URBAN POVERTY AND HOUSEHOLDS COPING STRATEGIES: A STUDY OF SELECTED NEIGHBOURHOODS IN ENUGU METROPOLIS

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FEBRUARY 2010
DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this study is original and has not been submitted for any Degree or Diploma in this University or any other University or Polytechnic

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February 2010
This research work has been read and certified as the original work of
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This research work is dedicated to my dear husband, Basil, and our children (Chinenye, Amalachukwu, Chukwudi, Uchechukwu, Chinelo and Elochukwu) for their unflinching support and cooperation throughout the period of the study.
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ABSTRACT

This paper is the outcome of a field survey on the nature and dimensions of poverty prevalent in three selected neighbourhoods within Enugu North metropolis. The study examined the strategies adopted by households in the three selected neighbourhoods in coping with urban poverty vis-à-vis the gender of each household head. Ninety households were sampled from the three neighbourhoods using purposive random sampling technique. The data obtained were analyzed using statistical tools of Analysis of Variance and Correlation Coefficient. The null hypotheses were tested with F ratio and T statistic. Findings were that indicators of poverty amongst the three neighbourhoods vary both in nature and dimension. Eighty-seven out of the ninety households used social networking to cope with urban poverty. Other strategies utilized were street hawking and livestock rearing in this order. The least strategy used to cope with the urban poverty was use of microfinance loans. Household urban poverty coping strategies adopted in each neighbourhood were influenced by the available resources and opportunities in the neighbourhood; and the gender of the head of the household.
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND OF STUDY

The World Bank, on 26 August 2008, released data using, inability to earn income above US$1.25 per person per day with reference to parity purchasing power as at year 2005, as the revised international poverty line. (Ravallion & Chen, 2008). Ravallion & Chen (2008) further explained that urban poverty is “a multidimensional phenomenon that takes into consideration earned income in addition to personal security and tenure of employment, access to health and education, disempowerment as well as a dynamic condition of vulnerability and susceptibility to risks and inability to manage assets”. Poverty has serious impact on development in the sense that it creates conditions that constitute obstacles to development. Such conditions often lead to acquisition of wrong values, behaviour, and attitudes which affect interpersonal relationship, and can forestall development in the society.

The growth pole/centre model of development was introduced into Nigeria by the colonial regime. This model was continued by the neo-colonial administrations and it influenced the way development in Nigerian evolved. It resulted in the dichotomy of concentrating infrastructural facilities, industries and other social amenities in the few selected centers of development (growth poles/centers) to the exclusion of other parts of the country. It was assumed that development generated in the growth centre will spread from there to the surrounding areas and gradually to the hinterland at the fullness of time (Okoye, 1992). This did not happen. Rather, it stimulated rural-urban migration due to high level of poverty in the rural areas. Its backwash effect led to the over population of the few designated urban growth centers of which Enugu is one of them. This was more so when the development generated in these growth centers failed to spread to the surrounding rural areas. Rural areas
became synonymous with poverty. However, the increase in rural poverty led to the corresponding increase in urban poverty such that the development efforts and activities embarked on failed to yield the expected results.

Part of the theory of dual economy which stipulates that unlimited job opportunities exists in urban cities, lend credence to persistent rural-urban migration. The structural disequilibrium in resource allocation between rural and urban areas propelled more rural dwellers and labour force to migrate to urban areas. The rural-urban migration was at a tremendous rate during the era of oil boom when many gainfully employed rural dwellers abandoned their jobs and subsistent farming in search of white collar jobs in the cities. The oil glut of the 80’s, coupled with the effect of policy measures put in place to counter the oil glut, increased the level of urban poverty as many urban dwellers became deprived of common necessities that add value to life. Anugwom (2001, p.101) captured this when he stated that the “advent of the pronounced urban poverty in Nigeria can be traced to the eventual collapse of the world oil market”. This was aggravated by the failure of Nigerian leaders to address the problem of urban poverty. However, the initial major cracks and inadequacy in the urban carrying capacity of Nigerian cities was indicated prior to oil glut as a result of influx of rural labour into urban areas. (Anugwom, 2001)

The outcome was multifaceted. Apart from urban population explosion, which put the installed infrastructural facilities under pressure, there are impoverishing conditions such as limited access to employment, inadequate and insecure housing and services, violent and unhealthy environments, little or no social protection mechanism, limited access to adequate health care and educational opportunities (World Bank, 2009.) There are deprivations of common necessities that determine the quality of life.
The Bahá’í International Community (2008) held similar view in its statement that impoverishing conditions like unemployment, environmental degradations, marginalization of women and girls, poor governance, ethnic and religious antipathy constitute formidable obstacles to progress and development of communities. In other words, no meaningful development is likely to take place in the face of poverty.

The experienced political/religious upheavals, crises and conflict in various parts of the country illustrate the relationship that exists between poverty and development. The poor are the ones who offer their services in carrying out violent criminal activities. Poverty constitutes a major set back to the attainment of set development objectives. Its wide spread and negative effects on development account for why Nations of the world, including Nigeria, adopt the United Nations (2000) Millennium Resolutions which identifies poverty eradication as the number one goal that every Nation must aspire to attain by the year 2015, if development is to be actualized. (Nigeria Millennium Development Goals 2005 Report)

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The persistent rural-urban migration of people in search of improved living conditions, gives rise to unequal distribution of population such that urban areas are over populated. The installed infrastructural facilities and structures are put under pressure and become inadequate following human population congestion. The cost of acquiring land located in urban areas appreciates and becomes unaffordable to many. There is low level of sanitary condition as slum dwellings emerge in most neighbourhoods due to inadequate accommodations. The situation was depicted by Todaro and Smith (2007) in their explanation on how rapid expansion of urban centers have placed increasing strain on the resources of developing countries as
governments attempt to provide adequate infrastructural facilities and services to the inhabitants.

The employment opportunities available fail to expand correspondingly to the urban population growth rate, hence many are either unemployed or underemployed. Todaro & Smith (2007) expressed similar view in their statement that “one of the major consequences of rapid urbanization process has been the burgeoning supply of job seekers into both formal and informal sectors of urban economy”. For the underemployed, there is reduced income while for the unemployed, there is zero income. Meeting basic human needs such as balanced food, portable water, decent accommodation, adequate clothing, education of the children and access to health care services became difficult. This inability to meet basic needs of life exposes the affected people to vulnerability, alienation, isolation as well as failure to take part in decision making. The improved condition of living sought after in the urban centers become illusory.

Notwithstanding these situations, many poor families and households continue to reside in the urban centers, when one would have thought that the reasonable option would have been for them to return to the rural areas where they have access to such assets as farm lands, and economic trees that promise better conditions of living. The question that comes to mind is: how are these poor households sustained in the face of urban poverty? How do they meet up with their basic needs such as nutritional requirements, healthcare services, educational need, accommodation need? In other words, what are their strategies for coping with urban poverty? Are these coping strategies effective and sustainable for the purposes of meeting development goals? These are the questions that this research will find answers to.
Some limitations were encountered in sampling the identified urban poor since it was not possible to interview every one that is poor. The veracity of information given may not be accurate since some respondents did not give full disclosure of information asked, especially in the area of income earned. Some may withhold relevant information because they would not want to disclose their coping strategies that may be unlawful.

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

In general, this study aims to identify the strategies that various households in three neighbourhoods within Enugu metropolis adopt in coping with urban poverty. To this end, the specific objectives of this study are to;

- Ascertain the scope and dimensions of urban poverty in three selected neighbourhoods of Enugu metropolis.
- Identify the strategies that various strata of people in those neighbourhoods are using for purposes of coping with urban poverty.
- Determine the relationship between the gender of the head of the family and the coping strategies adopted in each household.
- Investigate to what extent they meet up with the basic necessities of living – nutrition, education, shelter, potable water, clothing e.t.c
- Examine how they do the above.
- Recommend optimal coping strategies which can be built into urban poverty alleviation policies

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In order to realize the above stated objectives, the researcher attempts to answer the under-listed questions.

I. What are the dimensions of poverty existing in the selected neighbourhoods of Enugu metropolis?
II. What are the strategies devised by poor households in these selected neighbourhoods for the purposes of coping with urban poverty?
III. Does the gender of the head of a household determine the household poverty coping strategies?

IV. Are there significant differences in the household poverty coping strategies amongst the selected neighbourhoods.

V. Is there any of the household poverty coping strategies that can be recommended to policy makers for purposes of policy making on urban poverty alleviation.

1.5 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The study tests the under listed null hypotheses:

1. Ho: There is no significant difference in households’ poverty coping strategies among the different neighbourhoods in Enugu metropolis.

2. Ho: There is no association between gender of households head and household coping strategies.

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The significance of this study lies in its contribution to the continuing search for optimal means of alleviating poverty given the fact that poverty alleviation is fundamental to actualization of development goals. The increase in poverty level is an indicator of underdevelopment. It continues to forestall development of individuals, communities, institutions and Nation as a whole through deprivation of basic necessities of life. These basic necessities are required by household members to develop their full potentials and capabilities. The development of these capabilities forms the primary target of every development activities. Actualizing poverty reduction in Nigeria will help in attaining other Millennium Development Goals and
objectives which over the years have been forestalled due primarily to poverty. Poverty breeds crises, violence, and crime. On the face of crime, violence, and crises, no meaningful development is likely to take place. Poverty reduction engenders happiness, progress, and peaceful co-existence of peoples of the world.

