kim, 2007; Khan, 2006; Erunke, 2009). The effect of the SAP agenda has brought in its wake diverse austerity measures put in place by government, be they military or civilian alike. The aftermath of this is the untold hardship, unemployment, violence, military, illiteracy, inequality and ultimately poverty, it has unleashed on the dark continent to date.

Conversely, the lack of development and the loss of vision, expertise and focus of agents of state in the proper identification and management of developmental practices brings with it massive underdevelopment as well as entrench massive poverty. Government at all levels in Africa appears to have lost every sense of direction, corporate group interest, responsibility and responsiveness (Akpa, 2001; Akinsanya and Erunke, 2010). Therefore, the affairs of governance in Africa merely provides a platform for private self accumulation and enrichment (Ake, 1981; Ihonvbere, 1995). Heads of government in Africa prides in the worsening socio-economic conditions of the people as exemplified in the excessive clinch to power and the inordinate desires to stay on even when there seem to be no popular support. That aside, the various economic designs and prognosis in these states in Africa are structurally banal, blank and proffers little or no solution to actual social problems of poverty reduction, disease control, war, crime and other vices. Neither, does the available institutions and structures of government able to deliver on its declining infrastructural needs to satisfy the teeming population (George-Genyi, 2011).

By extension therefore, economic development is more or less holistic in approach and concept. It is a planned alteration of the structures of production which results to massive industrialization and socio-economic re-engineering. It transcends beyond mere hypothesizing and theorizing to the transformation of the human person, dignity and self-esteem. When this is achieved, it then follows logically that poverty would have been drastically reduced in the lives of the African people as a whole.

THEORETICAL ISSUES

Questions about economic development practices in Africa are attributed to external paradigms borrowed usually from the western world. For this reason, the study adopts a neo-Marxist approach as a point of departure. This theoretical underpinning is relevant in the sense of which the various elements of international capitalism and imperialism is understood. Thus the neo-Marxist dependency model as an off-shoot of the Marxian philosophy is a school of thought which explains the predicaments of Third world nations as a consequence of measures of underdevelopment foisted on such entities by the west (Ake, 1981; Onimode, 1995; Rodney, 1972). Underdevelopment in Third world nations of Africa, Asia and Latin American states therefore follows a historical process of colonization, subjugation, domination, expropriation and, ultimately exploitation. This scenario of exploitation spirals into the trajectory of economic misfortunes of less developed entities and hence, entrenches the possibilities of backwardness, poverty and misery. To further buttress the foregoing, Baran (1962) posits that:

Whether intentionally exploitative or unintentionally neglected, the co-existence of rich and poor nations in an international system dominated by such unequal power relations between the “Centre” and the “periphery” renders attempts by poor societies development efforts difficult and sometimes even impossible (1962:69).

The point of emphasis on the activities of dominant foreign capital as exemplified above is further worsened by the comprador domestic elite class in Third world states. These petit – bourgeoisie elements who are managers of state structures, which of course is tenuous, do not necessarily allow development to happen. The reason being that the said elite class possibly benefit from a weak system which they themselves have helped to consolidate much to the detriment of the already impoverished masses (Oyeranti and Olayiwola, 2005). Mass poverty therefore is an extension of the unholy alliances between the forces of capital and those of the commissioned agents. The duo constitutes a veritable social force capable of stifling an economic system and making it sterile. The inability of the system to cater for the teeming population, create a viable institutions and structures to accommodate pressures, etc, is a direct consequence of endemic poverty, either in terms of standard of living, poverty of ideas or the lack of direction to generate comprehensive action plan for overall socio-economic growth, development and sustainability in the African continent as a whole.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The concept of poverty, like many other phenomena in the humanities has enjoyed a variety of interpretations and definition. The pervasive nature of poverty in most Third world nations of Africa, Asia, and Latin America has
largely propelled diverse scholarly discourses, analysis and criticisms, the purpose of which is to bring about change in the structures and institutions that are merely moribund and hence, pose in themselves significant contributions to the existing order of poverty in backward nations. Consequently, poverty incidences in Africa, like every other entity finds expression in lack, deprivation, disease, food shortages amongst households, etc.

In the light of the above, Ajakaiye (1999:3) wrote that poverty is a living condition in which an entity is faced with economic, social political and cultural deprivations. It is thus a state of involuntary deprivation to which a person, or household, community or nation can be subjected to. Side by side the above position held by Ajakaiye (1999) is that people constitute the central subject in any poverty situation either at the individual, community or national level. It can be deduced also from the foregoing that poverty conditions manifests in the inability of persons or groups to acquire the basic necessities of life needed for a decent living. This factor could lead to low standard of living, low individual or national esteem as well as absence of the means of self-actualization. This means that poverty does not only show itself in economic realm alone; but that incidences of poverty has a cross-cutting inclinations devoid of clear boundaries, etc.

