ANALYSIS OF URBAN POVERTY AND ITS IMPLICATIONS ON DEVELOPMENT IN UYO URBAN, AKWA IBOM STATE.

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ABSTRACT

Concern for studies on urban poverty has been of low priority to government, researchers and development planners in Nigeria. For over two decades, studies have been focused on rural poverty. This study therefore, investigated the present poverty situation in Uyo urban area and identified the vulnerable groups and their spatial dimension. The study adopted a survey research design in data collection. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse the data gathered from 20 sampled units in the study area Factor analysis technique was used to determine the different levels of poverty in the study area. The study revealed significant relationship between factors of urban poverty and development in Uyo urban area. The study recommended the formulation and implementation of policies by Government that would provide employment, housing, education, improved health care among others for the urban poor.

KEY WORDS: Urban Poverty, Relative Poverty, Absolute Poverty, Poverty Line and Development.

INTRODUCTION

Since Robert S. McNamara, former President of the World Bank announced at Nairobi, in 1973, a major poverty escalation by calling for its eradication by the end of the twentieth century, there had been growing and increasing concern for the poor. This has led to the desire to reduce and/or eradicate poverty and enhance sustainable development all over the world. He proposed the term "absolute poverty" as a condition of deprivation that 'falls below any rational definition of human decency' (Loungani, 2003).

In the 1980s, the environment besides poverty became a significant concern of national and global policy makers, attracting increased funding and investment. The Bruntland Commission's report entitled "Our Common Future" (1987) made social justice and human well-being an integral part of the definition of sustainable development. So, in the 1990s before and during the World Conference on Environment and Development in Rio de Janeiro in 1992, issues on poverty were elevated to the top on the international agenda in response to the undeniably stark and growing wealth imbalances in the world. The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), in its eight point agenda considered eradication of poverty and hunger as very crucial. It posited that by 2015 half of the world's population should earn an income more than one dollar a day thus reducing the number of people who suffer from hunger (Wallace, 2003). Urban Poverty refers to individuals or households mostly found in the slums, ghettoes and shanties who are unable to have decent and dignified life. It is characterised by inadequate welfare services and social deprivation, low per capita income, overcrowded accommodation, low level of education, low level of capital resources, and non-formal sources of capital for business (Ekpo and Uwatt, 2005).

The problem of poverty has become more fundamental because it is not just a number, a quantified measure expressed by single or multiple indicators. It has become a "pronounced deprivation in well-being which determines the pace of development of a given region" (World Bank, 2000).

In Nigeria, despite the country's huge physical and human resource potentials, the macroeconomic and social sector trends have shown deterioration (Dauda,2002). World Bank's reports show statistics such as \$250 GDP per capita, life expectancy of about fifty years with illiteracy rate of 45%, that between 1985 to 1986, 34.1% of Nigerians lived below poverty level.

This figure had jumped to 56% in 1996. The sam e report also revealed that 26 million Nigerians were core poor in 1996 unlike 13 million in 1985, an indication of rising poverty level. The figure also shows that 60% of rural dwellers and close to 48% of urban dwellers are in poverty. According to the Federal Office of Statistics (FOS) 1999 estimates, over 65% of Nigerians are living below the poverty line of N395.42 monthly. This showed that the incidence is high in all the States of the Federation. These figures may have doubled if not tripled today.

Using the most recent World Bank poverty indicators such as access to safe water, health, income, education, empowerment, pollution and the number of poor people, Nigeria ranked below Kenya, Ghana, and Zambia. Its Gross National Products (GNP) per capita is also lower, while purchasing power continues to decline with high inflation and increasing income inequality. UNICEF classifies Nigeria as a country with severe child malnutrition and very high under 5 year's mortality rate. Access to education, health, water and housing is inadequate. Although most of the poor people live in

rural areas, urban poverty is becoming an increasing concern. Recent studies indicate a worsening trend in urban welfare indicators, especially among the urban slum-dwellers who form one of the most deprived groups yet offer ready and cheap labour for many urban services (World Bank, 1997). The fundamental objectives of the study is to investigate the present poverty situation in Uyo urban; identify the vulnerable groups in the urban area; measure and evaluate the nature of poverty in Uyo urban and to recommend appropriate poverty alleviation measures.