The product of this study will help in identifying and promoting household coping strategies that are effective, sustainable, and contributory to poverty alleviation and development. The strategies so identified, hopefully, can be built into policy for purposes of urban poverty alleviation.

In addition, the study will sensitize all and sundry on the need to weigh the opportunities open to them in their localities vis-à-vis urban areas, as this will help to check unnecessary rural to urban migration. This is significant because rural-urban migration is one of the major causes of urban poverty.

1.7 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The study was carried out between May and November 2009. It covers households in three neighbourhoods located in three different communities within Enugu North Local Government Area of Enugu state. The communities are Ogui New Layout, Iva Valley, and Ogbete. From these communities, three neighbourhoods are selected one from each Community. The neighbourhoods are Obiagu in Ogui New Layout, Camp 1 in Iva valley, and Udi Siding/Ngenevu in Ogbete. Members of households that fall within the scope of the study are male and female household members who are either the head of household or the spouse.
1.8 BRIEF PROFILE OF THE STUDY AREA: ENUGU METROPOLIS

“Enugu was originally the capital of the Eastern Region from Nigeria's independence in 1960. On May 27, 1967, the Nigerian government divided the 3 regions into 12 states. The Eastern Region was broken up and Enugu was made the capital of East Central State. On May 30, 1967, it was declared the first capital of the short-lived secessionist Republic of Biafra.

At the end of the Nigerian Civil War in 1970, Enugu again became the capital of East Central State. On February 3, 1976, East Central State was broken into the two new states Imo and Anambra. Enugu became the capital of Anambra State.

At the inception of Enugu as the capital of defunct Eastern Region, it was comprised of major settlements of Ogbete, Uwani, Abakpa, Asata, Ogui, Government Reserved Area (GRA), Iva Valley, Ugwu Alfred. In the course of time, other settlements such as Emene, Trans-Ekulu, Achara Layout, Ogui New layout and others were either developed or integrated into Enugu town. Today, what constitutes Enugu town is drawn from four local Government Areas namely Enugu North, Enugu South, Enugu Central and Enugu East.

Currently, the localities that make up Enugu Metropolis are the layouts of Abakpa Nike, Trans Eku, Emene, the Government Reservation Area (G.R.A.), Iva Valley, Ogui, Ogbete, Uwani, Akwunanaw, Independence Layout, Timber Shed, Ogui New Layout, Obiagu, Artisan, New Haven, City Layout, Achara Layout, Golf Estate, Ebeano Estate, Loma Linda Estate, and Ugwu Aron. For the purpose of this study, three neighbourhoods were sampled from three different localities in Enugu North as representatives of poor neighbourhoods in Enugu metropolis.
1.9 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The limitation of the study is the fact that not every aspect of poverty is covered by the survey. Urban poverty denotes limited access to basic needs of life and the existing facilities of utilities, healthcare, education and housing. It is a *relative* kind of poverty as opposed to *absolute* poverty. The study is limited to the access to these basic needs/ facilities and the major coping strategies adopted by households with respect to meeting the needs.

It is not possible to survey all the poor neighbourhoods in Enugu metropolis. This is because the research method adopted is more concerned with a representative sample
of the population under study. According to Nwodu (2006) “Survey research method works on the premise that a given population is too large for any researcher to realistically observe all the elements in the population”. This is more so when it is recalled that the localities that constitute the current Enugu metropolis are drawn from four different local government areas namely; Enugu North, Enugu South, Enugu East, and Enugu Central. Prior to this, neighbourhoods that make up Enugu metropolis were few.

Not all the members of a household are sampled. At least, one respondent is drawn from each household as it was not possible to interview every member of a household. The veracity of information given may not be accurate since some respondents did not give full disclosure of the information asked. This is most so in the area of income earned. Some households may withhold relevant information because they would not want to disclose their coping strategies that are unlawful.

The proportion of sample size from each selected neighbourhood of study is worked out based on 2006 National Population Census Figure although the breakdown of 2006 population is yet to be released.

1.10 DEFINITION OF TERMS.
Apart from the key words-urban poverty, households coping strategies, there are terms used in the process of the study which need to be defined for purposes of clarity. The terms are; effectiveness and sustainability as they relate to the adopted household coping strategies

Effectiveness has to do with adequacy and appropriateness of a choice of a coping strategy in alleviating urban poverty.
Sustainability on the other hand is a term which has been open to many interpretations based on the context in which it is used. **Sustainability** in the context of this study refers to the capability of adopted coping strategy to alleviate household urban poverty for a prolonged period of time.
REFERENCES


CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 CONCEPTS OF POVERTY

Poverty is conceived of as a multi-dimensional concept covering economic, environmental resources, socio-political, and health care aspects of deprivation. These various aspects of deprivations and their components are interconnected and negatively reinforce each other. The effects create a vicious cycle of poverty. This was underscored in the World Bank (2009) statement showing that poverty is characterized by cumulative deprivations such that one dimension of poverty is often the cause of or contributor to another dimension.

Poverty, according to Wikipedia Free Encyclopedia (2001) is viewed as deprivation of either common necessities of life or opportunities to learn, obtain better employment to escape poverty, to enjoy the respect of fellow citizens. Such deprivations may be either relative or absolute. It is considered absolute when one is unable to afford the intake of daily minimal quantity of calories (between 2000-2500J per person) required to sustain human body. This is measured in terms of inability to earn income above US$1.25 per person based on 2005 parity purchasing power. (Ravallion and Chen, 2008). Ogbenna (2007), adopted the Federal Ministry of Economic Co-operation concept of poverty as any of the following conditions:

i. Not having enough food to eat,
ii. Malnutrition or poor dietary intake,
iii. High rate of infant/maternal mortality,
iv. Inadequate basic health care to tackle common diseases,
v. Low life expectancy,
vi. Inadequate access to potable water,
vii. Lack of shelter/unfit housing, low educational opportunities,
viii. Lack of productive assets, absence of socio-economic infrastructure, and
ix. Lack of active participation in decision-making process.
The concept of poverty has attracted global attention so much so that the United Nations Organization enlisted its eradication as the number one Millennium Development Goal to be attained by the year 2015.

Poverty, therefore, denotes a situation where one cannot provide adequate nutrition, portable water, shelter, clothing, education, health care services, and security for oneself. Nnamani (2006), stated that to be poor is often to suffer ill health, to be socially excluded and to be vulnerable. In its widest term, it is described as deprivation of both material and non-material well-being. According to Hossain (2005) poverty is a product not just of material conditions but of a set of interlocking factors including physical weakness, social isolation, vulnerability and powerlessness. However, Eneh (2007) conceives poverty not as a state but the result of a process. To him poverty is never defined in itself. Instead, it is defined through other concepts such as income, basic need, growth, wellbeing, exclusion or equality.

Poverty is characterized by inability or lack of capability to provide for physical sustenance or to invest or participate in decision making. It means that opportunities and choices most basic to human development are denied leading to lack of access to longevity, healthy living, creative life, decent standard of living, freedom, dignity, self-respect, and respect for others. It depicts a scenario where a few people are stupendously affluent while the rest of the populace ekes out a living dotted by the acute socio-economic deprivations of needs and wants.

### 2.2 URBAN POVERTY AS A FORM OF POVERTY

*Urban poverty* is a form of poverty peculiar to urban areas. It is a state of either relative or absolute want which is related to a particular geographic and social milieu. Urban poverty is primarily as a result of influx of people to the urban areas. The
influx of people to the urban areas may result in over population, environmental pollution and degradation, under employment, unemployment, uneven distributive measures in the national resource allocation. These, individually and collectively result in urban poverty cycle.

Anugwom (2001, p.101) described urban poverty as “a form of relatively nascent poverty engendered by the realities of urban domicility and it is rooted in urban agglomerations”. He further identified three features paramount to the conceptualization of poverty in general and urban poverty in particular. They are:

- Absence of higher and more reliable incomes and better consumption
- A consideration of net assets in relation to liabilities
- Attention to issues of security independence and self respect.

Conventionally it is defined in terms of measurable indices of average household or consumption level. In other words it is defined as the inability to live above US$1.25 purchasing power parity per person on daily bases in extreme cases or the inability to live above US$2.00 purchasing power parity under moderate situation. (Ravallion and Chen; 2008)

However urban poverty goes beyond incomes or consumption level to include social and non-material deprivation such as access to education, healthcare services, security of lives and property, participation in decision making, transportation, improved qualitative life, available to people at any time. Anugwom (2001) included in this category personal and domestic issues such as feeling of social exclusion, and psychological burden of unfulfilment, indebtedness, dependence, powerlessness and physical weakness.

Urban poverty manifests itself in various ways amongst which are: development of slums, poor sanitary environment, and limited access to social infrastructural
facilities. Sujuwade (2008) painted a vivid picture of urban poverty to reflect lack of access to credit for business or house, inability to afford adequate housing, unhygienic living conditions, low quality public services, isolation, social insecurity, lack of employment, inability to have regular job, economic stagnation, inability of urban household to meet up their required and necessary food need.