As a problematique, poverty is currently one of the most disturbing trends amongst the world’s over 5 billion population. Out of this number, about 2.5 billion people represents percentages of those living below poverty lines of less than $1 dollar a day. Suleiman (2010) buttressed this assertion further when he wrote that an approximate number of over 1.5 billion, mostly in Third World nations suffer from the scourge of poverty. Available data which show the extent of poverty in Africa and other continents in the world are shown in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: Showing Trends in Poverty Rates in Developing Countries</th>
<th>Percentage of population living below poverty threshold</th>
<th>Share of poor people in developing countries</th>
<th>Number of poor people (millions)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arab states</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Asia, South-East Asia and Pacific</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Asia, South-East Asia and Pacific (including China)</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin America and the Caribbean</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South-Asia</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing Countries</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Human Development Report Office, 2009.

In a similar vein, the global outlook of poverty affects regions and entities in different ways ranging from levels of illiteracy, lack of access to health services, drinking water, nutrition, high rate of mortality and morbidity, etc. The table below depicts the aforementioned viz:

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<tr>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regions or Group of Countries</td>
<td>All Developing Countries</td>
<td>833</td>
<td>766</td>
<td>1,213</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>473</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Least Developed Countries</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>241</td>
<td>218</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
To be sure, poverty in a sense can be said to be a condition with a universal outlook and, hence, experienced over time. In this context, however, poverty can be seen as the outcome of a process. Thus while many are born into poverty and remain in it, others experience the condition at one or more stages of their life and move in and out of it.

The ascendency and prevalence of poverty makes its necessary for the affected individuals, persons and groups to become victims of social deprivation and therefore face very many social neglect and abuse. Obatoyinbo (2008:43) has criticized the spate of excruciating poverty between and amongst the victims of this social malaise when he opined that the high level of politicization of public policy, militarization of group interests, political corruption and squandermania, etc, has literally entrenched the ever increasing conditions of poverty amongst the weak populations in Nigeria. To this scholar, poverty is hunger; poverty is lack of shelter; poverty is being sick and not being able to see a doctor; poverty is not being able to go to school and not knowing how to read or write; poverty means lack of access to credits or funds to boost one’s economic fortunes; poverty is fear for the future; living one day at a time, poverty is losing child to illness brought about by lack of access to safe or unclean water; poverty is powerlessness, lack of representation and freedom, etc. Drawing from the myriad of social issues above, it can be said that it is not out of place to conceptualize poverty as the era of social change where the rural dwellers, who ordinarily are supposed to supply food items to families and relatives in the cities are themselves parasites and a huge burden to those in the cities scouting for food from the latter. This means that lack of access to agricultural credits probably as a result of misdirection of agricultural policies over the years is a direct consequence of this paradigm shift in terms of basic food supply. The broad spectrum of the rate of poverty has made the phenomena a compelling trend affecting virtually every facet of society be they personal and physical, economic, social, cultural and political deprivations, respectively. These dimensions of poverty will be considered in turn in the next section.

Dimensions of Poverty
(a) **Personal and physical deprivation**: personal and physical deprivations can be experienced in health, nutrition, literacy, educational disability and lack of self confidence.

(b) **Economic Deprivation**: These include lack of access to property, income, assets, factors of production and finance. One of the most important and most common manifestations of poverty is the denial of access to the basic necessities of life (Ajaiye, 2006; Libanga, 2010).

(c) **Social Deprivation**: These involve the barriers to full participation in social, political and economic life. Thus, people may be deprived of their human rights because of personal and economic deprivation. It is instructive to note here that Nigeria is a signatory to the 1989 United Nations Convention on the elimination of all forms of discrimination against women and vulnerable class. But women still have a low status and lack of full access to basic needs and other rights necessary for their well being and survival (UNICEF, 2000).

(d) **Cultural Deprivation**: People are deprived in terms of values, beliefs, attitudes, knowledge, information and orientation. Consequently, they are not able to take advantage of economic and political opportunities. The lack of access to values, beliefs, knowledge, information and attitude deprives them from control of their own destinies.

(e) **Political Deprivation**: Ignorance is a fundamental deterrent to the elimination of poverty because it complements conditions of exploitation, domination and deprivation. Studies have shown that economic constraints, illiteracy and ignorance undermine access to legal institutions. It is the poor who lack the political voice. Those who

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>59</th>
<th>29</th>
<th>54</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>380</th>
<th>26</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arab States</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Asia</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>398</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin America and</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caribbean</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>South-Asia</td>
<td>407</td>
<td>264</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>554</td>
<td>184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South-East Asia and</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>447</td>
<td>58</td>
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<tr>
<td>the Pacific</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>971</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source**: Human Development Report Office, 2009
are politically deprived occupy lowly positions and are subjected to coercion through physical or economic means. This development explains the types of poverty in scholarly discourse pervading the lives of people in any given society which is the focus of the next section.