The Issue

According to World Bank, the number of rural poor declined from 26.4 million in 1985 to 22.8 million in 1992 or 19 to 16%,whereas in urban towns and cities, it rose from 9.7 million to 11.9 million or 9 to 12% in 1985-1992. In the same period, total extreme poverty in the country increased from 10.1 million people to 13.9 million with a near three-fold increase in the urban extreme poor from 1.5 million to 4.3 million people (World Bank, 1995).

The emergence of Local Government headquarters as centres of development and urban areas alongside state capitals and other major towns in the country through Federal Government policy is attendant with problems. The situation has made these urban areas centres of growth, a process that leads to unguided urbanization. The phenomenon is more than mere concentration of people living and working in the towns and cities, but a case driven by interrelated processes of change including economic, demographic, political, cultural, technological and social changes. These affect the quality of urban life or urban social well being in terms of income, wealth, employment, living environment, health services and education. have brought out new challenges which are widespread and increasing urban poverty.

The creation of Akwa Ibom State in 1987, and the consequent emergence of Uyo as the State capital brought with it attendant problems as stated above. Rural-urban and urban-urban migrations have taken place - all to settle for functional, enhanced and better well being. But, instead of a more comfortable living, it is observed that the effects of poverty have influenced the livability of the inhabitants thus infringing on the sustainable living and development of Uyo as an urban area and its people

The Study Area- Uyo

Uyo is situated between latitude 5° 01' North of Equator and longitude 7° 56' East of the Meridian. It is bounded in the west by Abak, east by Uruan, north by Ikono, Ibiono Ibom and Itu and in the south by Etinan,Ibesikpo/Asutan and Nsit Ibom Local Government Areas.

Uyo urban centre has undergone many evolutionary processes of political, administrative, spatial, demographic and economic changes. During the

colonial era, Uyo was made a district headquarters in 1905. With the enactment of the township ordinance of 1917, Uyo was classified as a third class township. Following the political and administrative changes in 1905 which culminated into the creation of regional system of government in Nigeria, Uyo was once again made the headquarters of Uyo federated county council in the former Eastern region in 1957. Provincial and divisional administration was later introduced in Eastern and Uyo became the administrative headquarters of Uyo province controlling former divisions of Eket, Opobo, Uyo and Enyong. In 1976, the local government system was introduced and Uyo became the headquarters of Uyo Local Government Area; a status it held until 1987, when it was again up graded to a state capital following the creation of Akwa Ibom State out of the former Cross River State. While political and administrative changes were on, spatial changes were observed.

Uyo urban area here refers to such areas which are already built up and those declared by government as planning areas within Uyo Local Government Area and its adjoining environs, which sprawl into some neighbouring Local Government Areas. As a rapidly growing urban centre, a local government headquarters and a state capital plus a regional centre, the rate of netmigration is positively high. For the purpose of this research work the study area will cover some geographical (contiguous) communities of Oku, Offot and Etoi clans that make up Uyo urban with a population of 128,250 (NPC, 1991). Uyo urban area here refers to such areas which are already built up and those declared by government as planning areas within Uyo Local Government Area and its environs. Using geometric method, the total population is projected to 245,389 in 2009 at a growth rate of three point five (3.5%) percent. As a rapidly growing urban centre, a local government headquarters and a state capital plus a regional centre, the rate of net-migration would be positively high

Methodology

The study adopted a household survey research design. It used the descriptive and inferential statistics to analyze data gathered from 20 sampled units in the study area as shown in Figure 1. Data collection was through the use of structured questionnaires, oral interview, and direct observation of the study area. The survey covered notable areas around Aka Road, Abak Road, Ikot Ekpene Road, Nwaniba Road, Oron Road, Ikot Ebido Oku, Afaha Oku, Nsukara, Itiam Ikot Ebia, Obio Offot, , Itam Junction, Ibiaku Itam, among others. The sampled households in all the areas covered were selected by stratified random sampling technique. This was achieved by dividing the population of the three contiguous clans of Offot, Oku and Etoi into strata or sub-populations. The houses and households sampled were drawn randomly along the major roads (Aka, Abak, Ikot Ekpene, Wellington Bassey, Nwanaiba, Oron) network demarcation to enhance representativeness.