2.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF URBAN POVERTY

Poverty is multi-faceted as indicated not just by the absence of material well being but also by other sets of inter-locking factors including physical weakness, social isolation, vulnerability and powerlessness. These factors work in an interface relationship such that one factor reinforces other factors with the end result of impoverishing the people the more. With the vicious cycle of poverty, development efforts are forestalled.

Todaro and Smith (2007) aptly described the situation in which poor people live. The improvised people suffer from under nutrition and poor health, have little or no literacy, live in environmentally degraded areas, have little political voice and attempt to earn a meager living in dilapidated urban slums.

Nwodu (2007) described the characteristics of urban poverty to include

- Low earning or low per capita income
- Lack of access to basic life need, infrastructures like health, educational, recreational and sundry facilities.
- Living in squalors, slums and unhygienic environments.
- Inability to recognize, appreciate and assert self esteem
- Lack of capacity to explore, articulate, interpret and exploit the opportunities that abound in man’s social cultural, economic and political environment
Soubbontina (2004) in his observation pointed out that income poverty in most cases is associated with low health and education level which in turn results to low income. Amongst the major characteristics of urban poverty are:

- Low income and consumption
- Limited food energy intake
- Unsafe environment and poor housing condition
- Limited access to water resources
- Low educational level
- Limited access to good health care services

2.3a LOW INCOME AND CONSUMPTION

Income is amongst the categories of physical capital which is dependent on human capital. Human capital which consists of people's abilities, knowledge, and skills are built through education and good health. Likewise poor health and low level of education affect the capabilities to improve income.

Low income, therefore, is the inability to earn certain minimum income, enough to meet the basic needs of life. This is a relative indicator of poverty based on the wealth of the nation involved. The World Bank established an international poverty line of US$1.25 and US$2.00 purchasing power parity per person a day for extremely poor countries, and middle income countries respectively (Ravallion and Chen, 2008). The inability to earn income above the United Nations specified Poverty Line classifies one as being income poor. This is in view of the fact that income below the stipulated poverty line cannot provide consumptions enough to meet the minimum calorie requirement in addition to meeting other needs.

The National Bureau of Statistics (2005) calculated urban poverty rate to be at 40.1 per cent using the US$1.00 purchasing power parity while the annual expenditure thresh-hold per person is 21,608 Naira. However, this was based on
Nnamani (2006), while referring to the Federal Office of Statistics report, stated that the average household income for Enugu State in 1999 was 2,879 Naira, while the average per-capita household income was 688 Naira. However, both the average per-capita household income and the purchasing power parity of dollar has been eroded by inflation and unstable exchange rate such that people who earn much above it, still cannot meet the required minimum nutritional need. This is based on realities on ground in most developing countries in general, and Nigeria in particular.

2.3b. INSUFFICIENT FOOD ENERGY INTAKE

This measures the level of food consumption that will enable households to obtain enough food to meet the basic energy requirement which is stipulated to be 2900 calories per day per person. The inability to meet this minimum calorie need for the members of a household is an indication of poverty.

- According to the National Bureau of Statistics Report (2005) on Poverty Profile for Nigeria, the national incidence of urban poverty based on 2900 calorie intake was rated at 43.1%. Nwodu (2007) reported that 29 percent of Nigerian children are underweight, probably as a result of malnutrition. The inability to meet the food energy intake requirement is not unconnected with low income. Anugwom (2001) describes the situation as inability of urban households to meet with their required necessary food needs together with economic stagnation.
2.3c. UNSAFE ENVIRONMENT AND POOR HOUSING CONDITIONS

The low income earning capacity of the poor poses a challenge to the urban poor in meeting the necessary requirements for acquiring land in designated areas for development. Consequently, many resort to illegal construction of houses on public or private property, often without renting contracts, and in locations where there is no or limited access to infrastructural facilities and utility services. The houses are built close to one another in an uncoordinated planning and without specifications, thereby creating congestion and slums. This is accompanied by poor sanitary means of solid waste disposal – both domestic and human wastes, thereby degrading the environment. Jhingan (2007) expressed the view that poverty is both the cause and effect of environmental degradation. The contaminated environment poses a health threat to the generality of the residents. This is aggravated in situations where there is no access to potable water.

2.3d LIMITED ACCESS TO POTABLE WATER RESOURCES

This is another characteristic of urban poverty. Water is a basic necessity of life in the absence of which life ceases to exist. Poor quality water resources are responsible for water borne diseases affecting the people. These diseases impoverish the people as the acquired income is spent in treatment, while the victims are incapacitated during the period of sickness.

Access to improved water resources entails both good quality water and proximity of the water resources to the people. The inability of people to access good quality water regularly within their immediate environment is an indicator of poverty. Limited access to water affects the general sanitary condition of a neighbourhood in an urban set up.
2.3e LOW EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

Qualitative education and good health empower people to achieve higher productivity and earn higher income (Soubbontina 2004) and thereby removing them from below poverty line. Therefore, illiteracy or low level literacy amongst people is an indicator of urban poverty amongst people. Appropriate and functional education impacts skills, knowledge, information and competence required to lead a fulfilled life.

2.3f LIMITED ACCESS TO GOOD HEALTH CARE.

Health is another human capital which indicates the poverty level of a people. This is predicated on the overall quality of life, access to health care services, adequate nutrition, safe drinking water and good sanitary environment. Soubbontina (2004), while referring to the UNDP (2001) report on human development, classified low health as an aspect of human poverty which manifest in low life expectance, high infant mortality rate and small percentage of people with access to health services and safe water.

2.4 POVERTY ALLEVIATION PROGRAMMES AND ITS IMPACT ON HOUSEHOLDS

Poverty alleviation is number one goal amongst the United Nations Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) set out to be achieved by the year 2015. In pursuance of these set goals, concerted efforts have been made by both governmental and non governmental agencies to palliate the string of poverty through poverty alleviation programmes. The goal is alleviation, because complete eradication of poverty is considered not feasible. Ideally, programmes aimed at alleviating poverty should go beyond purely economic ventures to include socio-psychological and
political dimensions of existence. Nwodu (2007) described it as deliberate efforts by various levels of government, governmental agencies, donor agencies, non-governmental organization, community based organizations and other bodies concerned with development intervention to initiate, articulate and execute programmes aimed at empowering greater percentage of the masses economically, intellectually, culturally, socially, politically and information wise.

Poverty alleviation efforts at the state level has laid emphasis on the achievement of over-all economic growth and massive public interventions which is aimed at improving the economic status, health, education, nutrition and social capacity of the poor. At every regime in Nigeria, starting from Gowon’s administration in the 1970’s, there has always been one poverty alleviation program or the other. The National Accelerated Food Production Program which was introduced in 1972 with the aim of ensuring abundant food failed to achieve the objective of the program which was food security. This is because more money was spent on food importation as opposed to producing it locally thereby limiting employment opportunities for the poor.

The Operation Feed the Nation (OFN) programme introduced in 1976 was equally a failure as there was a wide gap between the policy of the program and its implementation. Other poverty alleviation programmes such as Green Revolution (under Shehu Shagari administration), National Directorate of Employment (NDE), Directorate for food, Rood and Rural Infrastructure (DFRI), Universal Basic Education (UBE), Mass Transit Programmes, National Poverty Eradication Programmes, Community Banks/Micro Finance Institutions and a host of others, had similar fate as they failed to meet the needs of the poor. Instead they were seen as opportunities for those at the helm of affairs to better their lots. The Micro Finance
institutions have stringent conditions attached to the loan facilities and this makes it difficult for the poor in whose interest the loan facilities is established to access same. The Universal Basic Education is in principle free, but in practical terms, it requires a lot of personal funding. As a result, poor people are unable to meet up with financial requirements. Apart from the financial involvement, the curriculum of education is also faulty and as such, not tailored to the needs of the majority of the poor. This is evidenced in the fact that poverty index, instead of decreasing (as a result of these programmes) had continued to record steady increase in Nigeria (Nwodu 2007). Furthermore, while making reference to DFID’s report on the level of poverty globally, the same scholar stated that 70 percent of Nigerians live on less than US$1.00 purchasing power parity and they are, consequently classified as poor. This yardstick of measuring poverty is no longer in tune with the current realities due to inflation. This was underscored by Nnamani (2006) when he stated that the global measuring rod for poverty has turned a pipe dream, and so we must strive to cross the threshold. In recognition of this, the United Nations (2008) endorsed the World Bank 2008 revised poverty line from US$1.00 to US$1.25 per person per day based on 2005 parity purchasing power (Ravallion and Chen 2008). This further increases the number of people living below the poverty line.