Types of Poverty

The type of poverty existing in any society varies depending on the differences in method and indicators used to estimate the number of people living in poverty. Poverty is therefore a society construed concept with powerful qualitative and normative component and, hence, relative in outlook. It follows logically that concepts of poverty vary from absolute deprivation where people are unable to feed or clothe themselves at all (chronic or extreme poverty), to moderate levels where those in poverty can still afford, to some extent basic necessities of life.

a) Absolute Poverty

Obatoyinbo (2008:54) opined that the question of absolute poverty is associated with a situation where individuals are so poor that they cannot meet their basic needs of life for survival. This is a prevailing situation in countries where the average income is very low and the incidence of poverty is high. It follows therefore that income is the most common measure for absolute poverty. For example, the United Nations perceive anyone living below $1.00 U.S dollars per day as absolutely poor. Absolute poverty is therefore contingent on the purchasing power differences or on the context of economic deprivation that people need to consume a minimum of level of goods to survive (Anne, 2004).

Accordingly, Obatoyinbo (2008:55) argue that:

While all definitions of poverty have at least some element of relativity, the use of minimum levels of daily food energy requirement (translated into ‘food poverty line’ or ‘bread basket poverty line’) is the nearest definition of absolute measure. This is another way of describing those who cannot meet the cost of their basic needs, especially for food (2008:55).

The argument here is that this definition has little relevance in the urban setting where people are unable to live without access to some cash for other purposes (transaction costs) except in conditions of economic disruption and emergency. Conversely, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) (1997) likened a condition of ultra poverty as “when households cannot meet 80% of the Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) and World Health Organization (WHO) minimum calorie requirement (Adejobi, 2004; Adadu 2012; Ajakaiye, 2003). Obviously, the use of food calorie intake as a parameter for assessment, or the cost of basic needs approach which show the extent to which families can acquire their basic food requirement in quantity and quality required for normal life is now a veritable tool for measuring extreme poverty. However, it can be argued that in the rural areas, it is difficult to establish an appropriate minimum level of daily energy requirements and it has become more usual to conceptualize poverty with relevant references to criteria of the degree of subsistence as the measures transcends beyond survival to the downward spiral of level of consumption.

b) Subsistence Poverty

This type of poverty implies that the victim of incidence of poverty maintains a bare level of survival in terms of access to resources required for human existence and decency for a prolonged period of time. Poverty at this level is determined by time and space (Kincaid, 1973; Cornia et al., 1987; Lauer and Lauer, 2002). To bring people out of subsistence poverty, it means that such persons or groups needs resources and capabilities to secure themselves over a given gestation period when income or basic consumption goods are scarce (Rogers, 1988; Schubert, 1994). Again, the need to build on the people’s assets and capabilities can elevate affected people over and above the subsistence level and subsequently, permanently out of poverty. This concept recognizes that there is a list of essential food stuffs and other indispensable household items below which it is difficult to maintain health and physical efficiency. Thus, a more relative concept of subsistence relates to a very low level of consumption, but one that ensures long term survival, health and physical efficiency. To a large extent, this process involves taking a basic level of expenditure sufficient to satisfy basic nutrition requirements and then adding more factors which gives room for non-food expenditures such as housing facilities and clothing (Alene, 2007; Annaman, 1993).
c) Relative Poverty

Relative poverty means a poverty condition where the household income falls below a given proportion of the average National Income. McDougal (1976) cited in Obatoyinbo (2008:57) argue that this tendency can effectively prevent those involved in participating in the cultural life of their society, thus, restricting their choices to what is affordable and obviously below the level of society in which they live. In such environments, the quality of life of those affected becomes an issue requiring that increasing emphasis be placed on participation and social inclusion. However, certain problems could arise in deciding what level of material possessions and monetary income constitutes the measures of relative poverty level and what items of expenditure should be covered. The two approaches are often presented as opposing but are also used in complimentary way. In the light of the above, Nwafor (2010) and Ajakaiye (2003) argued that:

While income and consumption-based indicators are still the most commonly used measures of progress in poverty reduction, the fact that there are many other aspects to poverty, both rural and urban, is now widely recognized by policy makers and development programme designers. Income poverty is therefore increasingly embedded within a wider, multinational concept of human poverty.

Causes of Poverty

From the preceding discourses on dimensions and typologies of poverty, it has been observed that poverty as a social ill has various manifestations which includes, but not limited to lack of income and productive resources sufficient to ensure sustainable livelihood; hunger and malnutrition; ill health; limited lack of access to education and other basic services; increased morbidity and mortality from illness; homelessness and inadequate, unsafe and degraded environment and social discrimination and exclusion. It is also characterized by lack of participation in vital decision making processes either in civil, social and cultural life (Hofferbert, 1974; Anderson, 1968). By extension, Yahie (1993) cited in Adamu (2011) wrote that factors propelling poverty include among others:

(a) Structural causes: These are more permanent and depends on a host of others exogenous factors such as limited resources, lack of skills, location disadvantages and other such factors that are inherent in the social and political landscape. The disabled and other physically challenged, orphans and landless farmers as well as households manned by matriarchal orientation falls under this category.