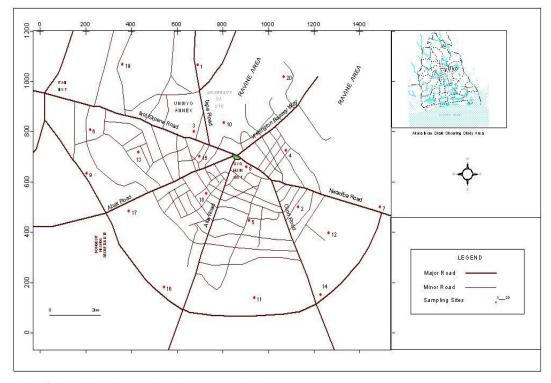


Fig. 1 : Uyo Urban showing Sampling Sites

Conceptual Framework and Literature Review

The pioneers in the study of poverty defined poverty as a situation where the income of families is insufficient to obtain the minimum necessities for the maintenance of merely physical efficiency (Rowntree, 1992). Anyanwu (1997) and Tella (1997) have noted that while conceptualization of poverty may not be an easy task, the phenomenon is a consequence of lack of income or property or opportunities to generate income or property, deficiency in provision of goods, deprivation and lack of rights or lack of opportunity to participate in social and political decision making. In this connection, the concepts of absolute poverty and relative poverty emerged.

Concept of Absolute Poverty

The World Bank currently regards people earning less than US\$1.00 a day to be absolutely poor. Different countries define and measure poverty in a variety of ways. Local expenditure levels are frequently converted to an international scale for comparing. On this basis, the dollar-a-day measure has become the most commonly accepted measure of absolute poverty. However, this measure is at odds with the significantly lower national poverty lines used by individual countries such as the People's Republic of China (PRC) and India. The measure also suffers from lack of distinction between rural and urban cost and consumption patterns. For example, value judgments are used to declare that a standard of living based on less than one dollar a day is socially unacceptable. The same value judgments can be used to rule that two dollars a day constitute the poverty line.

In Nigeria the poverty line was put at $\frac{1}{4}$ 395.42 (FOS, 1999). This is primarily measured by expenditure/consumption – income and basic needs oriented indices. As rightly espoused by Rede (1990),

this is a subsistence level that possesses just the necessities of life for the survival of an individual which reflects the classical concept of minimum standard. It is the inability to attain this minimum standard that is absolute poverty. This stems from lack of command over subsistent goods/basic needs such as food, shelter, housing, portable water, and basic healthcare and education. Aboyade (1987) states that insufficient or total lack of necessities and facilities like food, housing, medical care, education, social and environmental service, consumer goods, recreational opportunities, neighbourhood amenities and transport, provide clear indicators of a state of poverty.

Concept of Relative Poverty

This is defined as a minimum economic, social, political and cultural goods needed to maintain an acceptable way of life in a particular society. European Union sees it as "...persons, families and groups of persons whose resources (material, cultural, social) are so limited as to exclude them from the minimum acceptable way of life in the member state in which they live." Townsend (1973) says it is a state where individuals or families are in command of resources which, overtime, fall seriously short of the resources commanded by the average persons or families in the community in which they live. Ekpo et al (2005) say that conceptually, relative poverty refers to a person or household whose provision of goods is lower than that of other person or household. They further state that relative poverty does not necessarily mean that the person concerned cannot meet the basic needs; rather it means that his requirement for meeting the basic needs is lower than the average of the society. Based on this, Aboyade (1987) states that people are poverty-stricken in relative terms when their incomes, even if adequate for survival, fall radically behind that of

their community average. This concept reflects the relative positions of economics of people in the same region or between regions at a given time or over a period.

Review of Related Literature

Urban poverty is a multidimensional phenomenon, and the poor suffer from various deprivations such as lack of access to employment; adequate housing and services, social protection, lack of access to health, education and personal security. It is often characterized by cumulative deprivations as it is closely related with asset ownership. The more assets people have, the less vulnerable they are to poverty. The focus of this review therefore, is on urbanisation and poverty.