The poor in their respective households have continued to survive using all sorts of strategies. This is more so as the poverty alleviation programmes introduced to palliate the string of poverty failed to achieve the objectives. This is probably due to mainly incompetence on the part of those implementing the programmes. However, knowledge gap exists as to how effective and sustainable these coping strategies are for purposes of actualizing development objectives. This is where the crux of this study lies.
2.5 URBAN HOUSEHOLD POVERTY COPING STRATEGIES

Poverty has been observed to be endemic in Nigeria with almost 70 percent of the population living below poverty line. Nnamani (2006) stated that Enugu State has its own share of the problem as available data shows the incidence of poverty in the state to be almost 60 percent. The poverty of households according to Rakodi (2002) quoted in Sujuwade (2008) relates to the individual household resources endowment, organizational capacity to manage and develop its resources, its labour force, position, the available coping mechanism and the external contingencies affecting it. Household coping strategies have to do with implicit principles that guide household members when seeking household goods for coping with urban life (Hossain 2005). Urban poverty as a multi-faceted concept is characterized among other things by lack of choice of alternative strategies for coping with urban life. In order to ensure that this choice of alternative strategies always exists, urban households seek to mobilize available resources and opportunities so as to combine them into livelihood strategy. Hossain (2005) described such livelihood strategy as a mixture of labour market involvement; savings, borrowing and investment; productive and reproductive activities; income, asset pooling and social networking.

The livelihood concept of urban poverty recognizes the need for individuals and household members to engage in multiple economic activities: rely on material and non-material assets as well as available natural resources to meet their needs and improve their well being. Urban household poverty coping activities are categorized into seven major leads namely; Economic activities, Expenditure and Purchase pattern, Shelter and Environmental Services, Social Services, Rural-Urban Ties and social network. Sujuwade (2008) observed that Economic activities form the basis of household strategy to which other strategies like urban food production, maintenance
of ties with rural areas, decision about access to education, housing and participation in social network, may be added.

The urban household coping strategies grouped under Economic activities range from involvement of more household members in urban informal sector employment, (such as construction work, vending, driving and transport work, factory work) to use of domestic spaces for production and reproduction of income generating activities. These are done in order to enhance the income generated in the household. The income so generated is prioritized in meeting the basic needs such as education, health care, and clothing. Hossain (2005) shared similar view when he pointed out that as most of the earnings of the poor are used for food and shelter, very small portion of their earning is spent on clothing, medicine, education and other incidentals.
REFERENCES


World Bank (2000). *International Poverty Line*

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

3.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

The data for this study was collected using multiple stage sample design of both purposive and random sampling techniques. The purposive technique is applied in selecting the neighbourhoods to be studied while random sampling technique is used to select the localities from where the neighbourhoods of study are chosen. This is done by listing localities in the high density populated areas of Enugu Metropolis. The choice of localities in high density populated areas of Enugu Metropolis is informed by the fact that majority of people domicile in high density areas are mostly the poor. From the listed high density populated areas, three localities are randomly selected. From each locality, a neighbourhood is purposively selected. Households located in each of the neighbourhoods of study are also randomly sampled.

Data was generated by survey research method. Questionnaire designed for this study (Appendix 1) was administered by this researcher to the selected households residing in the selected neighbourhoods. The questionnaire were complemented with direct observation and unstructured interviews conducted by the researcher. Analysis of the information gathered was made and extrapolated to the rest of the neighbourhoods in the study areas.

The choice of this methodology is informed by the fact that this research was conducted on the people’s way of living. Secondly, the data are generated through information obtained directly from the respondents. Thirdly, not all sections of the selected Neighbourhood are inhabited by the poor.
3.2 POPULATION OF STUDY

This consists of family units residing in the selected neighbourhoods namely Obiagu (in Ogui New Layout), Udi Siding/Ngenevu (in Ogbete locality) and Camp 1 (in Iva valley) all located within Enugu North Local Government Area.

According to the National Population Commission Report (2009), the census figure for Enugu North Local Government Area based on 2006 National Population Census is 242,140 made up of 118,895 and 123,245 males and females respectively.

The localities/communities that make up Enugu North Local Government which produced the above census figure are: Iva Valley, Government Reserved Area, New Heaven, Asata, Ogbete, Ogui New Layout, and Independence Layout. However, the census figure is yet to be broken down so as to show the population of individual communities/localities that make up Enugu North Local Government Area.

In the absence of breakdown of 2006 census figure showing the population of communities/localities from where the neighbourhoods of study were selected, the entire Enugu North Local Government Area was taken as population of the study. The sample of study is worked out based on the total population of 2006 census figure for Enugu North Local Government Area as reported by National Population Commission (2009). Below is the 2006 National Population Census Figure for Enugu North Local Government Area.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Geographical Area</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Enugu North L.G.A</td>
<td>118895</td>
<td>123245</td>
<td>242140</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 3.2: Showing the 2006 population figure of Enugu North Local Government Area.*
3.3 SAMPLE OF STUDY

This consists of three neighbourhoods in three different localities selected from amongst the population of the study. The neighbourhoods are Obiagu in Ogui New Layout, Camp 1 in Iva Valley, Udi Siding/Ngenevu in Ogbete.

3.4 SAMPLING UNITS SELECTION

Multiple-stage sampling design is used to select sampling units. In the first stage, the sampling units that are selected for study from entire Enugu North Local Government Area are: Ogui New Layout, Ogbete, and Iva Valley. The second stage sampling units are drawn from the individual units earlier selected in the first stage. The sampling units of the second stage are Obiagu, Udi Siding/Ngenevu, and Camp 1. The third stage is the selection of the actual sample units. This consists of household members from the selected neighbourhoods. These sampling units under this stage are the heads of households and/or their spouse.

3.5 SAMPLING SELECTION TECHNIQUE

The study adopts both stratified random and purposive sampling techniques. This is done by first of all listing only the names of the densely populated localities of Enugu North Local Government Area bearing in mind that such localities have higher concentration of poor people. From amongst the list, three localities namely Ogui New Layout, Ogbete and Iva Valley were randomly selected. From each locality, a neighbourhood is purposively selected for the study.

3.6 SAMPLE SIZE DETERMINATION

The minimum sample size for the study is determined using Yaro Yamani Formula where sample size “S” is

\[ S = \frac{N}{1 + N (E)^2} \]
Where

\[ N = \text{total population of Enugu North Local Government Area} \]
\[ I = \text{a constant} \]
\[ E = \text{allowable error } 10/100 \ (10\%) = 0.1 \]

Since the 2006 National Population Figure showing the break down of population figure into localities is yet to be released, the sample of study is worked out based on the total population of Enugu North Local Government Area (LGA).

Total population of Enugu North LGA =242140. Therefore sample size

\[
S = \frac{242140}{1 + 242140 (0.01)^2} \\
= \frac{242140}{1 + 242140 (0.01)} \\
= \frac{242140}{1 + 2421.4} \\
= \frac{242140}{2422.4} \\
= 99.95
\]

Therefore, the sample size is approximately 100 Households.

The sample size from each neighbourhood was drawn on equal proportion since the available population figure is not yet broken down in their respective localities.

### 3.7 METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION

The study is based on primary and secondary data. The secondary data was generated through review of related written works while primary data was generated through the instrumentality of combination of both open-ended and close-ended questionnaire survey. (see Appendix 1) The questionnaires were in two sections. Section A was on the demographics of the residents who responded to the questionnaire. Section B focused on data generation with respect to the strategies used by the sampled households in coping with urban poverty.
3.8 METHOD OF DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

The data was analyzed and presented using texts, frequency tables and percentages.

3.9 HYPOTHESES TESTING TECHNIQUE:

The hypotheses were tested using the statistical tools of Analysis of Variance with F Ratio and Correlation Coefficient with t statistics. The choice of the statistical tool of Correlation Coefficient was informed by the fact that the data generated were expressed in frequencies. This view was expressed by Barrow (2006) in his efforts to explain when to use what statistical tools. The statistical tool of Analysis of Variance was equally considered appropriate in view of the fact that the study involved a computation of multivariate analysis. There were also more than two groups involved in the study and it required that the degree to which one group differs from the other in terms of their poverty coping strategies as dependent variables should be computed.
REFERENCES


CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Ninety respondents, made up of 40 males and 50 females were interviewed. Data on the gender, social/demographic, economic characteristics of respondents as well as their household poverty coping strategies were collected from households surveyed. The results are summarized in the frequency Tables presented in this section.

Table 4.1: Sex Distribution of Respondents Based on Neighbourhoods

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex of Respondents</th>
<th>Number of households surveyed in the Neighbourhood</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Udi Siding/ Ngenevu</td>
<td>Obiagu Camp1</td>
<td>Iva Valley</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>12 (13.3%)</td>
<td>12 (13.3%)</td>
<td>16 (17.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>16 (17.7%)</td>
<td>20 (22.2%)</td>
<td>14 (15.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>28 (31%)</td>
<td>32 (36%)</td>
<td>30 (33%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, September 2009.  
This Table showed that generally, there are more female than the male respondents who participated in this survey. However, there are more male respondents than female respondents from Iva Valley neighbourhood.

4.2 SOCIAL/DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

Information on Social/Demographic characteristics of Respondents and their households are presented in Tables 4.2.1 to 4.2.4. Specifically, they cover their marital status, age distribution, number of persons in the household, and their respective highest formal educational attainment.
From the data, 69 (77%) of the respondents are married, 10 of them are single while 11 are widowed.