(b) Transitional Causes: These are mainly due to structural adjustment reforms and changes in domestic economic policies that may result in price instability and change, increased unemployment, etc. Natural calamities such as wars and environmental degradation also induce transitory poverty.

Apparently, however, causes of poverty in Nigeria can be attributed (Aliyu, 2009; Greer, 1984; Abimuku, 2010) to the following compelling factors:

(i) Poor macro-economic and monetary policies resulting in low economic growth rate and continuous depreciation of the value of naira in the international market.

(ii) Dwindling performance of the manufacturing sector which has the capacity to employ about 120 million people currently employ a little less than 1.5 million (Nwafor and Eboh, 2011) people going by the colossal number of persons registered as members of Manufacturers Association of Nigeria (MAN).

(iii) Foreign Debt Trap: The debt burden that has characterized the Nigerian economy since the pre-1999 days (after which a chunk of it was forgiven by London and Paris Clubs) constitutes a major threat to economic recovery and poverty reduction in Nigeria. Several billions of dollars have been expended to service foreign debts much to the neglect of internal domestic programmes, the result of which is increased poverty.

(iv) Poor management of the nation’s resources coupled with large-scale fraud and official corruption could impede equitable resource allocation thereby bringing about poverty. Nigeria is a country endowed with abundant resources and potentials in both human and material forms; with its inhabitants ascribed as “good people, great nation” with heart-rending windfall revenues accruing from oil sources. The Nigerian state is believed to have earned over $300 billion US dollars in favour of crude oil export and hence, rated as the 6th largest producer of oil (UNDP Report, 2008-2009) in the world. Inspite of this, the average Nigerian in the street barely has a hope where his next meal is coming from.

(v) Lastly, poor execution of government policies and programmes and projects, especially those projects aimed at the provision of social welfare services such as adequate and health, agriculture and rural development, etc.
Nonetheless, Obadan (1997) cited in Adadu (2012) concurred with the arguments and issues raised about causes of poverty above when he identified some causes of poverty in the wider context of sub-Saharan Africa, which he listed as inadequate access to employment opportunities; inadequate physical assets such as land and capital, and minimal access by the poor to credit even on a small scale; inadequate access to the means of supporting rural development in poor regions; inadequate access to markets where the poor can sell goods and services; low endowment of human capital; destruction of natural resources leading to environmental degradation and reduced productivity; inadequate access to assistance for those living at the margin and those victimized by transitory poverty; and lack of participation, that is, failure to draw the poor into the design and development programmes. All of the above factors, no doubt, constitutes as well as pose greater consequences on the mass of the Nigerian people. This is the focus of the next section on consequences of poverty which we now turn to.

Consequences of Poverty
The inability of the system to provide the basic necessities of life to its members has been consequential in myriad of ways. Specifically, in a society where the majority of its members are poverty-stricken, there is a general loss of confidence in the constituted authority, thereby generating disrespect and rendering government policies ineffective (Dror, 1971; Cohen, 1973; Burkey, 1993). Poverty is also consequential in building political apathy among contending forces and, for the majority, political ineptitude. This is exemplified in the 2011 general elections in Nigeria where most polling units were virtually empty and a large number of voters were summarily disenfranchised. It therefore increase the vulnerability of members of the society to external influence manifesting in form of violence and terrorism as the case may be.

Furthermore, poverty has the consequences of breeding social disillusionment with respect to what the societal objectives are and member’s responsibilities towards the attainment of these objectives. Just as ignorance maintains poverty, so also can poverty perpetuate ignorance since the victim cannot think and plan beyond where the next meal is coming from. It is a vicious circle, reproducing itself in perpetuity. Nevertheless, corruption, crimes and other social vices are to some extent, by-products of poverty. So long as making ends meet remains difficult, the propensity to explore other avenues, such as stealing is high. On the economic sphere, it can also be argued that because people are poor and cannot afford the capital needed to expand production, production itself remains largely subsistence; labour therefore becomes intensive and the margin of productivity criminally abysmal and low. There is no gain saying that the Nigerian economy has been a victim of wasteful diversion of resources that could have been used to foster viable development processes through high level squandermania and bureaucratic and political corruption.

THE STATE, MASS POVERTY AND THE PROBLEMS OF ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IN AFRICA
There is a dialectical relationship between poverty and the role of the state. The latter in this sense is used to mean the various structures, personnel and institutions available for the administration of a given political entity. The point of emphasis here is that the viability, commitment and decisiveness of the state and its structures impact passively on the mass of the people. On the other hand, the state in turn requires input and support from the masses to produce results that will enhance the attainment of societal goals. When the two concentric circles meet at a point, a common ground is achieved, thereby enhancing greater opportunities for growth, development and sustainability (Ngu, 1999; Todaro, 2003).