Soyombo (1987) in discussing urbanization and poverty states that the first impoverishing factor for the urbanite is urbanization itself. That, conditions such as high population density and its astronomical growth rate, unemployment and high cost of living, help to ensure the impoverishment of the average urban person. analyzing the rate of growth of urban centers in Nigeria. he opined that the rate of urban population growth is higher than what urban facilities could cope with and cater for. Also, that, in spite of the harsh realities of urban centres, a lot of people still flock there in search of non available employment opportunities, thus stretching existing facilities to their limits and making demands far in excess of available goods and services thus causing prices to sky rocket. These, therefore, compound the urban problem and create a situation of either "shared poverty" or "subsistence urbanization" by migrants depending on more fortunate relatives.

Knox (1994) sees urban poverty as concomitant products of income distribution due to the city economic system, uneven distribution of resources and opportunities between socio-economic subgroups, within institutional shortcomings, leading to inadequate participation and representation within the city and regional political process, and malfunctioning of public services. Oyesiku (2000) says urban poverty phenomenon is a consequence of lack of income and opportunities to generate income, deficiency in provision of goods, deprivation and lack of rights or lack of opportunity to participate in social and political decision making, insufficient capability, social and economic exclusion mechanisms. He further states that poverty line in Africa varies among the affluent countries of the northern and southern regions of the continent. Nevertheless, there are minimum levels of services and infrastructure which city dwellers should have, as well as basic living environment. This standard is what Smith (1977, 1987) attempts to describe as "Quality of Urban Life" or "Urban Social Well-being". Smith proposes three groups of principal indicators: income, wealth and environment (income, employment status income supplement); secondly, the living environment (housing, neighbourhood and physical environment); and finally, education and health services received (achievement, access, duration and quality).

Ijaiya, et al (2000) state that the incidence of poverty in Nigeria seems rather pathetic with the rate increasing from 28.1% in 1980 to about 65.6% in 1996. Using the annual report of the Central Bank of Nigeria, Federal Office of Statistics (1999), it was observed that

67 million persons out of about 102 million persons were poor in the country. The report shows a progressive increase in the rate of poverty in both the rural and urban areas of the country from 6.5% and 3.0% in 1980 to 31.6% and 25.2% in 1996 respectively.

Estimating the Poverty Line Using the Costof-Basic Need Approach

In estimating the poverty line, the Cost-of-Basic Need Approach was used. There are two approaches in determining this. These are:

- . Estimation of the minimum nutritional requirements needed for the maintenance of the physical efficiency with an allowance for entertainment or smoking.
- ii. Calculation of the least-cost of non-food basic needs such as housing, education, transportation, clothing etc for a given period

To do this, a referenced household deemed to be typical of the poor would be specified. The consumption pattern of this referenced household becomes the anchor for the subsequent stages. It must be noted that a household would be deemed poor if it cannot afford the cost of a referenced food bundle chosen to yield adequate food energy intake consistent with the typical diet of those deemed poor.

The Food Poverty Approach

The first step is to determine the energy requirement of an adult person per day in Uyo. The World Health Organization (WHO) recommendation of minimum of 2200 calories and 53.8g of protein which include additions for special conditions such as pregnancy and lactation was adopted for Uyo urban. This would be used in estimating the poverty line for the study area. Some food items common in the area were selected as listed in the Table 3. The food frequency assessment table was used for the conversion. Also, the Adult-Male Equivalent Adjustment (AMEA) method was used (Gaiha, 1993). In this method, household compositions are adjusted to adult-male equivalents based on Adult Male Equivalent Scale (AMES). See Table 1 below. The equivalents are then multiplied with the minimum caloric specifications to arrive at the minimum household caloric requirement per day or week. The cost of this, plus the cost of the other basic non-food household needs is the poverty line (threshold) for a given household.

The Adult-Male Equivalent Scale (AMES)

In designing the scale, some assumptions were made. These include among others:

- Adults and children eat the same kind of food and when different, the foods cost relatively the same per weight.
- ii Males above 15 years of age eat about the same quantity of food and, therefore, earn the same points as the male adult.
- iii Adult females eat about the same quantity of food with males and females of ages 15 and 11 years respectively and earn the same points in the scale.