The age range of respondents was 15 to 61 years with a mean of 40.8 years. 36.7% of the respondents fall within the age range of 40 – 49 years; 30%, representing equal number of respondents from each Neighbourhood aged between 30 – 39 years. Three of the respondents are below the majority age of 18 years.
Table 4.2.3: Number of households and persons in the Households

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of persons in a household</th>
<th>Number of households surveyed in the Neighbourhood</th>
<th>Total households</th>
<th>Total persons</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Udi Siding/Ngenevu</td>
<td>Obiagu Camp I</td>
<td>Iva Valley</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey September 2009

The average number of persons per household is approximately six (6) persons per household. Households of 41 respondents were found to exceed this average number and ranged from 7 to 10. Household of 14 respondents were 6 in number, while 35 households were below 6 in number. No person was residing alone even among those whose marital status were single.

Table 4.2.4: Highest formal Educational Attainment of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Highest formal Educational Attainment</th>
<th>Number of households surveyed in the Neighbourhood</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Udi Siding/Ngenevu</td>
<td>Obiagu Camp I</td>
<td>Iva Valley</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey September 2009.

Majority of the respondents had secondary education (36.7%) and tertiary educations (27.8%) as their highest formal educational attainments. 28.9% have primary education as their highest educational attainment.
4.3 ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

Data were gathered on the primary occupation of respondents, their respective household monthly income, average daily expenditure on feeding, adequacy of the household feeding, type of accommodation with its toilet facilities, access to good water resources and the result are as stated in the tables below:

Table 4.3.1 Primary Occupation of Respondents Based on their Residential Neighbourhoods

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Number of households</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Udi Siding/ Ngenevu</td>
<td>Obiagu Camp1</td>
<td>Iva Valley</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full time trading</td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil/Public Service</td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Artisan</td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unskilled labourer</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>28</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey September 2009

The result shows that 38% of respondents are in civil/public service. This was followed by those who are trading (30%), then the artisans and finally the labourers. With respect to unskilled labour, respondents from Camp 1/Iva Valley topped the list with 4.4 percent while 2.2 percent come from Obiagu and Udi siding respectively.

Average Monthly Income of Households:

The household average monthly income, based on the data, was calculated to be ₦19,250.00. Households of 26 respondents (Udi Siding/Ngenevu 3, Obiagu 5, Camp 1 Iva Valley 18) earn less than ₦10,000.00 respectively in a month. Households of 22 respondents (Udi Siding/Ngenevu 8, Obiagu 7, Camp 1 Iva Valley 7) earn between ₦10,000.00 and ₦20,000.00. Households of 29 respondents (Udi Siding/Ngenevu 11, Obiagu 15 and Iva Valley 3) earn between ₦21,000.00 to ₦30,000.00 while
household of 13 respondents, 6 from Udi Siding 5 from Obiagu and 2 from Iva Valley earn above N31,000.00.

### Table 4.3.2 Frequency Distribution of Respondents’ Average Household Monthly Income amongst the Three Neighbourhoods

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Average Monthly Income (Naira)</th>
<th>Number of households surveyed in the Neighbourhood</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Udi Siding/ Obiagu Camp1 Iva Valley</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than &lt; N10,000.00</td>
<td>3 5 18</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>29.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N10,000.00 to N20,000.00</td>
<td>8 7 7</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>24.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N21,000.00 to N30,000.00</td>
<td>11 15 3</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>32.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N31,000.00 and above</td>
<td>6 5 2</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>28 32 30</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Field Survey, September 2009*

### Table 4.3.3 Distribution of Respondent’s Household Daily Expenditure on Feeding

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Daily expenditure on Food</th>
<th>Number of households surveyed in the Neighbourhood</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Udi Siding/ Obiagu Camp1 Iva Valley</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N1,000.00 or less</td>
<td>6 8 11</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>27.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N1,100.00 to N2,000.00</td>
<td>14 14 16</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>48.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N2,100.00 to N3,000.00</td>
<td>6 6 2</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>15.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N3,100.00 to N4,000</td>
<td>- 2 -</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N4,100 and above</td>
<td>2 2 1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Field survey, September, 2009*
The household average daily expenditure on food amongst the three neighbourhoods is calculated to be ₦1,763.89. Household of the majority of respondents spend between ₦1,000.00 and ₦2,000.00; while 25 household live on less than ₦1,000.00. The households of 21 respondents spend above ₦2,000.00 on daily feeding.

Households of respondents from Camp 1 Iva Valley spend the least amount on feeding while those in Obiagu spend the highest amount in feeding persons in the household.

Table 4:3:4 Information on the Adequacy or otherwise of Respondent’s Household Feeding.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Household feeding</th>
<th>Number of households surveyed In the Neighbourhood</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Udi Siding/Ngenevu</td>
<td>Obiagu Camp1</td>
<td>Iva Valley</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adequate Yes</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inadequate No</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The data above show the adequacy or otherwise of respondents’ household feeding. More than half of the respondents stated that their respective household’s feeding was inadequate. Amongst them, respondents from Udi Siding/Ngenevu numbered highest, followed by respondents from Obiagu and the least were the respondents from Camp 1/Iva Valley.

4.3.5 Type of Accommodation Occupied by Respondents

Data on the type of accommodation occupied by the respondents from the three neighbourhoods of study were generated and presented in the table below.
Table 4.3.5: Type of Accommodation Occupied and Toilet facilities installed in the accommodation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number of households surveyed</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In the Neighbourhood</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Udi Siding/ Ngenevu</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ubiagwu Camp1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Batcher</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 – 2 Room public yard</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apartment</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self contained, Bungalow</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Toilet Facilities</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Open toilet</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>26.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pit toilet</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>28.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water closet</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>44.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, September 2009

Table 4.3.5 above showed information on the type of accommodation occupied by respondents in their respective neighbourhoods of residence as well as type of toilet facilities available to them.

Household members of the majority of respondents from the three neighbourhoods are accommodated in one- or two-room within public compound, with shared toilet facilities, while household members of 6 respondents (4 from Iva Valley and 2 from Udi Siding/Ngenevu) are accommodated in batchers. The number of respondents whose households live in apartments was 10; while 2 live in a self-contained bungalow.

The highest number of respondents without access to modern toilet facilities resides in Camp 1/Iva Valley. This was followed by respondents from Udi Siding/Ngenevu and the least, from Obiagu.
4.3.6 Main Source of Water Supply to the Respondent’s Household

The table below provides information on the sources of water supply to the respondents and the percentage of them that relied on each as their major source of water supply.

Table 4.3.6 Respondents’ major sources of water supply in their neighbourhoods.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sources of water supply</th>
<th>Number of households surveyed in the Neighbourhood</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Udi Siding/ Ngenevu</td>
<td>Obiaagu Camp1</td>
<td>Iva Valley</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tap water</td>
<td>4 (4%)</td>
<td>24 (27%)</td>
<td>27 (30%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water vendors</td>
<td>2 (2%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harvested rainfall</td>
<td>3 (3%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shallow well</td>
<td>4 (4%)</td>
<td>7 (8%)</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stream</td>
<td>15 (15%)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source; Field Survey September 2009.

The data above indicates that out of the 61.1 percent of the respondents that have access to tap water, respondents from Udi Siding/Ngenevu are the least. However, over half of the respondents from that Neighbourhood rely on stream as their major source of water supply, while an insignificant number from Obiagu depends on stream water. 12 percent of the respondents (Obiagu 8%, Udi Siding/Ngenevu 4%) depend on shallow well water, 5.5 percent on harvested rainfall and 3.3 percent on water vendors.

4.4 Information on Households Poverty Coping Strategies Based on the Gender of the Heads of Household

Data were generated on the use of the under listed household urban poverty coping strategies amongst the neighbourhoods of study and the results are provided in the tables that follows. The household coping strategies on which data were generated
are: Commercialization of private means of transportation, urban and rural food production, livestock rearing, Petty trading, street hawking, micro financing, and social networking.

Furthermore, information was generated on the household poverty coping strategies as it affect access to health care services and education of the household members in the three neighbourhoods. The findings are stated in the tables below:

Table 4:4:1 Distribution of Healthcare Facilities utilized by Respondents’ Household members and Reasons for choice of place

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Health Care Facilities</th>
<th>Number of households surveyed in the Neighbourhood</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Udi Siding/ Ngenevu</td>
<td>Obiagu Camp1</td>
<td>Iva Valley</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospital</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chemist</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Herbal Medicine man</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self medication</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reasons for Choice of place of Medicare

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason for Choice of Medicare</th>
<th>Number of respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cost of treatment</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proximity</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effective cure</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of access to hospital</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey September 2009

The data (see Table 4:4:1 above) shows that the highest number of respondents (45.5%) seek medical care for their household members from chemists, hospital 39 %, while the least was self medication (6.7 %). Top in the frequency of hospital patronage are respondents from Obiagu neighbourhood, while respondents from Camp 1/Iva Valley and Udi Siding/Ngenevu respectively frequent chemists most often.
Major consideration amongst respondents for choice of place of medical treatment for households’ member was the cost of treatment. 21% choose the place because of the close proximity of the place of residence, while 7% take into consideration where to get effective cure for household members. The 7 percent that go to other places other than hospitals, do so due to lack of access to hospitals.

Table 4:4:2  Type of School Attended by Respondents Household Members

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of school attendance</th>
<th>Number of households surveyed in the Neighbourhood</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Udi Siding/ Ngenevu</td>
<td>Obiagu Camp1</td>
<td>Iva Valley</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public school</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private school</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No formal school</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey September 2009.