Drawing from above, emphasis on development, poverty therefore could be reduced drastically. To be sure, poverty in Africa takes the form of chronic/structural or conjectural/transient (Adadu, 2012; Abdullahi, 1993; NPC, 1995). By extension, structural/chronic poverty is long term or persistent. Its causes are more permanent and depend on a host of factors such as limited productive resources, lack of skills for gainful employment, locational disadvantage, or endemic socio-cultural factors. On the other hand, conjunctural/transitory poverty is temporary/transient or short-term. It is mainly due to natural disasters (e.g. droughts, typhoon, excessive flooding etc); man-made disasters like wars and environmental degradation and structural adjustment reforms and changes in domestic economic policies to mention but a few. In any case, poverty in Africa like in all developing economies are not without causes. Obadan (1977) enumerated the causes of poverty in sub-Saharan Africa to include inadequate access to employment opportunities, inadequate physical needs, such as land and capital, and minimal access by the poor to credit even on a small scale; inadequate access to means of supporting rural development in poor regions; inadequate access to
market when the poor can sell goods and services; low endowment of human capital, destruction of natural resources leading to environmental degradation and reduced productivity; inadequate access to assistance for those living at the margin and those victimized by transitory poverty and lack of participation, that is, the failure to draw the poor into the design of development programs (Adadu as cited in Obadan, 1997).

The problem of lack of inclusion in vital policy planks in Africa brings to the fore the role of the state vis-à-vis socio-economic development and poverty reduction. This shortfall on the part of the state structure and its institutions has been criticized by Onimode and Synge (1995) who argued that:

In many African countries, the state is the main organ of development. It is nonetheless, unable to fulfill many development objectives and needs because of what has been referred to as the paradox of development in Africa, which makes the state both the promoter and inhibitor of development (1995:92).

The foregoing depicts a political entity such as those of Africa which evolves through a historical process of colonialism and capitalist orientation. It is therefore not out of place to say that the survival of the state rather than socio-economic development has been a major pre-occupation of many African governments. To substantiate this argument, Onimode and Synge (1995) further noted that:

African states came into being as a result of colonial intervention, and have been plagued with economic problems… as a result, most African states have become over-politicized, over-centralized and increasingly alienated from the masses. Resources are mismanaged and diverted to the non-productive and non-social development oriented areas such that mass interest is summarily ignored (1995:92).

It is clear from the above that African states and government dwell so much on the control of public institutions and structures. Thus, excessive bureaucratization and control over most political and economic institutions and activities have become characteristics of most African states. Failure to produce enough surpluses for popular needs has resulted in large-scale mass poverty. The deterioration of most rural economics has seriously eroded subsistence economies, and threatens the survival of several artisanal and rural communities, which harbor majority of the African population. Even in the relatively industrialized country like Cote di’Ivoire, two-thirds of the population is employed in agriculture (ADB, 2006).

MASS POVERTY AND THE CONTRADICTION OF ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY IN NIGERIA

In the preceding analysis, it is evident that the scourge of poverty in less developed countries especially Africa, is problematic and impedes every sense of human pride, self-esteem and progress. The context of poverty as a scholarly discourse has largely estranged an average African, namely, Nigerian to his physical environment, limits his scope of existence and broader interaction with his fellow men and women, engenders high level of inequality between and amongst persons in the society, etc. According to the United Nations Human Development Report (2008-2009) an average Nigerian lives below US$1 dollars a day (2008:91). Excruciating poverty in Nigeria has practically pitched an average Nigerian poles apart with his counterparts in most urban centres, especially politicians and those at the corridors of power. Olabode and Elegbede have both criticized this scenario when they argued that the creation of poverty is an artificial handiwork of the rich who control the affairs of state, its resources and the entire paraphernalia of government. They further noted that excessive craze for primitive accumulation by the political class at the detriment of the rural masses results to mass poverty. It is noteworthy that Nigeria’s oil wealth has so much put the country in a vantage economic fortune so much so that Nigeria is ranked by UNDP as the 6th largest exporter of crude to the international market. Yet, it is also apparent that there is massive dearth of leadership will to meticulously harness the rich natural endowment and resources in the overall interest of the masses. This is aggravated further by the incidence of political corruption that has characterize the post-colonial Nigerian state to date. Side by side this argument is that the rural populace is worse hit in terms of poverty ratio. This is inspite of very many bogus policy plans of government to alleviate the chequered conditions of the people shortly after political independence in 1960. Some of these policies includes, but not limited to operation Feed the Nation (OFN), Green Revolution, Better Life for Rural Women, Directorate for Food Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI), Family Economic Advancement Programme (FEAP), National Directorate of Employment (NDE), Poverty Alleviation Programme, National Poverty Eradication Programme, etc (CNB, 1999). All of these laudable policies have largely remained on paper and, hence, suffered dangerous setback in the implementation process. It is also worth noting that
both military autocracy and civilian bigots have fared in the same direction in terms of policy failures in Nigeria. Thus, the multiplier effect of this policy summersault is the untold hardship and pauperization of the Nigerian people, especially those within the rural setting.