Table 1:	Adult-Male Equivalent Scale									
Age	Gender	Points								
0 – 5	Male	0.3								
6 – 10	Female	0.5								
11 – 15	Female	0.7								
Over 15	Male	1.00								

Source: Gaiha, R (1993).

The scale on Table 1 above was used to adjust all members of the reference household to an adult male equivalent sizes. The daily requirement for the seven members of the household was based on the daily caloric and protein requirements for the period of one day were estimated as follows:

$$AMES = 4.4$$

Protein = 53.8

Referenced Household of seven requirements:

Calories =
$$(2200 \times 4.4) \text{ cal/day}$$

= 9,680 cal/day

Protein =
$$(53.8 \times 4.4) \text{ g/day}$$

= 236.72g/day

The Referenced Household
Table 2: AMES Distribution for the Referenced
Household

_	1	l	41450
Age			AMES
	Gender	Number	Points
0 – 5	Male		0.3
		1	
6 - 10	Female		1.0
		2	
11 - 15	Male		1.4
		2	
Above	Female		0.7
15		1	
Above	Male		1.0
15		1	
TOTAL			4.4
		7	

Source: Authors' Fieldwork, 2009

As derived from Table 4.4, average household size of seven is used in the study. The following analysis is with reference to this size. Table 4.26 above shows the age, gender, number and AMES points' distribution for the referenced household.

Least Cost Diet

Table 3: The Least Cost Diet Composition per Day in Uyo Urban

Food	Quantity (grams)	Energy (kcal)	Protein (grams)	Fat (gram)	Cost (N)
Yams	360	428.4	6.84	0.72	3.50
Garri	1,428	5,012.3	14.28	29.26	10.50
Cassava (foo foo)	110	187	1.92	0.88	1.30
Rice	300	1107	22.2	0.90	2.47
Beans	270	923.4	62.37	3.78	2.28
Plantain/Banana	240	324	2.88	0.72	1.91
Maize (Ogi)	30	22.8	0.54	1.26	0.70
*Vegetables	360	97.2	14.4	0.72	0.95
Meat (Beef)	70	165.9	12.74	12.39	1.40
Fish/Crayfish	100	74	16.6	0.30	1.07
Eggs	40	56	4.72	3.84	1.21
Beverages/Sugar	40	38	1.32	2.00	060
TOTAL		8,436	160.21	56.77	27.89

Source: Authors' Fieldwork, 2009

Note: *Vegetables include pepper, tomatoes, onions, okra and leaves (afang, edikang ikong, editan), and others used in soup preparation. The composition of the least cost diet for the reference household was based on foods usually eaten in Uyo urban.

The computed results in the Table 3 show that the least cost of the recommended diet in the study area is \mathbb{\text{4}}27.89. This indicates the amount that can purchase a basket of food that will generate \mathbb{\text{4}}119.53 in the urban

area. This is, therefore, the food poverty-line for the study area for a family of seven persons per day.

The Non-Food Poverty Approach

The non-food household needs considered in the survey included housing, education, transport, health services, water, telephones/GSM, waste disposal, energy (for cooking and lighting). For the housing, the minimum number of rooms required by the household

size of seven is 2 rooms. The amount allowed for education is for two children only (one in primary and one in secondary), telephone/GSM is applied for two

water, waste disposal and energy) the average household expenditure for the state is used. Based on these the following was developed as indicated in Table 4.

Table 4: Non-Food Needs for the Referenced Household of Seven in Uyo Urban

	Amounts (N)									
ITEMS		**	Per Capita							
	Wee kly	Monthl y	Weekl y	Monthly						
Housing	49.83	214.29	7.12	30.62						
Education	83.06	357.14	11.87	51.02						
Transport	132.8 9	571.43	18.98	81.63						
Health Services	80.43	345.86	11.49	49.41						
Utilities	94.68	407.14	13.53	58.16						
Clothing Materials	83.06	357.14	11.87	51.02						
TOTAL	523.9 5	2,257.0	74.86	321.86						

Source: Authors' Fieldwork, 2009

Note: **A month = 30days or 4.3 weeks

The Poverty Line for Uyo Urban

Table 5 shows that the basic needs income required to meet food and non-food items of a household of seven for a period of one week is N718.53 or N3, 093.70 per month. This is equivalent to N102.66 per head per week or N451.39 per month or N15.05 per day. Therefore, N451.39 per head per month is the poverty–line estimated for Uyo urban.