The data presented in table 4:4:2 indicates that majority of respondents send their household children to public schools, whereas 22 percent of the respondents send theirs to private school. The 6.6 percent of the respondents whose household members did not attend any formal school are from neighbourhoods of Obiagu and Camp 1/Iva Valley.

4.5. Relationship between the Gender of Head of Household and the Use of a particular Poverty Alleviation Coping Strategy

The data generated on the use of some urban poverty coping strategies based on the gender of the head of household surveyed, according the neighbourhoods is shown in Table 4.5 below.
Table 4.5: Showing the distribution of Gender of Head of Household and the Frequency of use of the particular poverty alleviation coping Strategy by Neighbourhood

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coping Strategy</th>
<th>Number of households in the Neighbourhood using the strategy</th>
<th>Number of households in the Neighbourhood NOT using the strategy</th>
<th>Ratio of Users and none users</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Udi siding</td>
<td>Obiagu</td>
<td>Iva Valley</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M  F</td>
<td>M  F</td>
<td>M  F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commercialization of private vehicle</td>
<td>7 - 9</td>
<td>5 - 5</td>
<td>16 3 11 14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban Subsistent food crop farming</td>
<td>2 7 2 2 10 6</td>
<td>10 9 10 18 6 8</td>
<td>29:61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural farming</td>
<td>1 2 4 7 3 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Livestock Rearing</td>
<td>3 7 2 7 5 10</td>
<td>9 9 10 13 11 4</td>
<td>34:56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Petty trading</td>
<td>3 8 5 8 1 6</td>
<td>9 8 7 12 15 8</td>
<td>31:59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Street Hawking</td>
<td>2 16 5 7 5 10</td>
<td>7 13 11 9</td>
<td>40:50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of microfinance loan</td>
<td>3 2 5 1 - 9</td>
<td>14 7 19 14 14</td>
<td>13:77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social networking</td>
<td>12 16 10 15 14</td>
<td>- 2 1 -</td>
<td>87:03</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Data show that 21 male heads of household deployed their private means of transportation to part time commercial use to generate additional income. It is pertinent to note that these ones involve the use of motorbikes only. Those who have bicycles in addition to one respondent who owns a motor car did not commercialize theirs. None of the female head of household was found using this strategy.

Social networking is a strategy most commonly used by both male and female heads of households in this survey to alleviate the effects of poverty. This is followed in frequency by street hawking. The use of microfinance to alleviate poverty is more among the male heads of household than the female heads of house holds. It is the least strategy used by all respondents.

Street hawking and Petty trading appear to be used simultaneously as urban poverty coping strategies. Most heads of households that employ the strategy of street hawking usually send out their dependants/children to hawk using their petty trading
posts as base to go out hawking. Additionally there were those who hawk items they produce in their farms or home as they do not have stalls where they could sell these items.

4.6 Statistical Tests of Hypotheses

The data presented in the tables above were analyzed using Analysis of Variance and Correlation Coefficient. The two research hypotheses were tested with the statistical tools of F – ratio, and T- statistic. The two hypotheses are:

1. There is no significant difference in household urban poverty coping strategies amongst the different Neighbourhoods in Enugu Metropolis.

2. There is no association between the gender of heads of households and households’ urban poverty coping strategies

The choice of Analysis of Variance for the test of hypothesis number one is considered apt due to the following reasons:

- The neighbourhoods of study as independent variables exceed two. In this study they are three.

- The test is on the significant difference amongst the three groups as it relates to the household use of any urban poverty coping strategy. These strategies are the dependent variables.

- The study involves multiple variables at a time.

The use of Correlation Coefficient (r) and t statistics for the test of hypothesis number two is considered appropriate as the test focuses on relationship existing between two variables. The two variables in this case are the gender of the head of household and the household coping strategies.
NULL HYPOTHESIS I \( H_0 : \mu = \mu = \mu = 0 \): There is no significant difference in households’ poverty coping strategies amongst the different neighbourhoods in Enugu metropolis.

ALTERNATIVE HYPOTHESIS \( H_1 : \mu = \mu = \mu \neq 0 \): There is a significant difference in households’ poverty coping strategies amongst neighbourhoods in Enugu metropolis.

4.6.1 Computation of the Test Statistics using Analysis of Variance.

Eight (8) household urban poverty coping strategies were sampled amongst the three neighbourhoods of study and the results are worked out in the table provided below.

Table 4.6.1: Computation of the Test Statistics using Analysis of Variance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coping strategies.</th>
<th>Number of households surveyed in the Neighbourhood</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Udi Siding/ Ngenevu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X</td>
<td>X^2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commercialization of Private Means of Transportation</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban Subsistent food crop farming</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farming in Rural Area</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Livestock Rearing</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Petty Trading</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Street Hawking</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Micro Finance Loan</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Networking</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Mean \( \frac{91}{8} = \frac{1493}{11.3}, \frac{94}{8} = \frac{1548}{11.7}, \frac{89}{8} = \frac{1525}{11.1} \) | N = 8 \times 3 = 24
i) \( X_{\text{total}} = 91 + 94 + 89 = 274 \)

ii) \( X^2_{\text{total}} = 1493 + 1548 + 1525 = 4566 \)

iii) Determination of Total sum squares (\( \Sigma x^2 \)):

\[
\Sigma X^2_{\text{total}} = X^2 - (X)^2 = 4566 - (274)^2 = \frac{4556 - 3128.16}{24} = 1437.84
\]

iv) Determination of Inter between group sum squares \( \Sigma x^2_{b} = 1.45 \)

v) Determination of within Group Sum Squares (\( \Sigma x^2_{w} \)) = 1436.26

vi) Determination of Inter between group variance \( (S^2_{b}) = 0.72 \)

vii) Determination of within group variance \( (S^2_{w}) = 68.39 \)

viii) Determination of ratio of variance (\( F \)) = 0.01

ix) Degrees of freedom (\( d \)) = \( \frac{2}{21} \)

### 4.6.2 F Ratio Table

The computed data is provided in the F ratio table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Degree of Freedom</th>
<th>Variance Estimate</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>(3 - 1) = 2</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>1436.26</td>
<td>(24 - 3) = 21</td>
<td>68.39</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1437.71</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The critical value of \( F \) at 2 and 21 degrees of freedom and 5% level of significant = 3.47. The value of test statistic compared to the critical value of \( F \) above, is smaller ie 0.01. Therefore the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in household urban poverty coping strategies amongst different neighbourhoods in Enugu metropolis is rejected, and the alternative hypothesis is substituted, showing
that there is significant difference in household urban poverty coping strategies amongst the three neighbourhoods studied.

4:6:3 Test of Hypothesis 2 using Correlation Coefficient

There is no association between gender of household head and household urban poverty coping strategies.

Null hypothesis: \( H_0 : \ P = 0 \)

Alternative hypothesis: \( H_1 : \ P \neq 0 \)

The above hypothesis is tested using correlation coefficient which is computed based on the data provided in the table 4:6:3

Table 4:6:3 Calculation of Correlation Coefficient.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coping Strategies</th>
<th>Male (x)</th>
<th>Female (y)</th>
<th>X²</th>
<th>Y²</th>
<th>XY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Commercialization of Private Means of Transportation</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>441</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban subsistent food crop farming</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farming in Rural Area</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Livestock Rearing</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>576</td>
<td>240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Petty Trading</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>484</td>
<td>198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Street Hawking</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>784</td>
<td>336</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Micro Finance Loan</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Networking</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1369</td>
<td>2500</td>
<td>1850</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sum (Σ)</strong></td>
<td><strong>8</strong></td>
<td><strong>123</strong></td>
<td><strong>151</strong></td>
<td><strong>2531</strong></td>
<td><strong>4659</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Calculation of Correlation Coefficient (r) using the above data

\[
r = \frac{N \Sigma xy - \Sigma x \Sigma y}{\sqrt{(N \Sigma x^2 - (\Sigma x)^2)(N \Sigma y^2 - (\Sigma y)^2)}}
\]

\[
r = \frac{8 \times 2954 - 123 \times 151}{\sqrt{(8 \times 2531 - 123^2)(8 \times 4659 - 151^2)}}
\]

\[
r = \frac{23632 - 18573}{\sqrt{(20248 - 15129)(37272 - 22801)}}
\]
The value of (r) indicates that there is a positive correlation between the gender of household head and the household urban poverty coping strategies.

To test the null hypothesis that there is no association between the gender of the household head and the household urban poverty coping strategies using t statistics at 5% level of significant and 6 degrees of freedom.

\[ H_0 : P = 0 \]
\[ H_1 : P \neq 0 \]

\[ t = \frac{r \sqrt{n - 2}}{\sqrt{1 - r^2}} = \frac{0.58 \sqrt{8 - 2}}{\sqrt{1 - 0.58^2}} = \frac{0.58 \times 2.449}{\sqrt{1 - 0.3364}} = \frac{1.420}{0.8146} = 1.73 \]

Test value = 1.73

Critical t value at 6 degrees of freedom 5% level of significant is 1.94

Comparing the values of t test 1.73 with the values of critical t 1.94, one sees that value of calculated t test < value of critical t and so the null hypothesis that there is no association between the gender of household head and the household urban poverty coping strategies is rejected. The alternative hypothesis that there is an association between the gender of households’ heads and the household urban poverty coping strategies is substituted.