CAUSES OF MASS POVERTY AND ECONOMIC BACKWARDNESS IN NIGERIA

From the on-going investigations in this paper, it has been observed that extreme cases of poverty in Nigeria are better explained within the context of the rural dwellers across states and geographical zones. Nonetheless, the root causes of mass poverty stems from very many factors including the contradictions and inconsistency of government policies and programmes, political instability, lack of direction and sincerity of purpose of the managers of state and ultimately, misapplication of public funds meant for the execution of critical projects for poverty alleviation. Experiences in the last ten years has shown that public funds meant for the revitalization of ailing sectors including the power, telecommunication, aviation, roads construction, pension fund administration and, most recently, the ongoing petroleum down-stream sector probe. All these sectors contributes in one way or the other in job creation, poverty reduction, economic development and sustainability if they are genuinely harnessed in the best interest of the nation and the teeming public. However, the sad news is that meaningful economic development and poverty reduction through these mediums have been staled and halted. It goes without saying that all other efforts aimed at improving the Nigerian state are literally been hijacked by the so-called ‘cabal’ who are too big for any security apparatus to convict and prosecute at least to serve as deterrent to potential cabals. From the point of view of poverty index in Nigeria, it has also been discovered that poverty incidences are not limited to rural dwellers alone. It also affects those in the urban and semi-urban centres. However, the rural settlers are worse for it mainly due to their inability to access most opportunities in the urban centres. The reason for this is, of course, due to ignorance, lack of information, lack of exposure and lack of financial wherewithal to explore such opportunities. Basically, however, the recent poverty index by states published by the UNDP Report shows that states such as Yobe, Borno, Kebbi, Katsina and Bauchi are worse off in terms of poverty profile. The next set of states with high poverty incidence includes Jigawa, Gombe, Taraba, Kano and Niger. This is further depicted in tables below.

Table 3: Human Development Statistics by States in Nigeria

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>States</th>
<th>Human Development Index (HDI) Value</th>
<th>Human Poverty Index</th>
<th>Gender Development Measure</th>
<th>Gender Empowerment Measure</th>
<th>Inequality Measure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>000</td>
<td>Abia</td>
<td>0.516</td>
<td>21.9</td>
<td>0.527</td>
<td>0.383</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>001</td>
<td>Adamawa</td>
<td>0.372</td>
<td>42.4</td>
<td>0.287</td>
<td>0.285</td>
<td>0.33</td>
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<tr>
<td>002</td>
<td>Akwa Ibom</td>
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<td>27.1</td>
<td>0.622</td>
<td>0.310</td>
<td>0.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>003</td>
<td>Anambra</td>
<td>0.427</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>0.437</td>
<td>0.414</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>004</td>
<td>Bauchi</td>
<td>0.291</td>
<td>48.8</td>
<td>0.070</td>
<td>0.129</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>005</td>
<td>Bayelsa</td>
<td>0.593</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td>0.600</td>
<td>0.219</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>006</td>
<td>Benue</td>
<td>0.532</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>0.508</td>
<td>0.204</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>007</td>
<td>Borno</td>
<td>0.345</td>
<td>55.9</td>
<td>0.250</td>
<td>0.033</td>
<td>0.40</td>
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<td>008</td>
<td>Cross River</td>
<td>0.539</td>
<td>31.9</td>
<td>0.544</td>
<td>0.148</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>009</td>
<td>Delta</td>
<td>0.592</td>
<td>23.6</td>
<td>0.591</td>
<td>0.316</td>
<td>0.40</td>
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<tr>
<td>010</td>
<td>Ebonyi</td>
<td>0.401</td>
<td>34.3</td>
<td>0.398</td>
<td>0.284</td>
<td>0.40</td>
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<tr>
<td>011</td>
<td>Edo</td>
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<td>21.7</td>
<td>0.475</td>
<td>0.148</td>
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<tr>
<td>012</td>
<td>Ekiti</td>
<td>0.523</td>
<td>22.1</td>
<td>0.519</td>
<td>0.380</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>013</td>
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<td>28.6</td>
<td>0.494</td>
<td>0.192</td>
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<td>014</td>
<td>Gombe</td>
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<td>45.0</td>
<td>0.076</td>
<td>0.057</td>
<td>0.40</td>
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<tr>
<td>015</td>
<td>Imo</td>
<td>0.510</td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td>0.418</td>
<td>0.303</td>
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<tr>
<td>016</td>
<td>Jigawa</td>
<td>0.362</td>
<td>48.4</td>
<td>0.303</td>
<td>0.055</td>
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<tr>
<td>017</td>
<td>Kaduna</td>
<td>0.448</td>
<td>34.3</td>
<td>0.422</td>
<td>0.213</td>
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<td>018</td>
<td>Kano</td>
<td>0.436</td>
<td>43.0</td>
<td>0.333</td>
<td>0.092</td>
<td>0.40</td>
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<tr>
<td>019</td>
<td>Katsina</td>
<td>0.410</td>
<td>49.9</td>
<td>0.383</td>
<td>0.129</td>
<td>0.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>020</td>
<td>Kebbi</td>
<td>0.377</td>
<td>50.2</td>
<td>0.383</td>
<td>0.175</td>
<td>0.46</td>
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<tr>
<td>021</td>
<td>Kogi</td>
<td>0.411</td>
<td>34.4</td>
<td>0.359</td>
<td>0.069</td>
<td>0.46</td>
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<tr>
<td>Zones</td>
<td>Human Development Index (HDI)</td>
<td>Human Poverty Index (HPI)</td>
<td>Gender Development Measure (GDM)</td>
<td>Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM)</td>
<td>Inequality Measure (INQ)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>North Central</td>
<td>0.490</td>
<td>34.65</td>
<td>0.478</td>
<td>0.244</td>
<td>0.49</td>
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<tr>
<td>NorthWest</td>
<td>0.420</td>
<td>44.15</td>
<td>0.376</td>
<td>0.117</td>
<td>0.44</td>
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<tr>
<td>North East</td>
<td>0.332</td>
<td>48.90</td>
<td>0.250</td>
<td>0.118</td>
<td>0.42</td>
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<tr>
<td>SouthWest</td>
<td>0.523</td>
<td>21.50</td>
<td>0.507</td>
<td>0.285</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South East</td>
<td>0.471</td>
<td>26.07</td>
<td>0.455</td>
<td>0.315</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South South</td>
<td>0.573</td>
<td>26.61</td>
<td>0.575</td>
<td>0.251</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: NHDR Team 2008-2009