Table 5: Basic Needs Income for Food and Non-Food Needs for Household of Seven

Needs	Amounts (N)									
-	Weekly	Monthly	Per	Capita						
			Weekly	Monthly						
Food	194.58	836.70	27.80	119.53						
Non- Food	523.95	2257.00	74.86	321.86						
TOTAL	718.53	3,093.70	102.66	451.39						

Source: Authors' Fieldwork, 2009

Results of Factor Analysis

From the Rotated Factor matrix for the Urban Poverty in Table 6, it could be seen that the factor analysis procedure with Verimax rotation applied to the data yielded a ten-dimensional solution. The communalities, which are regarded as indications of the importance of the variables in the analysis are generally high (above 50). This shows that the variables selected for this study are appropriate and relevant. The ten (10) factors put together accounted for 86.481% of total variance in the 33 original variables may be regarded as composite indicators defining pattern of urban poverty in the study area. Table 7 is interpreted along with Table 6 to assess the relationship of the 20 sampled units on the basis of a minimum of 1.00 score.

Factor 1 accounted for 17.02% of the total variance and is without doubt the most important factor. Of the thirty three variables in the analysis, four of them including types of occupation, food intake, empowerment and access and utilization of health facilities loaded positively and significantly on this factor. This is named occupational factor. Three sample units have strong positive scores with unit 19 (Uko Eshiet) having the highest score (Table 7). This indicates that there is a strong relationship between occupation and urban poverty.

Factor 2 accounted for 13.76% of the total variance. Associated with this were three variables of employment, loss of small savings and types of roofing materials. It is named employment factor. On this factor, four units have high positive scores with unit 3 (Ekpanya Road Axis) having the highest score.

Factor 3 was found to account for 10.57% of the total variance in the original data matrix. These variables loaded highly on two variables such as inability to pay rent, and the nutritional status of the family. The factor was named socio -economic factor. Three units are found to score highly here with unit 1(Afaha Oku) performing best.

Factor 4 accounted for 9.94% of the total variance. Three variables loaded positively and significantly. These were identification of slum areas, access to and utilization of water supply and source of

water supply. This factor was named infrastructural factor. Two units have strong performance while unit 11(Aka Itiam) is better.

Factor 5 accounted for 9.12% of the total variance dominated by solid waste disposal system. It was named health factor. Here unit 8 (Uyo Main Market Area) performed best of the three units that are strong.

Factor 6 was found to load highly for 7.37% and dominated by saving pattern and types of dwelling unit. It is named savings factor. Three units showed positive scores with unit 8 as above being the strongest.

Factor 7 accounted for 6.10% of the total variance. Variables that dominated include household affordability, socio-economic status of household and income. The factor is dominated by housing situation and therefore named housing factor. Three units also responded positively in this factor and unit 15 (Oku Street Axis) scored the highest.

Factor 8 has 5.32% of the total variance. Income and crime rate variables are associated with the variable. This factor is named, income factor. The matrix reveals units 7 (Ekpri Nsukara Area) out of the three that have high scores is the strongest.

Factor 9 accounted for 3.82% of the total variance. It was found to load highly on low quality public services. It is named utility factor. A total of four units have high positive scores of which unit 20 (Iba Oku) shows the strongest performance.

Factor 10 accounted for 3.47% of the total variance and was found to load highly on the type of fuel used in cooking. This variable tends to relate to energy and thus is named energy factor with unit 7 (Ekpri Nsukara Area) having the highest score of the three units that exhibited strong performance.