(See details of working in the Appendix.)
4.7 DISCUSSIONS ON THE NATURE, DIMENSIONS OF URBAN POVERTY AND HOUSEHOLD URBAN POVERTY COPING STRATEGIES

The study focused on urban poverty amongst residents of three neighbourhoods in Enugu metropolis with a view to finding out their poverty coping strategies and the relationship of these strategies to the gender of the head of household. Part of the limitation of this study was the unwillingness on the part of respondents to give full disclosure of the information on their coping strategy, probably because such strategies were either unpopular or unlawful. They believe that their financial status/income was a secret to be guided from outsiders. The study confirmed that there was poverty amongst the three neighbourhoods studied. However, the nature and dimensions of poverty vary from one Neighbourhood to another. The urban poverty coping strategies adopted by household was influenced by the opportunities prevalent in each Neighbourhood. This study showed that the household urban poverty coping strategies amongst these three neighbourhoods had implications for development.

4.7.1 Nature and Dimensions Of Poverty Amongst The Household in the three Neighbourhoods

Relative income poverty was found to be highest amongst respondents from Camp 1/Iva Valley although it exists among the respondents from the three neighbourhoods. 20% of the respondents whose household income are below the calculated average income of ₦19,250.00 reside in Camp 1/Iva Valley (see table 4:3:2.) Also Camp 1/Iva Valley had the least percentage of respondents amongst the three Neighbourhood whose household monthly income exceed ₦30,000.00. This aspect of poverty is in line with Anugwom (2001) description of urban poverty, as relative in nature and characterized by absence of higher and more reliable incomes amongst others. The
relative low income was associated with the primary occupation of the respondent’s heads of households.

4.7.2 Occupational Poverty:

Civil/public servants constitute 38 percent of the respondents while 9 percent were unskilled labourers. The income of the unskilled respondents, in most cases is low, irregular, and unreliable. There is no job security for this class of labourers. Respondents under this category are more amongst those from Camp 1/Iva Valley than in two other neighbourhoods.

Table 4:3:1 shows that Obiagu has the highest number of respondents whose primary occupation is civil service followed by Obiagu and Camp 1/Iva Valley in that order. However, these civil servants were junior staff; and their earnings were in most cases, below the poverty line because of the salary structure of the civil service. This forms part of occupational poverty. Sujuwade (2008) in his vivid picture of urban poverty included low quality civil and public service amongst the indicators of urban poverty.

4.7.3 Inadequate Food Intake of Household Members

Although respondents from Obiagu and Udi Siding/Ngenevu earn income relatively higher than the respondents from Camp 1/Iva Valley, cases of inadequate feeding of household members were more amongst them compared to the Camp1/Iva Valley with less income (See table 4:3:4.) The fact was that their relative higher income was not enough to purchase enough food to meet their basic energy requirements. Sixteen out of thirty respondents from Camp 1/Iva Valley engage in urban subsistent food crop farming. This was probably because of geographical location of Iva Valley with more farmlands compared to the Udi siding and Obiagu that are older and more built up settlements. Another factor that might have
influenced respondents from Camp 1/Iva Valley to adopt this strategy is the proximity of Agricultural establishments located in the geographical area.

4.7.4 Access to Potable Water

Lack of access to adequate potable water supply was observed most amongst the respondents from Udi Siding/Ngenevu as 26 percent of respondents from that Neighbourhood lack access to potable water. Their major sources of water supply ranged from small stream to shallow well water, harvested rain water and water vendors. Poor supply of potable water would mean spending the merger resources in purchasing water or taking the risk of drinking potentially contaminated water that may cause water borne disease such as typhoid fever. A vicious cycle of ill-health, wasted finances and more poverty would result.

4.7.5 Housing Conditions in the Neighbourhoods

Generally, most residential accommodation in these three neighbourhoods were sub-standard accommodation and dilapidated by age and lack of maintenance of the buildings. There were large numbers of persons accommodated per unit. This notwithstanding, they attempt increasing accommodation space by erecting many unplanned, uncoordinated, and temporary structures within the approved set-backs in between the buildings, thus making the environment to be further congested. The temporary structures known as batcher are characterized by absence of modern toilet facilities. Some of these batchers were rented out as sole accommodation space to its occupants. This explains why there are relatively high number of households from Camp 1/Iva Valley who are making use of open toilet system. This was followed by those from Udi Siding/Ngenevu and the least was from Obiagu.
4.7.6 Human Poverty – Education

Level of educational attainment by the respondents from the three neighbourhoods was high at 64.5 % made up of secondary education (36.7%) and tertiary educations (27.8%) as their highest formal educational attainments. Yet they have poor income. This is because the education they had was not functional enough to make them self reliant in employment. They ended up being unemployed or under-employed. Again the wage structure in the civil/public service was poor and was even worse among those employed in the private sector of the economy. Hence high formal education per se was not a guarantee that one would not reside in poor Neighbourhood.

4.8 Implications Of The Use Of Some Urban Poverty Coping Strategies by Households on Human Development.

Social networking was a coping strategy used by 87 of the 90 respondents. This strategy was effective because the social group always responded to adversity of financial and social deprivations. This was most important in this country where there is no formal social security for its citizens. This aspect should be encouraged as it facilitated in human development.

Due to the inability of some respondents to secure a decent accommodation, they build temporary structures without specification and necessary approval in unauthorized locations. Such temporal structures are usually without facilities like modern toilet, electricity, and water supply. In such locations like Camp 1/Iva Valley and Udi siding, where the household members of 6.6 percent of the respondents are
accommodated in batchers, modern toilet facilities are lacking. People defecate indiscriminately in the gutter, farm lands and any available secluded locations. This has the effect of polluting the environment and contaminating their sources of water, and vegetables cultivated in the gardens.

The poorly constructed structures go with poor ventilation exposing the inhabitants the detrimental effects of poor ventilation. Overcrowding in the rooms would facilitate spread of infection via inhalation of droplets.
REFERENCES


CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1 SUMMARY

A field survey on the nature and dimensions of poverty prevalent amongst households from three selected neighbourhoods of Enugu North metropolis was conducted. Also to be determined was the strategies the households in these neighbourhoods use for purposes of coping with urban poverty and whether the adopted household poverty coping strategies had any relationship with the gender of the head of the household.

Ninety households, populated by 543 persons, were sampled and the data generated were analyzed with the statistical tools of analyses of variance (ANOVAs) and correlation coefficient. Findings were that households adopt multiple strategies simultaneously, and the most common strategy adopted was social networking. The choice of poverty coping strategy adopted by each household was influenced by the gender of the head of the household, the available resources and opportunities available in the Neighbourhood.

The two null hypotheses; (a) that there is no significant difference in household coping strategies amongst the three neighbourhoods; and that (b) there is no association between the gender of the head of the household and household urban poverty coping strategies were tested with F ratio and T statistics and both were rejected. The alternative hypotheses were substituted.

5.2 RECOMMENDATIONS

Urban poverty was found in these studied metropolises. Man being a rational and resourceful species invented ways to cope with poverty. Regrettably, some of the coping strategies have negative implication for human development. Living in indecent and congested accommodation for example, exposes people to the risk of
infection. The use of poor quality water in place of potable water has similar effect. Sickness is a clutch on development. In moments of sickness, earned resources man-hours are wasted thereby forestalling development. We should take measures to encourage the positive ones and discourage adoption of ones with negative impact on individuals or the society.

The researcher recommends that facilities such as mass housing estate be established by government and private developers. Mortgage facilities/loans should be made easier to access especially by the poor in order to help prevent the poor housing conditions revealed by this study. The studied population used social networking to cope with urban poverty. Government at all tiers should set up social security services for its citizens. This will be helping the people do more in this regard.

More than half of (38 percent) of the respondents that were employed in both the public and private sectors of the economy still live below the poverty line. Their earnings were not enough to provide for their basic needs. This was so notwithstanding the introduction of minimum wage policy. The study therefore recommends that a national minimum wage should be such as to be able to sustain living above the poverty level. Such national minimum wage should be applicable to employees in all sectors of economy and should be reviewed upwards from time to time to reflect the current prevalent economic situation and purchasing power of the national currency.

Although the level of education of the respondents was found to be high, many respondents were still not gainfully employed. This raises the issues as to the quality of education received by the respondents. The study recommends that formal education of citizens should be made functional so that people will be able to practice
on their own the skills and knowledge they acquired through education. To this end, it is recommended that the government should provide the enabling environment and legal framework needed to make the education of the people functional. Schools should change their curriculum to achieve this objective. Furthermore, opportunities should be provided for all to have functional education as it is fundamental to poverty alleviation through actualization of one’s full potentials and further development of the larger society. Government and the organized private sector should create employment opportunities, so that graduates of these schools would find jobs suitable and commensurate to their educational training.

Healthcare facilities and services should be made available and affordable to the people to reduce the incidence of patronizing quacks and self medication. This is very important if it is considered that 56 percent of the respondents who sought medical care in places other than hospitals, did so because they were unable to afford the cost of treatment in hospitals.