Table 5: Population, GDP & Per Capita by Zones in Nigeria

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>States</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>GDP in Million Naira</th>
<th>GDP per capita in Naira</th>
<th>GDP per capita in US $</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>South East</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abia</td>
<td>3,051,841</td>
<td>156,581.86</td>
<td>51,307.34</td>
<td>407.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anambra</td>
<td>4,459,236</td>
<td>91,536.69</td>
<td>20,527.44</td>
<td>163.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ebonyi</td>
<td>2,317,922</td>
<td>57,656.38</td>
<td>24,874.17</td>
<td>197.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enugu</td>
<td>3,388,168</td>
<td>131,168.00</td>
<td>38,713.55</td>
<td>307.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imo</td>
<td>3,963,039</td>
<td>205,609.17</td>
<td>51,881.69</td>
<td>412.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>17,180,206.00</td>
<td>642,552.10</td>
<td>37,400.72</td>
<td>297.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South West</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ekiti</td>
<td>2,449,007</td>
<td>97,551.83</td>
<td>39,833.22</td>
<td>316.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lagos</td>
<td>9,131,112</td>
<td>2,935,593.30</td>
<td>321,493.52</td>
<td>2,544.98</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ogun</td>
<td>3,721,345</td>
<td>115,791.01</td>
<td>31,115.37</td>
<td>247.28</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ondo</td>
<td>3,587,265</td>
<td>762,093.19</td>
<td>212,444.07</td>
<td>1,688.34</td>
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<tr>
<td>Osun</td>
<td>3,441,186</td>
<td>79,271.30</td>
<td>23,036.04</td>
<td>183.07</td>
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<tr>
<td>Oyo</td>
<td>5,505,815</td>
<td>194,182.18</td>
<td>35,268.56</td>
<td>280.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25,386,723.00</td>
<td>4,184,482.81</td>
<td>164,829.58</td>
<td>1,309.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South South</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Akwa Ibom</td>
<td>3,841,712</td>
<td>1,843,218.56</td>
<td>479,790.93</td>
<td>3,813.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: NBS, Human Development Indicators, 2008.
Bayelsa &nbsp;1,788,957 &nbsp;1,212,867.01 &nbsp;677,974.38 &nbsp;5,388.02
Cross River &nbsp;3,048,375 &nbsp;321,901.19 &nbsp;76,073.71 &nbsp;604.58
Delta &nbsp;4,130,761 &nbsp;1,208,594.31 &nbsp;292,583.94 &nbsp;2,235.23
Edo &nbsp;3,463,629 &nbsp;142,784.30 &nbsp;41,223.90 &nbsp;5,210.69
Rivers &nbsp;5,084,192 &nbsp;3,333,507.68 &nbsp;655,661.25 &nbsp;527.62
**Total** &nbsp;**17,515,914.00** &nbsp;**7,972,873.05** &nbsp;**455,178.82** &nbsp;**3,617.41**