Table 6: Rotated Factor Matrix for Distribution of Urban Poverty in Uyo Urban

ar		Loading										Communal
ar.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	ities
Α	Н	.524		.17	.15	.12	.11	.57	.33	.28	.25	.954
Е	S	- .162	.28	.408			.11	.75 8		.182	.21	.949
С	0	.76 7	.29		.29	.12			.28 5	•••	.28	.951
В	Н	.31	.20 5	.500		.16 4	.587	.123	.11			.803
	FI	.88		.11		.133						.830
	IN	.239	.215		.20	.13		.53	.61 9	.163		.873
Р	S	.201		.122	.14	.24	.79 1		.13		.14 5	.824
С	Α	- .148		.228		.19		.843		25 9		.902
М	Е	.52	.162	.36			.230		.399	.38		.808
S	Р		.19				.544	- .111	.303	.53	.287	.811
Р	E		.91 4	.115				.16 3	.115		.138	.930
S	L		.91 4	.115				.16 3	- .115		.138	.930
Н	F	.172	.789		.260	.194		.18		.13 1	.228	.865
L	S		.584		.57	.18	.15					.748
R	С		.155		.214		.17		.88	- .112		.907
S	S	.41 8			.132	.616	.29	.30		34 1		.888
Р	R	- .172		.57	.136	.32	.26 9		.47 5	.12	.12	.817
S	N			.85 7		- .211			.18			.824

	Е	.35			-		.11			.10		.876
Α		6	6	1	.759	0	6		.259	5		
F	Η	.80		.242			.166		.259		.138	.835
F	S		.206	.34	.401	.50	.131		.377	.343	.32	.953
S	М	.349		.285	.554	.185		.310		.108	.39	.810
U	D	.361		.11	.33	.58	.51	.155	.14		.13	.926
Т	U					.16 9	.10	.34		.813		.847
Е	U	.496	•••	.298		.404		7	3	.138	.212	.863
W	Τ		.431	.57		.31	.23	4	.142	.31	.102	.845
R	Τ	.179			.25	.28	- .777	.199				.836
F	Τ	.37	.63 7	.33						.18 1	.370	.848
W	_			.234	.74 1	.13		.176	.270		.11	.776
s	W	.12	.32				.224	.21 5		.236	.109	.926
Т				.716			.33		.18 4		.155	.844
FC	Τ		.132	.12			.17				.86 7	.824
W	_					.948				•••		.915
v.		5.6 23	4.5	3.4 86	3.2 80	3.0 09	2.4	2.0	54	1.2 61	44	
v		04	76	10. 57	4	2	7.3	0	5.3	2	7	
%	С	17. 04	30. 80	41. 36	51. 30	60. 42	67. 78	73. 88	79. 19	83. 02	86. 48	

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2005

Note: e.v. = Eigenvalue

% v = Percentage Variance

c% = Cumulative Percentage

Table 7: Composite Factor Score showing the Implications of the Performance of the Factors on Development in Uyo Urban

/No	S	Sample untis	D	imensi	ons of	distri	bution	of fact	ors				Totala
/NO	ο.		F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	- F		Totals
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
	1	Afaha Oku	.60	.76	.69	.11	95	26.	.00	.09	.20	1.3	4. 76
	2	Ewet/Uruan Road Area	.04	.39	.93	.79	.27	05	.34	.68	.51	.24	0. 26
	3	Ekpanya Road Area	- .19	.13	. 86	12	. 14	1.0	.75	.12	.07	.02	2. 24
	4	Dominic Utuk Road Area	.24	.33	. 01	1.0 9	70	.36	.27	2.3	1.6	67	4.81
	5	Udo Umana Axis	.25	.99	.05	2.0	. 04	.60	07	. 00	.23	94	1.97
	6	Ikot Ebido Oku	.34	1.06	32	.32	.27	40	.55	54	31	.52	0. 05
	7	Ekpri Nsukara Area	.35	54	83	37	37	15	.21	.38	.84	.32	5. 61
	8	Uyo Main Market Area	1.06	1.46	.24	55	.61	.84	76	23	41	.66	1. 98
	9	Effiat Offot	13	. 01	81	.11	38	.17	.30	.93	1.1	56	2. 84
0.	1	Uniuyo Campus Area	.85	1.27	.12	.05	40	2.4	39	24	15	09	3.42
1.	1	Aka Itiam	. 80	.63	.50	.37	38	1.4	.24	.02	53	42	1. 71
2.	1	State Housing Estate	1.67	.15	1.01	32	.94	.87	1.62	.69	61	.66	6.68
3.	1	Iboko Offot	. 06	. 19	1.69	32	.40	73	.03	.59	26	.47	1.62
4.	1	Etoi	47	.08	1.29	.86	.76	92	2.4	.64	.02	.12	2.50
5.	1	Oku Street Axis	.46	85	1.30	23	.68	.82	.34	85	.70	.21	0. 10
6.	1	Atan Offot	.64	.00	1.18	.51	.56	.10	.39	.37	75	.30	2. 28
7.	1	Federal Housing Estate	.28	.23	.52	59	- 2.51	37	. 04	.00	1.9	2.2	- 4.62