Ensuring food security is necessary to satisfy the nutritional requirements of households. Those respondents who deploy the coping strategy of food crop production were the ones observed to have adequate feeding for their households’ members. To this end, government should encourage agricultural food crop production amongst households through equitable distribution of improved seedlings, pesticides and fertilizers to as many households as possible that are into agricultural production. With many hands into agriculture, production will be high and there will be enough food to feed the people.

Three respondent heads of households were minors. As minors, they should be under the care of adult. But they as the heads of their respective households were
taking care of their younger siblings in addition to taking care of themselves. This raises some fundamental development issues which if not addressed properly will create more problems in future.

It would be proper if such minor heads of households are made to reside with adult relation of theirs who will be supervising their activities and advising them accordingly, pending their attainment of maturity age. It is recommended that government should enact a regulation that landlords in urban areas should not rent accommodation to any person below the maturity age of 21, except with the written and signed consent of parents, pseudo parents or adult relations of the minor.
**BIBLIOGRAPHY**


World Bank (2000). International Poverty Line

APPENDIX I: QUESTIONNAIRE

Institute for Development Studies
University of Nigeria
Enugu Campus.

30 September, 2009.

Dear Respondent,

REQUEST TO ANSWER QUESTIONNAIRE

The Researcher is a postgraduate student in the Institute for Development Studies (IDS), University of Nigeria, Enugu Campus, currently carrying out a research work on the topic: URBAN POVERTY AND HOUSEHOLD COPING STRATEGIES: A STUDY OF SELECTED NEIGHBOURHOODS IN ENUGU METROPOLIS

Please, your co-operation is needed to complete the research work by supplying the information needed by filling the questionnaire. Every information provided is for academic purposes only and will be treated with utmost confidentiality.

Thanks for your anticipated co-operation.

Yours sincerely,

B N Ezeanolue
PART ONE; Social/Demographic Information.

Residential area: Obiagu   Iva Valley   Udi Siding/Ngenevu

1. Sex:   Male   Female

2. Age: < 18 years   18 – 29   30 – 39   40 – 49   50 and above

3. Marital Status: Single   Married   Divorced   Widowed   Separated

4. Number of children: 

5. Number of people living in your household: 

6. Highest Educational Qualification attained: FSLC
   WASC/GCE/NECO   OND/NCE   HND/Bachelor degree
   Postgraduate/Masters/Doctorate

7. Primary Occupation: Full time Trading   Civil/Public service
   Unskilled Labor   Self employed Artisan
   Others specify

8. Secondary Occupation: Do you hold part-time job? Yes   No
   If yes, is it in your field of regular work? Yes   No
   Is it any other work available to you? Yes   No

9. Do you have a farm?
   (a) In town: Yes   No   (b) In village: Yes   No

10. Do you keep livestock? Yes   No

11. What does your spouse do?

12. Does your spouse contribute financially to household expenditure?

13. Does any member of your household hawk/trade or engage in other jobs to earn an income? Yes   No
14. Do you receive financial assistance from relations/friends on regular basis?  
   Regularly ☐️  Occasionally ☐️  Never ☐️

**PART TWO: ECONOMIC INFORMATION**

15. What is your household average monthly income? (Naira)  
   Less than 5000 ☐️  b/w 5000-10000 ☐️  10000-30000 ☐️  
   30000-50000 ☐️  50000-100000 ☐️  100000 and above ☐️

16. What type of accommodation are you occupying?  
   Batcher ☐️  One/two rooms public compound ☐️  An apartment ☐️  
   Bungalow ☐️  Mansion ☐️

17. Do you wish that you reside in a better accommodation that will provide you the desired comfort and security? Yes ☐️  No ☐️

18. What is your status in relation to that accommodation?  
   Landlord ☐️  Tenant ☐️  relation of owner of Household ☐️  
   friend ☐️

19. How much do you spend monthly on public utility?  
   Electricity: less than 500 Naira ☐️  501 – 1000 Naira ☐️  
   more than 1001 Naira ☐️  
   Water: less than 500 Naira ☐️  1 – 1000 Naira ☐️  
   more than 1001 Naira ☐️

20. What type of toilet facilities do you use in your residential accommodation?  
   No toilet ☐️  open toilet ☐️  Pit toilet ☐️  Water closet ☐️

21. What is your main source of water supply?  
   Tap water ☐️  Water vendors ☐️  
   Harvested rainfall ☐️  Shallow well ☐️  Stream ☐️

22. Does your source of water supply in 21 above satisfy your need in terms of regular availability and proximity? Yes ☐️  No ☐️

23. What is your household daily average expenditure on feeding?  
   .......................................................... ..........................................................

24. Do you consider the standard of feeding of your household members adequate?  
   Yes ☐️  No ☐️
25. What type of school do your children attend?
   Public [ ] Private [ ] Mission [ ] No schooling [ ]

26. What informed your choice of school for your child(ren) in question 25 above?
   Proximity [ ] Cost [ ] Social prestige [ ]

27. Where do you send sick members of your household to for medical care?
   Chemist [ ] Self medication [ ] Herbal medicine man [ ] Diviner [ ]
   Prayer House [ ] Hospital [ ]

28. Your choice of place of health care service is informed by
   Proximity [ ] Cost of treatment [ ] Effective cure [ ]
   Lack of access to hospital [ ]

29. Do you own a private means of transportation? Yes [ ] No [ ]
   Type: Bicycle [ ] Motor bike [ ] Car [ ] None [ ]

30. Do you use it for commercial purposes? No [ ] Occasionally [ ] Regularly [ ]

31. Is there any welfare Association meeting in your:
   1. Neighborhood? Yes [ ] No [ ]
   2. Place of employment Yes [ ] No [ ]
   3. Church Yes [ ] No [ ]

32. Do you belong to any of the Associations in Qu 31 above? Yes [ ] No [ ]
   Which ones 1, 2, 3

33. Why do you belong to the Association? …………………………………………..
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………

34. How do you save money/wealth
   Thrift Organizations [ ] Bank account [ ] Agric Commodity [ ]

35. What have you been doing to increase your household income?
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………

36. Which of the following expenses would you wish to reduce or eliminate?
   1. Rent [ ] 2. Feeding [ ] 3. Utility bill [ ] 4. Taxation [ ]
   5. Medical [ ] 6. Transportation [ ] 7. School fees [ ]
   8. Purchase of clothing [ ] 9. Security levy [ ]
   10. Cooking Fuel: Kerosene, Firewood, Gas [ ]
37. When you have unexpected need for money, how do you get it?
   1. From friends and relations- as gift
   2. Bank loan, Microfinance loan, Individual Loan
   3. Meeting or association loan
   4. Mortgage own property
   5. Sale of valuable property
   6. From personal savings
   7. Others, specify

38. Do your children/grandchildren remit money to you?
   Regularly ■ Seasonally ■ None ■

39. What do poor households, you know, do in order to cope with their low income?
   ………………………………………………………………………………………………………

40. Suggest how best an individual household member, community or neighborhood and government can help the people live a better standard of life

THANKS.
APPENDIX II: Computation of Analysis of Variance

\[ \sum x \text{ total} = 91 + 94 + 89 = 274 \]

\[ \sum x^2 \text{ total} = 1493 + 1548 + 1525 = 4566 \]

Determination of Total sum squares (\( \Sigma x^2 \))

\[ \sum x \text{ total} = \frac{4566 - (274)^2}{24} - \frac{75076}{24} = 3128.16 \]

\[ \sum x \text{ total} = 4566 - 3128.16 = 1437.84 \]

Determination of Inter between group sum squares \( \Sigma x^2_b \)

\[ \Sigma x^2_b = \frac{(91)^2 + (94)^2 + (89)^2 - (274)^2}{8} \]

\[ = \frac{8281 + 8835 + 7921}{8} \]

\[ = \frac{8281 + 8835 + 7921 - 75076}{24} \]

\[ = \frac{1035.12 + 1104.37 + 990.12}{8} \]

\[ = 1.45 \]

Determination of within Group Sum Squares (\( \Sigma x^2_w \))

\[ \Sigma x^2 w^2 = \frac{1493 - (91)^2 + 1548 - (94)^2 + 1525 - (89)^2}{8} \]

\[ = \frac{1493 - 1035.12 + 1548 - 1104.50 + 1525 - 990.12}{8} \]

\[ = \frac{457.88 + 443.50 + 534.88}{3} = 1436.26 \]

Determination of Inter between group variance \( S^2_b \)

\[ S^2_b = \frac{\Sigma x^2_b}{\text{Df of between group}} \text{ ie Between group sum squares} \]

\[ \text{Degree of freedom of between group} \]

Where the group \( = 3 \)
Degree of freedom \( = 3 - 1 = 2 \)

\[ \therefore S^2_b = \frac{1.45}{2} = 0.72 \]

Determination of within group variance \( S^2_w \)

\[ S^2_w = \frac{\sum xw^2}{Df_w} \]

Within group sum squares

Degree of freedom of within group variance

Where degree of freedom of within group = \( 24 - 3 = 21 \)

\[ S^2_w = \frac{1436.26}{21} = 68.39 \]

Determination of ratio of variance (F)

\[ F = \frac{S^2_b}{S^2_w} \]

\( \text{between group variance} = 0.72 \)

\( \text{Within group variance} = 68.39 \)

\[ \therefore = 0.01 \]

\[ d = \frac{\hat{\nu}}{21} \]