**North Central**

Benue &nbsp;4,390,184 &nbsp;792,405.51 &nbsp;180,494.83 &nbsp;1,434.43
Kogi &nbsp;3,424,637 &nbsp;63,487.75 &nbsp;18,479.95 &nbsp;147.01
Kwara &nbsp;2,469,200 &nbsp;99,490.24 &nbsp;40,292.50 &nbsp;320.21
Nasarawa &nbsp;1,926,153 &nbsp;297,301.17 &nbsp;154,349.72 &nbsp;1,226.65
Niger &nbsp;3,862,030 &nbsp;820,194.99 &nbsp;212,374.06 &nbsp;1,687.57
Plateau &nbsp;3,356,070 &nbsp;82,165.65 &nbsp;24,842.70 &nbsp;194.57
FCT Abuja &nbsp;592,886 &nbsp;761,583.40 &nbsp;1,284,535.97 &nbsp;10,208.50
**Total** &nbsp;**12,206,399.00** &nbsp;**2,916,489.71** &nbsp;**238,932.39** &nbsp;**1,898.85**

**North East**

Adamawa &nbsp;3,352,085 &nbsp;88,296.94 &nbsp;26,340.90 &nbsp;209.34
Bauchi &nbsp;4,563,897 &nbsp;95,798.53 &nbsp;20,990.51 &nbsp;166.82
Borno &nbsp;4,044,366 &nbsp;269,473.62 &nbsp;66,629.39 &nbsp;529.52
Gombe &nbsp;2,374,698 &nbsp;105,286.06 &nbsp;44,336.61 &nbsp;352.35
Taraba &nbsp;2,411,441 &nbsp;43,020.00 &nbsp;17,839.95 &nbsp;141.78
Yobe &nbsp;2,232,186 &nbsp;73,308.50 &nbsp;32,841.58 &nbsp;261.00
**Total** &nbsp;**15,626,588.00** &nbsp;**675,183.65** &nbsp;**43,207.36** &nbsp;**343.38**

**North West**

Jigawa &nbsp;4,585,695 &nbsp;574,713.28 &nbsp;125,327.41 &nbsp;996.01
Kaduna &nbsp;6,276,729 &nbsp;558,386.58 &nbsp;88,961.40 &nbsp;707.00
Kano &nbsp;9,266,314 &nbsp;797,251.26 &nbsp;86,037.58 &nbsp;683.76
Katsina &nbsp;5,984,866 &nbsp;748,767.07 &nbsp;125,110.08 &nbsp;994.28
Kebbi &nbsp;3,298,579 &nbsp;211,057.04 &nbsp;63,984.23 &nbsp;508.50
Sokoto &nbsp;3,822,365 &nbsp;716,514.16 &nbsp;187,358.92 &nbsp;1,488.98

**Source:** NBS, Human Development Indicators, 2008

**CONCLUSION**

The paper examined the correlates between economic development and mass poverty in Africa particularly reference to Nigeria’s rural poor. The study x-rays the increasing role of international capital manifested through the instrumentalities of colonialism and colonialism. Of particular interest in this research is the link between external forces of capital and Africa’s domestic bourgeoisie class. The latter appears to play a complementary role in the stifling or otherwise of less developed economies. This they do through the wild acceptance of foreign conceptions, ideologies and philosophies which may not necessarily align with domestic peculiarities. The backlash effect of this obnoxious policies finds expression in the down-ward spiral and movement of the already chequered economies of less developed countries, and this ultimately enhance mass poverty. Inspite of lofty socio-economic transformation agenda designed by African/ Nigerian leadership, the state of poverty appears to be on the increase. Less developed countries therefore owe it a duty to design policies and programmes that are pro-poor, the essence of which is to build confidence on the poor masses as well as make life meaningful for the people. This, no, doubt, will adequately boost the economies and fortunes of the underdeveloped world and its swarming populace in the 21st century and beyond.

**THE WAY FORWARD**

The socio-economic backwardness of underdeveloped economies is a matter of concern to researchers and scholars alike. It is in the best interest of all and sundry that better and meaningful lives are enhanced, development engendered and poverty eradicated or reduced to the barest minimum. What is to be done therefore must start with
the leadership. This is because those at that level possess the arsenal necessary for the control of affairs of state. It is the onus of the leadership to position itself in truth as well cultivate a decisive spirit of patriotism and nationalism to sincerely move the continent forward. The determination of the leadership to be purposeful and resilient in the quest for all-inclusive policies for poverty reduction has the capability to trickle down to those at the grassroot. This development reinforces itself in high level trust, mutual co-existence, stability and development. The after effect is therefore a result a strong, viable and reliable economy where there will be massive group participation, collective interest and higher national aspirations aimed at realizing the vision 20–20–20 in the next few years from here.

REFERENCES


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