											2	
8.	Aka Town Axis	.21	.71	69	.90	1.02	59	. 88	. 08	.00	.59	0.19
9.	Uko Eshiet Area	.57	.33	.03	.35	48	.53	68	90	.24	1.7	1. 45
0.	lba Oku	.07	.58	52	.00	1.11	35	07	1.2	.76	.46	3. 34
T	OTAL	.01	.05	.01	.52	.21	0.05	.31	0.1	1.1 6	0.9	0. 81

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2005

Findings and Analysis of Poverty in the Study Area

The result of the factor analysis produced ten dimensions of development. These are occupation (F1), employment (F2), socio economic (F3), infrastructural (F4), health (F5), savings pattern (F6), housing (F7), income (F8), utility (F9) and energy (F10) factors. These were expressed in terms of the factors of poverty and development. All the factor scores were summed up and classified according to the level of performances in each of the locations of study. The classifications showed 4.00-6.00 as extremely poor residents, 2.00-3.99 stood for very poor residents, 0.01-1.99 for poor residents, while -3.99 - -0.01 represented rich residents as -7.00 --4.00 was for the very rich residents. The higher the scores the poorer the persons, while the lower the score the richer the persons in the study area. Thus 4.00 -6.00 indicates that there was extreme poverty among the residents in the area.

The study revealed that the extremely poor persons were found mostly at Afaha Oku and Ekpri Nsukara axes of the urban area. The very poor residents lived at Ekpanya Road area, Effiat Offot, Atan Offot, and Iba Oku zones. The poor residents were found at Ewet/Uruan axis, Ikot Ebido Oku,Uyo Main Market area, Aka Itiam, Oku Street axis, and Uko Eshiet area. The rich residents lived at Udo Umana area, Uniuyo Campus area, Iboko Offot, Etoi, and Aka Town area. The very rich persons occupied the areas of Dominic Utuk Road axis, State Housing Estate and Federal Housing Estate. Implications of Poverty on Development in Uyo Urban

Problems arising from rapid urbanization and urban growth are starkly apparent in major cities of the country especially Uyo urban. The failure to ensure adequate and regular provision of basic services such as housing, health care facilities, water, electricity and sewerage systems, among others remains the greatest challenge to the urban area manager. Majority of the urban poor spend about 90% of their income on consumption with little or nothing for savings to be ploughed back into the economy or investment slows down development in all its ramifications. It can therefore be said that the urban poor would not participate effectively in the process of development of Uyo urban rather they add to the burden of development. The study has revealed that poverty is

obvious in Uyo urban and a strong relationship education, household size, occupation, employment, shelter, income and social infrastructural facilities such as health, roads, electricity, and water among others. Therefore, any attempt to improve these factors would either reduce or eliminate poverty.

CONCLUSION

Since poverty is manifested in widely varying spheres of life, policies for reducing it should encompass all of its main determinants at one and the same time. Thus, comprehensive strategies must be employed to

eliminate the structural vacuums associated with the production and reproduction of poverty, at the same time as they address the more immediate needs of the poor population in areas such as nutrition, education, employment, income, health and housing. Hence, a number of the policy guidelines regarding those areas that are set out in this research work also constitute poverty reduction policies.

Economic growth and stability are a necessary condition for poverty reduction, especially when they translate into more and better jobs for the poor. A larger number of more satisfactory employment opportunities are a prerequisite for the success of poor households' efforts to attain financial self-reliance. However, there is evidence that growth in itself is not enough to ensure significant reductions in poverty rates. Experience shows that, in times of crisis, poverty increases markedly, whereas during economic booms, reductions in poverty occur more slowly. The variability of economic growth is therefore a particularly influential factor.

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